

University of St Andrews



Full metadata for this thesis is available in
St Andrews Research Repository
at:

<http://research-repository.st-andrews.ac.uk/>

This thesis is protected by original copyright

TEACHING ARABIC VOCABULARY TO BEGINNERS IN
SECONDARY SCHOOL IN MALAYSIA

BY

H. B. A. M. DAHAN

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF LETTERS (M.LITT)
IN THE UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREWS

ST. ANDREWS

MAY 1992



UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREWS

Thesis Copyright Declaration Form.

A UNRESTRICTED

"In submitting this thesis to the University of St. Andrews I understand that I am giving permission for it to be made available for public use in accordance with the regulations of the University Library for the time being in force, subject to any copyright vested in the work not being affected thereby. I also understand that the title and abstract will be published, and that a copy of the work may be made and supplied to any bona fide library or research worker."

B RESTRICTED

"In submitting this thesis to the University of St. Andrews I wish access to it to be subject to the following conditions:

for a period of years [maximum 5] from the date of submission the thesis shall be

- a) withheld from public use.
- b) made available for public use only with consent of the head or chairman of the department in which the work was carried out.

I understand, however, that the title and abstract of the thesis will be published during this period of restricted access; and that after the expiry of this period the thesis will be made available for public use in accordance with the regulations of the University Library for the time being in force, subject to any copyright in the work not being affected thereby, and a copy of the work may be made and supplied to any bona fide library or research worker."

Declaration

I wish to exercise option A [i.e. A, Ba or Bb] of the above options.

Signature

Date

DECLARATION AND CERTIFICATION

a- I ... hereby certify that this dissertation has been written by me, and that it has not been submitted in any previous application for a higher degree date. . signature of candidate .

b. I was admitted as a candidate for the degree of M.Litt. on . ; the higher study for which this is a record was carried out in the University of St. Andrews between 1990/91 (year) and 1991/92 (year). date . signature of candidate

c. I hereby certify that the candidate has fulfilled the conditions of the Resolution and Regulations appropriate to the degree of M. Litt of the University of St. Andrews and that he is qualified to submit this dissertation in application for that degree. date . signature of supervisor

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation, to all Arabic language teachers, syllabus designers and to those concerned with the teaching of Arabic in Malaysia.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I wish to offer my sincere appreciation and gratitude to my supervisor, Professor J. Burton, for his academic assistance, valuable suggestions, and thoughtful attention during the years which I spent under his supervision. I would like to thank him for his generosity with his time, for his encouragement and patience to correct my mistakes, and for providing me with an opportunity to pursue study in this topic.

Acknowledgements are due to many others for providing valuable information: Dr. Kimber in the department of Arabic Studies who allowed me to use the computer in the department and helped me to 'adjust' it whenever I had a problem, my student helper, Heather, who continuously showed her patience to correct my language and Prof. Brockett, University of Durham, for his valuable consultation in the use of computers in the teaching of Arabic.

I should also express my great appreciation to both the government of Malaysia and the University of Malaya for grants of study leave with supporting finance which enabled me to complete my study.

The principal debt which must here be acknowledged is to my mother and the members of my immediate family whose tolerance and understanding have sustained me and eased the burden of frequent separation.

Abstract

Teaching vocabulary is one of the important parts in teaching languages. It was ignored in the past, so that many students have a problem to learn foreign languages. This dissertation, with a special focus to the teaching of Arabic in secondary school in Malaysia, develops teaching Arabic vocabulary so that responsible bodies in the country may be encouraged to discuss this suggestion. This dissertation focuses on two things in its core chapter: sources and techniques for teaching vocabulary. Technique is focused on because it is very important in teaching any subject. Unless a good technique is used, the material could be useless. Major sources are mentioned in this work since they will be a good guide to teachers. These sources are selected as a base for the purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia. The selected teaching aids are also listed in this work and are considered as 'helpers' to both teachers and students in learning Arabic vocabulary since teaching other languages has proved that these materials contribute greatly to the language learning process.

INTRODUCTION

Arabic Language has an important role among Muslims in Malaysia. It is not a language for communication or for business, but it is part of religion. If it is taught for academic purposes (as happens in some universities in the country), it still has a relation with religion. For this reason, the Department of Arabic language in the National University of Malaysia is under the Faculty of Shari'ah and is not under the Faculty of Arts (as happens in Arab universities). In the Ministry of Education, Arabic language is placed under the Department of Islamic Education and this subject is considered as one of the religious subjects.

The teaching of Arabic in Malaysia started many years ago. However, it still faces many problems. One of them is that students who have completed their study in secondary school are still unable to master this language in almost all aspects except grammar. This happens because they do not acquire a lot of vocabulary. Some of them, after being a student in secondary school for at least five years do not know the words which they should have known when they were in the early stage.

For this reason, this dissertation attempts to solve some of these problems. Therefore, it tries to look at the purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia, reassesses the present syllabus used in secondary school. This work will be done in the first part of the dissertation. In the core chapter, it will try as much as possible to find ways to solve the weaknesses among students in learning vocabulary. It tries to suggest the best sources to be used in teaching vocabulary, and then to suggest methods and techniques to teach Arabic vocabulary. Since learning vocabulary in many ways is different from learning grammar, this dissertation will also suggest the use of teaching aids. The combination of techniques and teaching aids, it is hoped, may solve some of the problems in teaching of Arabic in Malaysia.

NOTE ON THE SYSTEM OF TRANSLITERATIONS

The system of transliteration adopted by the Encyclopedia of Islam, new edition, 1979, has been followed with the following exceptions:

ج = j

ق = q

ه = h

ABBREVIATIONS:

Abc = Arabic by computers

BBC = British Broadcast Corporation

DIE = Department of Islamic Education

ISESCO = Islamic Education, Sciences and Culture Organisation

NISS = National Islamic Secondary School

OHP = Overhead Projector

T AFL = Teaching of Arabic as a Foreign Language

TASL = Teaching of Arabic as a Second Language

TESL = Teaching of English as a Second Language

Table of Contents

Chapter One

THE TEACHING AND LEARNING INSTITUTION IN MALAYSIA

1.1. Primary School	2
1.2. Secondary School	3
1.3. Higher Institution	7
1.4. Conclusion	7

Chapter Two

TEACHING AND LEARNING ARABIC IN SECONDARY SCHOOL IN MALAYSIA

2.1. The Purposes of Learning Arabic in Malaysia	12
2.2. Teaching Arabic in Arabic Secondary School	13
2.3. Teaching Arabic in National Islamic Secondary School	27
2.4. The Problems of Teaching of Arabic in Malaysia	41

Chapter Three

TEACHING VOCABULARY IN MODERN LANGUAGES

3.1. General Principles in Teaching and Learning Vocabulary	49
3.2. Limitation of Frequency List	62
3.3. Grading Vocabulary for Presentation	65
3.4. Presenting Vocabulary	66
3.5. Conclusion	72

Chapter Four

TEACHING ARABIC VOCABULARY FOR BEGINNERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

4.1. Introduction	79
4.2. The selection of Vocabulary	81

4.3. Techniques in Teaching Arabic Vocabulary for Beginners:

1. Context Clues	86
2. Synonyms and Antonyms	89
3. Roots	92
4. Pronunciation and Spelling	93
5. Visual Techniques	96
6. Translation	101
7. Learning Words in List	103
8. Using a Dictionary	103
9. Testing as Teaching	105
10. Student-Centred Learning	109
11. Using the Holy Qur'an and Arabic Loan-Words in Malay	113

Chapter Five

TEACHING AIDS FOR TEACHING VOCABULARY

5.1. Blackboard	127
5.2. The Tape-Recorder	128
5.3. The Overhead Projector	130
5.4. Video	131
5.5. Slides	134
5.6. Computers	143

Chapter Six

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

6.1. Conclusion	152
6.2. Suggestions	155
Appendix	160
Bibliography	163

CHAPTER ONE

THE TEACHING AND LEARNING INSTITUTION IN MALAYSIA

1.1. PRIMARY SCHOOL

1.2. SECONDARY SCHOOL

1.3. HIGHER INSTITUTION

1.4. CONCLUSION

1. THE TEACHING AND LEARNING INSTITUTION IN MALAYSIA.

The idea behind this topic is to get a general idea about the teaching and learning institution in Malaysia in order to find out which institution is involved in teaching Arabic and how far this involvement goes. Since the topic covers all learning institutions in Malaysia, I will discuss here, briefly, these institutions and their syllabus. Learning institutions in Malaysia are divided into three stages:

- i. Primary school
- ii. Secondary school
- iii. Higher institution

1.1. PRIMARY SCHOOL.

Primary school is a starting point for the Malaysian to begin his or her education. Any children who reach seven years old are required to go to this school which is sponsored by the government. There are six stages in this type of school (primary one to primary six). This means that children have to study here until they are twelve years old. From independence in 1957 until 1981, there were four types of primary schools; Malay primary school, English primary school, Chinese primary school and Indian primary school. After 1981, the government standardized all of these schools and put them under one system which is called the National primary school, with Malay Language as a medium language. However, Chinese and Indian languages are allowed to be taught as a subject in the former Chinese and Indian schools but not to be used as a medium language in teaching other subjects.

The subjects which are taught in this school are Malay Language, English Language, History, Geography, Mathematics, Sciences, Islamic knowledge or moral education for non muslims, Humanity and physical Education.

In primary six, pupils are required to take the examination prepared by the Examination board in the Ministry of Education. The result of the examination will decide whether they go to boarding secondary school or national secondary school. As we can see here, Arabic language is not taught in this school. However, children learn al Qur'ān and Jawi alphabet which is similar to Arabic alphabet. An initiative for teaching Arabic Language in primary school has been proposed recently by the Direc-

tor of Islamic Division in the Ministry of Education. ¹

1.2. SECONDARY SCHOOL.

Secondary schools in Malaysia are divided into two types:

- a. Religious secondary school.
- b. General secondary school.

All these schools have three stages:

- i. Lower secondary school (Form One to Form Three).
- ii. Middle secondary school (Form Four to Form Five).
- iii. Higher secondary school (Lower Six to Upper Six).

1.2.1. Religious secondary school.

This kind of school has two types; the first is called Arabic secondary school and the other is called National Islamic secondary school.

1.2.1.1. Arabic secondary school.

This school is also known as Madrasah, (Arabic word for school) or Sekolah Arab (Malay word for Arabic school). There is no clear evidence as to when this kind of school has begun in Malaysia. However, it is presumed that it has been found immediately after the arrival of Islam in the Malayan peninsula in the beginning of the fourteenth or fifteenth century A.D. It was, however, found as a small school scattered all over the country without any involvement or contribution from the Government at that time. It might be true to say that the purpose of learning Arabic at that time was not for anything else except for the understanding Islam. For this reason, most of the students who graduated from this school became religious teachers. However, in the latter part of the twentieth century A.D., this kind of school has changed in some aspects. After the introduction of the Education Act 1961, the Federal Government began to initiate its involvement in all kinds of schools in Malaysia. From the sixties until now, the government began to take over all of these schools or at least asked the state's government to look after this kind of school. However, what the Government has done to this school is not more than establishing the administration of the school and adding a standard syllabus i.e. arts and science subjects, in order to make up it to the same level with other secondary schools at that time. The Arabic language and religious subjects still remain and are taught as

before. Even though arts and science subjects are taught in this school in Malay language, the religious subjects like Tauhid (theology), Fiqh, Tafsir, Hadith, Mantiq (Logic), 'ulūm al Hadith and uşul al Fiqh are being taught in Arabic. The syllabuses for these religious subjects are also designed by the Department of Islamic Affairs in the State and not by the Ministry of Education and in some cases, for private schools, the syllabus for religious subjects still follows that from Arab countries.

1.2.1.2. National Islamic Secondary School.

This type of school was established only in 1977 when the Ministry of Education introduced another type of religious school. While Arabic school was not totally under the administration of the Ministry of Education, this kind of school is totally under the Ministry of Education. To be precise, it is administered by the Islamic Division in the Ministry of Education of Malaysia which was established in 1974. The reason behind its establishment was to fulfil the demand from vast numbers of parents who wanted to send their children to religious schools simply because the Arabic school, which can accept only a small number of students, could not fulfil this requirement. At the same time, the government also wants to show its initiative in fulfilling the nation's needs to understand Islam and Arabic language as well in order to make this kind of knowledge a way of life for every single Muslim in Malaysia as it is stated in the Philosophy of Islamic Education and the Philosophy of National Education.²

Despite being the religious school, there are some differences between the Arabic school and National Islamic secondary school. First, as we can see above most Arabic schools are funded and aided by the state's government and run by the management of the Department of Islamic Affairs. There are thirteen states' governments in Malaysia and each has its own way to run the school's syllabus. In other words, there is no arrangement whatsoever to standardise the syllabus, whereas the National Islamic secondary schools are run by the Islamic Division in the Ministry of Education. By 1987, there were 28 schools of this type all over Malaysia.³ The syllabuses for Arabic language and religious knowledge are designed by the Islamic Division in the Ministry of Education. Another difference is that Islamic religious subjects in Arabic schools are taught in Arabic as mentioned above and they are being taught separately. Students are required to take the examination for these subjects in addition to the examination from the Ministry of Education. For this reason, when they

graduate from Arabic school they have two certificates; one from the Ministry of Education and the other from the Department of Islamic Affairs of the state's government. The second certificate can be used to apply for a place in the universities in Arab countries such as al Azhar University in Egypt, Ummu al Qura University in Mecca and various other universities which recognise this certificate. While in the National Islamic secondary school, the Islamic religious subjects and Arabic language are being taught as a single subject. In other words, Nahu (grammar), Şarf and Insyā' (essay) are not being taught separately; instead they are combined and being taught as an integrated subject called Arabic Language (the details about teaching Arabic will be discussed in the next chapter). The above way is applied in Islamic religious subjects as well, where the subjects like Tauhīd, Fiqh, and Tafsīr are combined together to become one subject called Islamic Religious Knowledge. Nevertheless, since this school is a religious school, the Islamic Division in the Ministry of Education, in 1979, has added another Islamic Religious subject called Higher Islamic Religious Knowledge which contains Uşūl al Fiqh, uşūl al Ḥadīth, 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, Tafsīr, Fiqh, Ḥadīth and Islamic History which is on a higher level than the first. However, these subjects are being taught in Malay Language and this seems to be another difference between National Islamic secondary school and the Arabic school. Another difference is that students who are accepted to study in Arabic school are required to attend remove class for one year (three terms) before going to Form One whereas students in the National Islamic secondary school are not required to do so. In other words, students in Arabic school have to study six years before finishing their study in secondary school. On the other hand, students from National Islamic Secondary school spend only five years in secondary school. In most Arabic schools, students must pass every single subject in every terminal examination. Otherwise, he or she has to stay for another year in the same class or face expulsion if he or she fails twice in the same class.

1.2.2. General Secondary School

General secondary school is under the Ministry of Education. There is Department of State's Education in every state in Malaysia but this department is under the administration of the Ministry of Education in Kuala Lumpur, the capital of Malaysia. Since 1978, all secondary schools in Malaysia use Malay language as medium language. General secondary school is further divided into two

types:

- a. National secondary school.
- b. Boarding secondary school.

1.2.2.1. National Secondary School.

National secondary school represents a majority of secondary school in Malaysia. The subjects which are taught in this type of school are Science subjects such as Biology, Physics and Chemistry or Arts subjects such as History, Malay culture, Geography and Islamic Knowledge for Muslim students and Moral for non Muslim students. Until 1990, Arabic Language is not yet introduced in this type of school.

1.2.2.2. Boarding Secondary School.

There are 35 boarding secondary school in all over Malaysia. Some of them are sciences schools while others are mixed between Sciences and Arts. Out of these 35, seven are Religious boarding schools; one of these seven is Arabic boarding school and others are National Islamic boarding schools. Except Arabic boarding school, this type of school uses the same syllabus which applied in general secondary school. However, from 1980, Arabic Language is being taught in this type of school. Nevertheless, the syllabus of Arabic Language which is taught here is neither taken from the syllabus in the Arabic school nor from the National Islamic secondary school. The details of teaching Arabic in this type of school will be discussed in the next chapter.

Students who have the opportunity to get a place in this school are actually selected from various schools. The qualification required for the student to get here depend upon the result of their examination. There are three types of examinations which qualify students to attach to this school. The first examination is for the entry into Form one. To achieve this, students must get an excellent result in the final year examination in primary school. The second examination which qualify student to go to boarding school is when they are in Form three. Having an excellent result, they will be offered a place in boarding school for Form four entry and here they will either be offered sciences stream or Arts stream. The last intake is for Form six which is based on the result of the Medium Certificate of Education. However, the offer will only be for Arts stream. As for the sciences stu-

dents, most of them will either go directly to university or to matriculation classes as a preparation for the university. It is important to mention here that all of the students in boarding schools live in the hostel (hall) during their study which are fully sponsored by the Government for every expense and fee that they have to pay.

1.3. HIGHER INSTITUTION.

Briefly, there are seven universities and one Institute of Technology in Malaysia which are under the administration of the Ministry of Education. These universities are International Islamic University, National University of Malaysia, North University of Malaysia, University of Agriculture, University of Malaya, University of Sciences and University of Technology. Apart from the main subjects which are taught in these universities, Islamic subject called Islamic civilization is taught in every one of these universities. However, this subject is optional one. As for the Arabic Language, only three universities take it as part of their curriculum. The first is National University of Malaysia. There is Department of Arabic and Islamic civilization under the Faculty of Islamic Studies. The second is University of Malaya. There is Islamic Academy in this university which contains under it three faculties; Faculty of Shari'ah, Faculty of Uşul al Dīn and Faculty of Islamic Education. Arabic in this academy is used as first language where all subjects, except Law, Economic and Administration are taught in Arabic language. The third university which has taken Arabic as one of its curriculum is International Islamic University. In this university, Arabic is taught as second language after English. However, there are some improvements which have been made by some faculties which have taken actions to use Arabic as the first language.

1.5 CONCLUSION

This is a brief study about learning institution in Malaysia. The purpose of this topic, as it was mentioned above, is to give a general idea about learning institutions which have a relation with Arabic language. By this brief study, it becomes easier to discuss the next chapters in order to find a method of teaching Arabic which has been used in every type of these institutions. Table and figure 1 below show the institutions and the subjects that are available in these institutions.

End Notes.

1. Kadir, Z.A., (1990), "Teaching Arabic in the schools of the Ministry of Education in Malaysia", working paper presented in the seminar of Teaching Arabic for non speaker, August 25__28, 1990, International Islamic University, Malaysia, p. 7.
2. From the Philosophy of National Education and Philosophy of Islamic Education, (1989), Ministry of Education, Kuala Lumpur.
3. Kadir, Z.A., op. cit., p. 3.

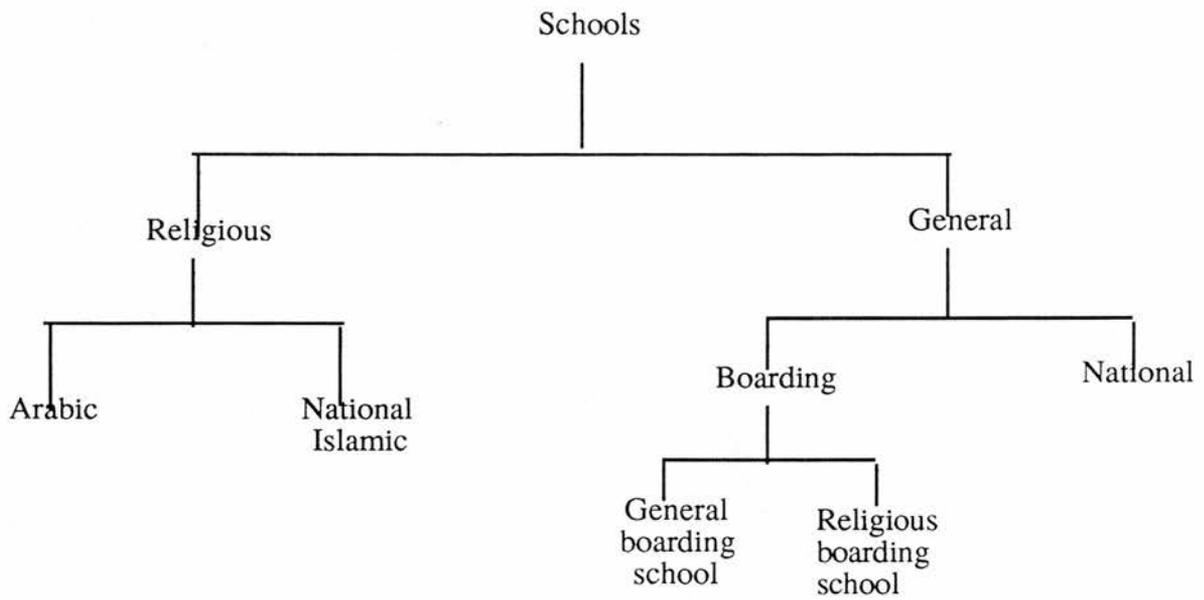


Figure 1: The structure of secondary school in Malaysia.

Table 1

Subjects	SCHOOL			
	Arabic	National	Boarding	Islamic
Arabic	✓	✗	✓	✓
Arts	✓	✓	✓	✓
Sciences	✓	✓	✓	✓
Higher Islamic Knowledge	✓	✗	✗	✓
Islamic Knowledge	✓	✓	✓	✓
Religious subjects in Arabic	✓	✗	✗	✗

(✓) means subject is available (✗) means subject is not available

CHAPTER TWO

TEACHING AND LEARNING ARABIC IN SECONDARY SCHOOL IN MALAYSIA

- 2.1. THE PURPOSES OF LEARNING ARABIC IN MALAYSIA
- 2.2. TEACHING ARABIC IN ARABIC SECONDARY SCHOOL.
- 2.3. TEACHING ARABIC IN NATIONAL ISLAMIC SECONDARY SCHOOL.
- 2.4. THE PROBLEMS OF TEACHING ARABIC IN MALAYSIA.

TEACHING AND LEARNING ARABIC IN SECONDARY SCHOOL IN MALAYSIA.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching Arabic in Malaysia is planned in the light of the intention behind the Philosophy of National Education and a Philosophy of Islamic Education in particular. The purpose of this plan is none other than to build a good Muslim in his thinking, acting and fulfilling his responsibility as a servant of Allah in order to have his reward from Him either in this world or in the hereafter.

Arabic is the language of the Holy Qur'an and al-Ḥadīth. It is also used during the prayer. So to speak Arabic is indeed very important in the daily life of a muslim. As noticed, it is also widely used internationally in certain activities, making particular references and reading the material which covers various fields such as politics, the economy and culture.

The students in secondary school are first introduced to Arabic when they are in Form one and will be learning until form five. This, it is hoped will teach them to master the skills of listening and reading in Arabic as well as to use it in conversation. Another main objective is to make the student more sensitive to the vocabulary and the grammatical system.

The learning of Arabic in secondary school will also offer an aid to the students to understand the content of al-Qur'an, Ḥadīth and other Islamic religious sources. Besides that, it will also raise the consciousness among the students towards the graceful style of the Arabic language.

Teaching Arabic in Malaysia has moved to a new era in teaching methodology.

This new method is called an integrated method. That means grammar and language are being taught together in contrast to the old method where these two elements (grammar and language) were taught separately. In addition, the elements of al-Qur'an and al-Ḥadīth are the main part of this new syllabus designed to educate students in Islamic virtues (akhlāq Islāmiyyah).

To ensure the effectiveness of the teaching of Arabic in secondary school, it is proposed that the orientation of its teaching and learning be related to various aspects of life so that students can practise this language within the Malaysian society which has its own demography, social patterns and economy.¹

2.1.THE PURPOSES OF LEARNING ARABIC IN MALAYSIA.

There are two general purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia:

1. Learning Arabic because it is the language of al Qur'ān. Learning it is very important in order to understand the holy Qur'ān. In other words, the main purpose of learning Arabic in Malaysia is principally to understand Islam.
2. Learning Arabic to understand it for the purposes of cultural relations with Arab countries. This relationship has increased since the means of communication have advanced.

For this reason, teaching Arabic in Malaysia has entered a new phase in order to expand the national education. It tries to train Malaysians towards modernisation but at the same time guide them to be good muslims considering the 'Pillars of Islam'. By understanding the philosophy of National Education and the philosophy of Islamic Education, the purposes of teaching Arabic in secondary school are seen to be to enable the student to:

1. Appreciate and take pride in the Arabic Language as the language of the Holy Qur'ān.
2. Master the skills and gain knowledge of Arabic in order to understand the content of the holy Qur'ān and the Ḥadīth as well as other original religious sources.
3. Understand the structure, meaning and function of this language so that it can be used correctly for communication.
4. Be interested in listening to and reading scientific and artistic materials in Arabic so that they can fully appreciate their beauty.
5. Become accustomed to listen and to comprehend both the Qur'ān and Ḥadīth.
6. To catch what is being said when listening to broadcasts in Arabic.
7. Speak fluently and correctly and so express their opinions in discussion.
8. Read various types of sources critically and thus legitimize, rectify and produce valuable points.
9. Write compositions which cover various topics.
10. Gain at least 5,000 Arabic words.
11. Master the Arabic grammars sufficiently to be able to use them.
12. Be able to use the Arabic lexicons (dictionaries).
13. Facilitate the opportunities for students to further their higher education in the universities of Arab

countries.²

2.2. TEACHING ARABIC IN ARABIC SECONDARY SCHOOL.

a. ADMINISTRATION.

Teaching Arabic in Arabic schools is under the administration of the Department of Islamic Affairs in the state. This department is responsible for all kinds of religious affairs. Promoting Arabic language as the language of al-Qur'ān is one of its responsibilities. In the state which has a king³ he is the chairman of the department and this tradition has been in practice since the colonials ruled the country.

The Department of Islamic Education in the Ministry of Education cannot take over the administration of teaching Arabic in the state because the King does not allow it. In this department, one officer is usually responsible for Arabic schools. The office for the department is usually located in the capital of the state. Although all Arabic schools are under the administration of this department, it administers Arabic and religious subjects only and is not responsible for all subjects which are taught in the school. The other subjects such as sciences and arts are under the administration of the department of state education which is under the Ministry of Education.

b. SYLLABUS AND TEXT BOOK.

As mentioned in the first chapter, the syllabuses for Arabic schools are prepared by the department of Islamic affairs in the states. Therefore every department has its own syllabus. However there is no big difference in the Arabic syllabus between these departments since the purpose of teaching Arabic is the same: that is for religious purposes. For this reason, I choose the syllabus from the Department of Islamic Affairs of Pahang state as a sample for this chapter.

1. SYLLABUS.

“This syllabus is not a new syllabus. It follows the earlier syllabus which is used in Arabic schools in this state. However, there are some alterations which have been made in this syllabus in order to fulfil the present requirements which can be summarised as follows:

a. The period of study: this syllabus attempts to encourage students to study Arabic and at the same time tries to help them to obtain certificates i.e. lower religious certificate, medium religious certificate and higher religious certificate.

b. The topics for Arabic and religious subjects: some topics have been added to the syllabus while others have been omitted. This has been done in order to achieve two supreme targets:

i. make students become actually expert in Arabic and religion so that they can express what is in their minds spontaneously.

ii. make students able to write an essay, dictation, reports, etc. in standard Arabic.”⁴

The details of the Arabic language syllabus are as follows:

المناهج الدراسية المقررة للمدارس الدينية الثانوية التابعة لولاية بهانج

المواد المقررة للفردرة لقرأة الإءدائية

١. القراءء

١. قراءء عشرة موضوعات من كتاب المطالعة العربية
- ب. شرح المفردات من الموضوعات المختارة من الكتاب
- ج. شرح الموضوعات وفهمها
- د . إجابة الأسئلة من الموضوعات المختارة من الكتاب
- ه . المناقشة الشفوية السهلة في موضوع القراءة

٢. المءاءة

تكون المءاءة في الموضوعات المختارة.

النطق بءمل فعلية واسمية باستعمال الأساليب العربية الفصيحة شفويا فموضوعات المءاءة تحتوي على النواحي الآتية :-

١ . الحياة العائلية اليومية

٢ . الحياة الدراسية

٣ . الحفلات الدينية وغيرها

٤ . الثقافة

٥ . العالم الطبيعي

وأما موضوعات المءاءة فلا تقل عن عشر موضوعات

٣. القواعد

١. تكليف التلاميذ على حفظ مفردات الكلمة البسيطة المستعملة في الحادثات اليومية بحيث لا تقل عن عشرين كلمة في كل أسبوع أو ٦٠٠ كلمة مقررة لهذه الفرقة تشتمل على ٢٠٠ كلمة عن الأفعال و ٤٠٠ كلمة عن الأسماء والظروف والحروف .
 - ٢ . تقسيم الكلمة الى مذكر ومؤنث .
 - ٣ . الجمل الإسمية (تكوين الجمل المفيدة البسيطة) :
 - (ا) المبتدأ يكون اسما ظاهرا مذكرا ومؤنثا والخبر يكون اسما ظاهرا مذكرا ومؤنثا
 - (ب) المبتدأ يكون اسم الإشارة للقريب والبعيد مذكرا ومؤنثا . والخبر يكون اسما ظاهرا مذكرا ومؤنثا .
 - (ج) المبتدأ يكون ضميرا لمفرد مذكر ومفردة مؤنثة غائب وغائبة مخاطب ومخاطبة ومتكلم والخبر يكون اسما ظاهرا .
 - ٤ . اسماء الإشارة وطريقة استخدامها في الجمل المفيدة
 - ٥ . علامات للإعراب الأصلية
 - ٦ . الجمل المفيدة :
 - فاعلها يكون اسما مفردا مذكرا ومفردة مؤنثة فعلها :
 - (ا) يكون فعلا لازما ماضيا ومضارعا
 - (ب) يكون فعلا متعديا ماضيا ومضارعا
 - (ج) يكون فعل أمر .
 - ٧ . تقسيم الاسم الى مفرد ومثنى وجمع .
 - ٨ . الاسماء الموصوفة مع الملاحظة بأن النعت تابع في التنكير والتعريف وفي التذكير والتأنيث وفي الإفراد والتثنية والجمع وفي الرفع والنصب والجر .
 - ٩ . جر الاسم بحرف جر .
 - ١٠ . الأعداد (تكليف التلاميذ على حفظها وكتابتها من واحد الى مائة مع الملاحظة في تركيب العدد والمعدود مذكرا او مؤنثا) .
- ٢ . الصرف :

١ . تعريف الأفعال الثلاثية المجردة وتكليف التلاميذ على حفظه مع ملاحظته في الأفعال الماضية والمضارعة وأفعال الأمر .

٤ . الكتابة

- ١ . التدريب على كتابة الحروف الهجائية العربية في كلمات بسيطة متصلة ومنفصلة .
- ٢ . التدريب على كتابة الأرقام العربية .

٥ . الإملاء

- ١ . تكون الموضوعات الإملائية مقتطفات مما يقرأه التلاميذ في فصلهم من الكتب العربية .
- ٢ . إرشاد التلاميذ كيفية الكتابة الصحيحة حتى تخلو من الأخطاء الإملائية .

المواد المقترحة لفرة لفرقة الأولى الثانوية

١ . القراءة

- أ . قراءة عشرة موضوعات من كتاب المطالعة العربية
- ب . شرح المفردات من الموضوعات المختارة من الكتاب
- ج . شرح الموضوعات وفهمها
- د . إجابة الأسئلة من الموضوعات المختارة من الكتاب
- هـ . المناقشة الشفوية السهلة في موضوع القراءة .

٢ . المحادثة

تكون المحادثة في الموضوعات المختارة تدريب التلاميذ على النطق بجمل فعلية واسمية باستعمال الأساليب العربية الفصيحة شفويا فموضوعات المحادثة تحتوي على النواحي الآتية :-

١ . الحياة العائلية اليومية

٢ . الحياة الدراسية

٣ . الحفلات الدينية وغيرها

٤ . الثقافة

٥ . العالم الطبيعي

وأما موضوعات المحادثة فلا تقل عن ١٠ موضوعات

٣ . النحو والصرف

(١) النحو :

١ . تكليف التلاميذ على حفظ مفردات الكلمات البسيطة المستعملة في الحادثات اليومية بحيث لا تقل عن ٢٠ كلمة اسبوعيا أو ٦٠٠ كلمة مقررة لهذه الفرقة تشتمل على ٢٠٠ كلمة عن الأفعال و ٤٠٠ كلمة عن الأسماء والظروف والحروف .

٢ . أنواع الكلمة (اسم وفعل وحرف)

٣ . تقسيم الفعل باعتبار زمنه

٤ . إسناد الفعل الماضي والمضارع الى الضمائر (مفردا ومثنى وجمعا ، غائبا وغائبة ومخاطبا ومخاطبة ومتكلما) .

٥ . فعل الأمر وإسناده إلى الضمائر .

٦ . الأفعال اللازمة والمتعدية .

٧ . الفاعل مفردا ومثنى وجمعا ، مذكرا ومؤنثا .

٨ . المفعول به .

٩ . ضمائر الرفع المنفصلة والمتصلة والضمائر المستترة .

١٠ . أقسام الجمع (جمع المذكر السالم والمؤنث السالم وجمع التكسير)

١١ . النكرة والمعرفة وانواع المعارف .

١٢ . أدوات الاستفهام .

١٣ . الاسماء الموصولة .

١٤ . الظرف .

١٥ . المبتدأ والخبر .

١٦ . كان وأخواتها .

١٧ . إن وأخواتها .

١٨ . أدوات النفي .

(ب) الصرف :

١ . الفعل الثلاثي المجرد وأبوابه

٢ . تقسيم الفعل إلى صحيح ومعتل وأقسام الصحيح (السالم والمهموز والمضعف)

٣ . تصريف الأفعال الثلاثية واسنادها إلى الضمائر المستندة إليها :-

الفعل الماضي ، الفعل المضارع ، فعل الأمر .

٤ . اسم الفاعل واسم المفعول من الثلاثي المجرد

٤ . الكتابة

١ . إرشاد التلاميذ على استكمال اشكال الحروف وأحجامها وانسجام أوضاعها وتنظيم اتصال بعضها ببعض وتناسق المسافات الفاصلة بين الكلمات وبين بعض الاسطر .

٢ . التدريب على كتابة الجمل القصيرة والطويلة المقتطفة من النصوص والأساليب الجميلة بحيث تتفق مع قواعد خط النسخ .

٥ . الإملاء

١ . تكون الموضوعات الإملائية مما يلي :-

(أ) مقتطفات مما يقرأه التلاميذ في فصلهم من الكتب العربية .

(ب) مقتطفات من الكتب العربية المناسبة لطبقاتهم الدراسية

٢ . على المدرس الاهتمام بالقواعد الإملائية

المواد المقررة للفرقة الثمانية الثانوية

١ . المحادثة

تكون المحادثة في الموضوعات المختارة والتدريب على النطق بجمل فعلية واسمية باستعمال الاساليب العربية الفصيحة شفويا فموضوعات المحادثة تحتوي على النواحي الآتية :-

١ . الحياة العائلية اليومية

٢ . الحياة الدراسية

٣ . الحفلات الدينية وغيرها

٤ . الثقافة

٥ . العالم الطبيعي

وأما موضوعات المحادثة فلا تقل عن ١٥ موضوعا غير الموضوعات المقررة للسنة الأولى

٢ . النحو والصرف

(١) النحو

١ . المبني والمعرب (تعريفهما)

- ٢ . المبني من الاسماء بالاختصار
 - ٣ . المبني من الافعال وأحوال بنائها
 - (ا) أحوال بناء الفعل الماضي
 - (ب) أحوال بناء فعل الأمر
 - (ج) أحوال بناء الفعل المضارع
 - ٤ . المعرب من الافعال واحوال اعرابها رفعا ونصبا وجزما
 - ٥ . نصب المضارع بأن المضمرة بعد لام التعليل ولام الجحود وأو وحتى والفاء السببية والواو المعية .
 - ٦ . الأدوات التي تجزم فعلا واحدا
 - ٧ . الأدوات التي تجزم فعلين اثنين
 - ٨ . الافعال الخمسة وعلامات إعرابها
 - ٩ . إعراب الفعل المضارع المعتل الآخر
 - ١٠ . الاسماء الخمسة وعلامات اعرابها
 - ١١ . الفعل المبني للمعلوم والفعل المبني للمجهول
 - ١٢ . نائب الفاعل (مذكرا ومؤنثا ومفردا ومثنى وجمعا)
 - ١٣ . افعال الاستمرار الناسخة
 - ١٤ . المفعول فيه (ظرف الزمان والمكان)
 - ١٥ . المضاف والمضاف إليه (مع الملاحظة في إضافة الاسم إلى المعرفة بأنواعها)
- (ب) الصرف :
- ١ . أقسام الفعل المعتل (المثال والأجوف والناقص)
 - ٢ . أسناد الأفعال الثلاثية المعتلة (الماضي والمضارع والأمر) إلى الضمائر
 - ٣ . الفعل الثلاثي المزيد وأوزانه وحروف الزيادة
 - ٤ . مصادر الأفعال وغير الثلاثية
 - ٥ . صوغ اسم الفاعل واسم المفعول من الرباعي والخماسي والسداسي
- ٣ . الاملاء وقواعده
- ١ . تكون الموضوعات الاملائية مما يلي :
- (ا) مقتطفات من الكتب العربية المناسبة لطبقاتهم الدراسية
 - (ب) قطع من الاساليب الحيدة والنصوص الادبية والأقوال الماثورة مع الاهتمام بالقواعد

الاملائية .

٤ . الانشاء والمطالعة العربية

(١) الانشاء

كتابة المقالات في الموضوعات المختارة تحتوي على النواحي الآتية :-

١ . الناحية الدينية

٢ . الناحية الاجتماعية

٣ . ناحية العالم الطبيعي

٤ . كتابة الرسائل

التدريب على كتابة المقالات الإنشائية فلا تقل عن ٩ موضوعات من الموضوعات المختارة في السنة الدراسية ولكل مقالة لا تقل عدد كلماتها عن ١٠٠ كلمة .

(ب) المطالعة

١ . قراءة عشرة موضوعات من كتاب المطالعة العربية

ب . شرح المفردات من الموضوعات المختارة من الكتاب

ج . شرح الموضوعات وفهمها

د . إجابة الاسئلة من الموضوعات المختارة من الكتاب

المواد المقررة للفرقة الثالثة الثانوية

(١) النحو

١ . إعراب المثني وجمع المذكر السالم وجمع المؤنث السالم

٢ . الجملة وشبه جملة

٣ . المبتدأ والخبر وتطابقهما

٤ . تقسيم الخبر إلى مفرد وجملة وشبه جملة

٥ . مواضع فتح همزة (أن)

٦ . مواضع كسر (إن)

٧ . خبر النواسخ حين يكون جملة أو شبه جملة

٨ . تقسيم الفعل إلى اللازم والمتعدي وأسباب تعدية الأفعال اللازمة

- ٩ . الفعل المتعدي وأقسامه
 ١٠ . المفعول المطلق
 ١١ . المفعول لأجله
 ١٢ . المستثنى بالإلا وغير وسوى وخلا وعدا وحاشا وأحكام المثنثنى
 ١٣ . الحال وأنواعها
 ١٤ . التمييز :

أ . حكم تمييز الوزن والكيل والمساحة

ب . حكم تمييز العدد

ج . حكم التمييز إذا كان المميز ملحوظا

١٥ . المصدر المؤول من أن والفعل

١٦ . الاسم المنقوص والمقصور وعلامات إعرابها

(ب) الصرف

١ . إسناد الأفعال الصحيحة والمعتلة إلى الضمائر :

أ . إسناد السالم والمهموز والمثال إلى الضمائر

ب . إسناد المضعف والأجوف إلى ضمائر الرفع البارزة

٢ . همزة الوصل وهمزة القطع

٣ . الصفة المشبهة باسم الفاعل

٤ . اسم الآلة

٢ . الإنشاء والمطالعة العربية والترجمة

(١) الإنشاء التحريري

كتابة الموضوعات المختارة تحتوي على النواحي الآتية :-

(أ) الناحية الدينية

(ب) الناحية الإجتماعية

(ج) ناحية العالم الطبيعي

(د) كتابة الرسائل

التدريب على كتابة المقالات الإنشائية فلا تقل عن ٩ موضوعات من الموضوعات المختارة في السنة الدراسية ولكل مقالة لا تقل عدد كلماتها عن ١٢٠ كلمة .

(ب) المطالعة

- ١) قراءة عشرة موضوعات من كتاب المطالعة العربية
- ٢) شرح المفردات من الموضوعات المختارة من الكتاب
- ٣) شرح الموضوعات وفهمها
- ٤) إجابة الأسئلة من الموضوعات المختارة من الكتاب

(ج) الترجمة

دراسة الترجمة من اللغة العربية إلى اللغة المالزية وعكسها من المقتطفات المختارة السهلة

المواد المقررة للفرد الرابعة الثانوية

١ . النحو والصرف

- (١) النحو
- ١ . المنادى
- ٢ . المنوع من الصرف :
- ا . العلم المنوع من الصرف
- ب . الصفة المنوعة من الصرف
- ج . المنوع من الصرف لصيغة منتهى الجموع أو الف التأنيث
- د . جر المنوع من الصرف
- ٣ . النعت الحقيقي والسببي
- ٤ . مطابقة النعت للمنوع
- ٥ . النعت حين يكون جملة
- ٦ . التوكيد اللفظي والمعنوي
- ٧ . العطف
- ٨ . الفرق بين واو العطف وواو المعية
- ٩ . البدل
- ١٠ . أدوات الاستفهام والجواب
- ١١ . الاستفهام والنفي معا
- ١٢ . توكيد الفعل

- ١٣ . نعم وبئس
 ١٤ . فعلا التعجب
 ١٥ . تأنيث الفعل
 ١٦ . نائب الفاعل اذا كان ظرفا او جرا او مجرورا او مصدرا
 (ب) الصرف :

- ١ . المجرد والمزيد
 ٢ . الإبدال والاعلال
 ٣ . قلب الالف والياء واوا
 ٤ . قلب الولو والياء الفا
 ٥ . قلب الواو والياء تاء
 ٦ . قلب الواو ياء
 ٧ . قلب الواو والياء همزة
 ٢ . الإنشاء والمطالعة العربية والترجمة

(أ) الإنشاء

كتابة الموضوعات المختارة تحتوي على النواحي الآتية :-

- (أ) الناحية الدينية
 (ب) الناحية الإجتماعية
 (ج) الناحية الإقتصادية
 (د) الناحية الثقافية
 ٥ . العالم الطبيعي
 ٦ . الحوادث الجارية
 (ب) المطالعة (المضمون مثل المضمون في السنة الثالثة وكذلك متطلبات المقرر)
 (ج) الترجمة (" " " " " " " ")

المواد المقررة للفرقة الخامسة السنة الثانوية

- ١ . النحو والصرف
 (أ) النحو : المبتدأ والخبر

- ١ . المبتدأ إذا كان نكرة
- ٢ . مواضع حذف المبتدأ وجوبا
- ٣ . مواضع حذف الخبر وجوبا
- ٤ . مواضع تقديم المبتدأ على الخبر وجوبا
- ٥ . مواضع تقديم الخبر وجوبا
- ٦ . سد الفاعل او نائبه مسد الخبر
- ٧ . إن وما ولا ولات المشتبهات بليس
- ٨ . زيادة الباء في خبر ليس وما
- ٩ . أفعال المقاربة والرجاء والشروع
- ١٠ . تخفيف إن وكأن ولكن
- ١١ . كف إن وأخواتها عن العمل
- ١٢ . لا النافية للجنس
- ١٣ . لا سيما
- ١٤ . أدوات الشرط الجازمة وغير الجازمة
- ١٥ . اقتران جواب الشرط بالفاء
- ١٦ . ما ينوب عن المصدر في المفعول المطلق
- ١٧ . الإضافة : (ا) الإضافة المعنوية واللفظية
 (ب) المضاف الى ياء المتكلم
 (ج) ما يضاف الى الجملة وجوبا وجوازا

(ب) الصرف :

- ١ . الإعلال بالتسكين
- ٢ . أسماء الأفعال
- ٣ . الفعل المعتل واحكامه
- ٤ . تقسيم الاسم الى جامد ومشتق

٢ . الإنشاء والمطالعة العربية والترجمة

١ . الإنشاء (المتطلبات المقررة مثل المتطلبات في السنة الرابعة)

ب . المطالعة (" " " " " " " ") (إلا أن الطلبة في السنة

الخامسة مطالبون بتلخيص ما يقرؤنه .

ج . الترجمة (المتطلبات المقررة لهذه السنة مثل المتطلبات في السنة الرابعة)

٣ . البلاغة

١ . وجه الحاجة إلى دراسة علم البلاغة

٢ . معنى الفصاحة لغة واصطلاحاً

٣ . الكلام على فصاحة الكلمة مع بيان المراد من تنافر الحروف ومخالفة القياس والغرابية .

٤ . الكلام على فصاحة الكلام مع بيان المراد من تنافر الكلمات وضعف التأليف والتعقيد .

٥ . الكلام على فصاحة المتكلم

٦ . معنى البلاغة لغة واصطلاحاً

٧ . الكلام على بلاغة الكلام مع بيان المراد من الحال والمقتضى

٨ . الكلام على بلاغة المتكلم

٩ . تعريف علم المعاني - الكلام على الخبر والإنشاء بالاختصار .

١٠ . تعريف علم البيان - الكلام على التشبيه وأركانه بالاختصار .

١١ . تعريف علم البديع - الكلام على المحسنات المعنوية واللفظية بالاختصار .

From the data given in the syllabus about the amount of minutes per week for teaching subjects, we can summarise for Arabic language as follows:

a. For remove class, the student learns Arabic for 680 minutes per week out of 1,600 minutes which means 1/3 of the hours provided for teaching per week.

b. For Form one and Form two, the student learns Arabic for 440 minutes per week out of 1,600 minutes.

c. For Form three, four and five, he learns Arabic for 400 minutes per week out of 1,600 minutes.

d. For lower sixth, the student learns Arabic for 440 minutes per week out of 1,600 minutes.

These exclude other subjects such as Tafsir, Ḥadīth, reciting and memorising al-Qur'ān, Tauḥīd, logic and the science of al-Qur'ān and Ḥadīth (for some classes) for which the texts are also in Arabic.

2. TEXT BOOKS.

Almost all Arabic school in Malaysia use kitāb 'alNaḥwu al Wāḍiḥ' as a text book for teaching grammar and morphology. The details are as follows:

Remove Class and Form One: Volume one for beginners (Al-Ibtidāi).

Form Two: Volume Two for beginners.

Form Three: Volume Three for beginners.

Form Four: Volume one for secondary (Al-Thānawī).

Form Five: Volume two for secondary.

This text book is used in teaching Arabic grammar in Arab countries especially in Egypt. So most of the examples are taken from its environment. There is no alteration made when Arabic school uses it as a text book since the purpose of using this book is to understand the grammar.

As for other subjects such as Insyā', Qirā'ah, Imlā', and tarjamah, there is no specific text book for these topics. What the Department of Islamic Affairs has done is provide references and muzakkirah as follows:

1. For al-Muḥādathah, the Department provides,

كتاب اللغة العربية الجزء الأول
الجديد في اللغة العربية

These two books are not a text book. They are reference books only the teacher can refer to and use to teach that topic.

2. As for muṭāla'ah, the reference book is

كتب المطالعة العربية :

3. AS for Insyā', the reference books are

مذكرة الرائد في الإنشاء و كتاب الإنشاء الحديث في اللغة العربية

Almost all of these books are edited or written by the teachers in this Department.

4. As for translation, the passages come from Malaysian and Arabic articles. Teachers or officers in the Department undertake to publish what it called مقتطفات من المقالات العربية والملازية

It is clear that except the text book for teaching grammar, the Department has not provided a specific text book for those topics mentioned above. This is one of the difference between Arabic school and

NISS as we can see in the next section.

CONCLUSION

After looking at the syllabus and text books in Arabic secondary schools we can conclude as follows:

1. The purpose of learning Arabic in this school attempts to focus on religious purposes rather than general purposes. It tries to make students understand Arabic so that they can use this knowledge to understand al-Qur'ān, Ḥadīth and other religious source books.
2. The main idea of these purposes is to make Arabic an academic language. Arabic seemed to be one of the important subjects. More than that, it becomes a key to understand other subjects such as Tafsīr, Fiqh, Ḥadīth, 'Ulūm al-Ḥadīth and 'Ulūm al-Qur'ān.
3. Text books are classical like al-Naḥwu al-Wāḍiḥ and Matn al-Ajurrūmiah.

It is obvious from the syllabus however, that the focus is on grammar lessons. Although other topics e.g. Insyā', Qirā'ah etc. are taught, the hours provided are spent more on the grammar lessons. Moreover, teaching grammar is easier than teaching other subjects such as essay and translation. Most of the teachers who graduated from Arabic universities are fluent in grammar. At the same time, the syllabus does not provide in detail the content for these subjects (Insyā', Qirā'ah etc.) compared with the grammar. In other words, teachers have to find out sources and references to teach those subjects.

2.3. TEACHING ARABIC IN THE NATIONAL ISLAMIC SECONDARY SCHOOL.

2.3.1. The Administration.

The Ministry of Education of Malaysia has various divisions or sections and every division has specific responsibilities. The Department of Islamic Education (DIE) is specifically responsible for two basic parts: Islamic Education and Arabic Language in all stages from primary to secondary school. "This division is responsible to plan and provide the principles and the foundations of these subjects which the states and local Islamic education administrations can transmit to the schools. This division has five units with twelve officers. It gives full consideration to Arabic Language teaching because it is the language of the holy Qur'an and of modern communications in addition to being the language of science

and culture." ⁵ The DIE has taken some steps to raise the quality of teaching Arabic in secondary schools in Malaysia. Among the obvious steps which have been taken by this division are:

- a. "Revision of the present syllabus of Arabic teaching and establishing a new syllabus called the 'integrated syllabus'.
- b. Setting up training courses for Arabic language teachers in all stages.
- c. Providing text books. One of these books is 'al 'Arabiyyah' which consists of volumes one, two and three which have been used for lower secondary schools. This book was written and edited by a group of teachers under the supervision of Prof. Dr. al Hijazi, from the Islamic Education, Sciences and Culture Organisation (ISESCO). (The details about this book will be discussed under Text books).
- d. Establishing a board to follow up the improvement in teaching Arabic.
- e. Asking all Islamic secondary schools to set up an advisory board. For this purpose, the DEI supplies them with a guide book.

To make sure that all steps mentioned are successfully implemented, these works are put under the direct supervision of the DIE and the follow up is made from time to time". ⁶

2.3.2. Syllabus and Text Books.

(i) Syllabus.

Introduction.

When this department designs a syllabus for Arabic language in National Islamic secondary schools, two main factors are taken into consideration:

1. The principles and foundations for the educational environment. In this case, the meaning of the educational environment is the educational environment of Malaysia.
2. Response to the needs of the present situation in the fields of study which give students an opportunity of further study in Arab countries.

"For these reasons, the Ministry of Education has adopted the syllabus from the Arab countries especially from the University of al Azhar in Egypt as a sample to help design the syllabus for teaching Arabic and Islamic studies in secondary schools with some alterations to make it suitable for non-Arabic speaking students."⁷

The Contents of the Syllabus.

The syllabus for Arabic in National Islamic secondary schools was altered from the first syllabus in 1987 to an integrated syllabus in December 1989. This new syllabus includes the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as any skill which relates to these four skills which are necessary. However, these four skills must be in line with the standard Arabic grammar. The details of this syllabus are as follow:

1."Listening and Speaking.

With the acquisition of these two skills it is hoped students are enabled to:

- 1.1. listen to the sounds, and intonations perfectly used in various situations and distinguish the differences between them.
- 1.2. listen and understand the Arabic words, sentences and phrases in the thread of speech.
- 1.3. listen and understand the verses from al Qur'ān.
- 1.4. listen and try to follow what is read of al Qur'ān.
- 1.5. listen and understand what is read of al Ḥadīth.
- 1.6. listen and understand facts, ideas and argument.
- 1.7. listen and understand various reading subjects and try to follow generally.
- 1.8. receive orders and instructions and try to deliver them to others.
- 1.9. express greetings and replies.
- 1.10. pronounce the numerals and use them correctly.
- 1.11. deliver announcements, news, speeches, greetings, condolence and reports.
- 1.12. ask questions to get important information produced by the mass media.
- 1.13. ask questions in order to interpret orders, commands and instructions.
- 1.14. ask questions on various listening subjects to identify their purposes generally.
- 1.15. explain meanings, synonyms, sentences and phrases.
- 1.16. describe important points, ideas, events and themes on various subjects.
- 1.17 explain something with assistance of an apparatus (such as pictures, slides etc.)
- 1.18. explain individual and social events in certain situations as well as current issues.

2. Reading

Within this skill, students are hoped to be enabled to:

- 2.1. read poetry and prose with correct pronunciation of the Arabic sounds and intonation.
 - 2.2. read and understand various synonyms, sentences and phrases.
 - 2.3. read al Qur'ān properly and correctly.(following the rules of reading al Qur'ān) (تجويد).
 - 2.4. read the Ḥadīth properly and correctly.
 - 2.5. read al Qur'ān and understand its meaning.
 - 2.6. read the Ḥadīth and understand its meaning.
 - 2.7. know how to use dictionaries to increase the development of word acquisition.
 - 2.8. read silently on various subjects and understand them as well as recognise the roots of words by using dictionaries.
 - 2.9. read silently various materials and understand ideas, facts and conclusions from those materials.
 - 2.10. read numerals correctly.
 - 2.11. read conversations and act as an actor in certain dialogues.
3. Writing.

With this skill students are able to:

- 3.1. write sentences and paragraphs in a clear Arabic hand writing (al-khuṭuṭ al'arabiyyah) indicating vowels.
- 3.2. dictate sentences and paragraphs (poetry or prose) correctly.
- 3.3. write Arabic hand writing correctly. ⁸
- 3.4. complete a paragraph by using correct words, phrases, proverbs and familiar quotations (al ḥikam wa al amthāl).
- 3.5. fill forms with correct information as required.
- 3.6. make a note of what they had listened to or read.
- 3.7. write an essay by using important given words.
- 3.8. arrange paragraphs following logical ideas.
- 3.9. summarise texts from various sources.
- 3.10. build sentences with a correct turn of sentence (uslūb) and grammar.
- 3.11. build sentence with its parts: jumlah khabariyyah and insyā'iyyah: imperative, prohibitive and

vocative.

3.12. build sentences in paragraphs to form a complete essay.

3.13. narrate from graphic materials.

3.14. write a letter either formal or informal.

3.15. write announcements, news, dialogues, statements and speeches.

3.16. translate an essay from Arabic to Malay and from Malay to Arabic.

3.17. write an essay on various topics such as reports, imaginative stories, true stories and conversations.

3.18. write an essay based on proverbs and quotations (al-ḥikam wa 'l-amthāl) topics.

3.19. write down the declension (i'rāb) of the words and sentences.

3.20. write numericals correctly.

4. Sound System. (Al-Nizām al-ṣouti)

The sound system is part of the language which is included in the syllabus. By learning this system, students are enabled to:

4.1. pronounce and distinguish between sounds.

4.2. master the sound of consonants (al-ṣowāmit).

4.3 master the sound of vocals (al-ṣowāit).

4.4. master the outlets of letters (makhārij al-ḥurūf).

4.5. master the attributions of letters (ṣifāt al -ḥurūf).

5. Grammar.

Grammar is an important source of practising the language therefore the teaching of it must be planned carefully in order to develop right usage of language. This grammar is divided into three parts: morphology, syntax and pronunciation and intonation.

Topics for grammar learning are as follows:

5.1. Morphology:

5.1.1. Noun and its parts.

5.1.2. Verb and its parts.

5.1.3. Particle and its parts.

5.2. Syntax (al-Nizām al tarkībī)

5.2.1. Nominal sentences.

5.2.2. Verbal sentences.

5.2.3. Phrases.

5.2.4. Complement (al-mukammilāt) : It covers nominative, accusative, genitive and appositive.

5.2.5. Numericals.

5.2.6. Annexation.

5.2.7. Vocative.

5.3. The System of Pronunciation and Intonation.

5.3.1. Pronunciation must follow what is spoken as standard Arabic.

5.3.2. Intonation, in speaking, must be considered in these two kinds of sentences:

a. al-jumlah al-khabariyyah.

b. al-jumlah al-insyā'iyah.

6. Proverbs and Quotations. (Al Hikam wa 'l Amthāl)

These two topics are parts of the beauty of the Arabic Language, therefore students should be encouraged to learn and to use them in their writing or speaking, to master their language.

7. Word Acquisition. (Al tharwah al lughawiyyah)

Students should acquire words and terminologies from the early stage in the elementary level until the advanced level in the upper secondary school. For this purpose, they should master at least five thousand words when they graduate from secondary school.

8. Sources for teaching and learning Arabic.

Sources for teaching and learning Arabic are the Holy Qur'ān, al-Ḥadīth, academic books, useful reference books, dictionaries, newspapers, magazines, pictures and other sources as well as electronic media. ⁹

(ii) Text Books.

When the Ministry of Education built the National Islamic Secondary schools in 1977 under the management of the Department of Islamic Education, this kind of school used various types of text book for teaching Arabic. In the beginning, it used text books used in Arabic schools. As we can see in teaching Arabic in Arabic school, the methodology in teaching Arabic in this school is closer to the grammar and translation method. However, when the Ministry of Education changed the system of examination for Malaysian candidates, this school needed a new syllabus to fulfil the examination requirement.

"This new requirement of the examination is not met by the grammar and translation methods." 10

In order to fulfil this need, the DIE published a new text book called 'AL-'ARABIYYAH'. This text book was written by a group of Arabic teachers in the Ministry of Education under the supervision of a linguist expert from ISESCO, Prof. Dr. Mahmud al-Hijazi. The details of this book and its contents as mentioned by Prof. al-Hijazi are : 11

One: General Description.

1. This book has five volumes: three volumes for lower secondary school (for students from Form one to Form three) and two volumes for medium secondary school (for students from Form four to Form five), together with five extra reference books and guide books for teachers. Every volume has twenty or twenty one lessons. Each lesson has its own text and various integrated drills. As for the additional book, it has topics for conversation, some new texts for reading as well as drills to train students toward the new approach in the examination system of foreign language learning.

2. In every volume of this book, the authors consider the integration of the language skills, the grammar is not taken forward in the first volume directly but is taught gradually by drill. To be precise, the student learns grammar practically, not theoretically.

In the first two volumes, listening and speaking skills are focused with reading and writing skills being taught only in the second volume after the student has mastered the first two skills. Learning syntax (al-naḥwu) systematically as a subject appears only in volumes four and five. For this reason, in these last two volumes, after every lesson, there is a topic of grammar followed by drill on it.

3. In the first three volumes, the Malaysian environment is used as a base for selecting topics as the

contents of the book, therefore in the first volume the topics are built around what every Malaysian does every day. ¹² However, in volume four, the topics are about Islamic and Arabic culture such as: the importance of learning in Islam, life in Islam, Health, Arabic Islamic civilisation and the modern world. As for volume five, the topics have become more advanced such as: society, economy, pilgrims, economy, Islamic values, Arabic Islamic civilisation, learning and the survival of the nation (ummah).

4. This book is used to teach students Islamic education and Islamic values by concentrating on Islamic topics such as: Islamic values (al-akhlāq al-Islāmiyyah), worship in Islam and Islamic festivals together with some verses from al Qur'ān. In addition, any value that is non-Islamic is not referred to in this book.

5. This book uses the standard Arabic writing system as used in Arab countries now. The vowel system (ḍabṭu) is used completely in the first volume. However, it (ḍabṭu)is used only for the new words in the advanced level. As for Qur'anic verses, it uses al-'Uthmāni text which is well known in all the Muslim countries.

Two: The Language Content (al-muhtawā al-lughawī)

1. Vocabulary selection in this book is built by the following factors:

- a. Experience in writing a book for teaching Arabic to non Arabic speakers in another language. ¹³
- b. The frequency word lists in Malaysian usage.
- c. The topics that cover culture and Islamic religion.

On the whole, these vocabularies are hoped to cover both the language requirement (al-muāsafāt al-lughawiyyah) and the education well established among those who are expert in teaching Arabic to foreigners. These vocabularies represent standard vocabulary, not colloquial ('ammiyyah), being used and understood today in all the Arab countries, to aid students to understand the Holy Qur'ān and Arabic civilisation and furthermore the student can use them to express his own opinion on the environment, society and modern needs.

2. In this book, there are about five thousand words which have been selected. The detail is divided as follows:

Volume One: 600 Arabic words.

Volume Two: 600 Arabic words + 250 Arabic words from kitāb al-Mukhtārāt (Extra reference book).

Volume Three: 600 Arabic words + 250 Arabic words from kitāb al-Mukhtārāt.

Volume Four: 850 Arabic words + 400 Arabic words from kitāb al-Mukhtārāt.

Volume Five: 850 Arabic words + 400 Arabic words from kitāb al-Mukhtārāt.

On critical analysis, the amount of vocabulary is bigger than the syllabus requires as it is limited for the purpose of teaching Arabic. However, some of these words are well known among Malaysians, especially words which are used in Islamic religion and culture. According to M.A.J. Beg, Associated Professor in National University of Malaysia, there are about 2,000 Arabic words in Malay words. ¹⁴ Moreover, in spite of this amount, it will satisfy students and teacher if these words are well practised in the course of the lessons and drills.

3. The authors of this book considered two main things when they composed the book. These are the sentence relationship (al- 'alāqāt al-siyāqiyyah) and terminology (al-tarākīb al-iṣṭilāhiyyah). Some examples of the first are verbs which are used only with certain prepositions (hurūf al-jarr) and verbs which have different meanings when we change hurūf al-jarr. As for al-tarākīb al-iṣṭilāhiyyah, we can see sentences such as: express welcoming (tarhīb), prayer (do'a), thankfulness (al-shukr), excuses (i'tizār), etc.

4. Two main factors are focused in this language content: drill on the language itself and the grammar (al-naḥwu wa al-ṣarf). By emphasising these two factors, the book has achieved two important things in learning Arabic. These are fluency in language use (ṭalāqah) and accuracy in grammar (diqqah).

5. As was mentioned in the general description above, the five volumes of al- 'Arabiyyah are divided between lower secondary school and medium secondary school. The details about each volume are as follows:

Volume One: This book is used for Form One in lower secondary school. The topics are: Arabic sounds, alif lam shamsiyyah and qamariyyah, nominal sentences, putting predicate (khabar) before subject (mubtada'), perfect, imperfect and imperative verb, using imperfect for future tense, masculine and feminine, nominative pronouns, singular and plural, interrogative particles such as: mā, kaifa, aina, man, etc., verbal sentences, agent (fā'il), patient (maf'ūl), nūn al-wiqāyah, annexation, the annexation noun of place such as amāma, khalfa, ḥaula etc., and adjective.

Volume Two (For Form Two): The topics are: perfect tense, relation of pronoun (isnād al-ḍamir), imperfect and imperative verb, prohibitive verb (al-naḥyu), preposition and genitive, interrogative particles, feminine and masculine, singular, dual and plural, patient, condition sentence (ism al-sharṭ) with two particles: man and idha, conjunction, the usage of ṣāra, attached pronoun with noun.

Volume Three (For Form Three): The passive (Al-mabnī lil majhūl,) , the usage of kāna, the usage of lianna, lām al-ta'īl with imperfect verb (in matn al-Jurrūmiyyah it is called lām kai, p. 5), the usage of sīn and saufa, the usage of ba'da anna, the usage of imperfect verb for second person (masculine and feminine), the usage of imperfect verb for plural, the usage of two words (ba'du and aktharu) in annexation.

All of these topics are performed with examples and students are taught by learning these examples. Then they are required to solve all questions and drills in the book. Students start to recognise grammatical terminology when they go to Form Two and Three, therefore we can see that terminology such as masculine, feminine, singular, etc. are introduced only in these two volumes. The purpose of introducing these terminologies is as an introduction before they move to medium secondary school (Form Four and Five).

6. Teaching grammar in medium secondary school is based on the purpose of exposing the student to basic important grammar. For this reason, twenty-two topics are taught in this level. Grammar teaching, which include drills, takes half of every lesson hour. The topics are as below:

Volume Four (for Form Four): Perfect, imperfect and imperative verb, masculine and feminine, singular, dual and plural, classes of plural, nominal and verbal sentences, interrogative particles, prepositions of genitive, agent(Fā'il), kāna and its sisters, changing verb to feminine, patient, patient whose agent is not mentioned (nāib al-fā'il), subject, predicate, pronoun, verb annexed to pronoun (isnād al-fi'li ilā al ḍamā'ir), demonstrative pronouns (asmā' al-ishārah), inna and its sisters, al-taqdīm wa al-ta'khīr, conjunction, emphasis, adjective, agreement between adjective and the thing described.

Volume Five (for Form Five): Imperfect verb when affected by something which governs accusative, imperfect verb when affected by something which governs apocopated (jazm), condition of particles (al-sharṭ), the five verbs, Lā for negation (al-nāfiyah), Lā al-nāhiyah, annexation of singular, dual and plural, numerical, specification, the noun of place or time, maf'ūl muṭlaq, present tense (hāl), the accu-

sative of reason, exception (istithnā'), substitution, uninflected noun, abstract (al-mujarrad), verb which has prefixes (al-mazīd), verbal nouns, noun of agent and noun of patient.

By learning these topics of grammar, students are enabled to achieve skill and fluency in Arabic grammar either in theory or practical use. Topics for lower and medium secondary school in some cases are similar but the contents are not the same. This is because, as mentioned above, they learn grammar in lower secondary school by practising it, whereas in secondary school they learn theory and practice as well.

Three: The Cultural Content (al-muhtawā al-thaqāfi)

The cultural content of this book has a deep relation with two major purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia. They are religious needs and modern culture. Although these two purposes are not equally represented in every volume, they serve a comprehensive aim generally. Hence we can see that the content of the book in the first three volumes (for Form One to Form Three) is about every day activities which are relevant to the environment of Malaysia, whereas in Volume Four and Five, the focus is on religion and civilisation (al-ḥaḍārah) .

Although the topics which are presented especially in the first three volumes seem not to be originally religious topics, religious elements have been inserted and therefore cover them thoroughly.

The details on contents are as below:

Volume One:

- a. Personal information: Introducing each other, Birthday, Sex (male or female), Country, Religion, Address.
- b. Family: My family, Our House, Living in the House, Two Sons, In the Evening.
- c. Daily activities: Visiting, Authentic Opportunity, Food Etiquette (ādāb al-ṭa'ām), prayer.
- d. School: Students, Teachers, School, Class.
- e. Hobbies: My hobby, Sports, Vacation.

Volume Two:

- a. Islam: Islamic festival, Prophet's birthday, Friday prayer, al-Madīnah al-Munawwarah.

- b. Manner or Behaviour: Cleanliness, A good mind in a good body (Quotation), Doctor and Medicine, Helping a Muslim.
- c. Home Environment: Zoo, Kuala Lumpur (capital of Malaysia), Villagers, Working in the city, Natural Views (al-manāẓir al-ṭabī'iyah).
- d. Modern Life: Industry, Transportation.
- e. Daily Life: Games, Competition, New Clothes.

Volume Three:

- a. Home Environment: Malaysian Products; rice, banana, tea.
- b. Daily Life: Staple Food, Fruit Shop, Waking Up in the Morning, School Tour, Picnic at the Beach, Post Office, Telephone.
- c. Manner or Behaviour: Letter, The Right Way (al-ṣirāṭ al-mustaqīm), Visiting a Patient, An Honest Police Man, Farewell.
- d. Relationship: Malaysia, Countries, Arab.

From these topics, we can conclude that this book in the first three volumes focuses on two things:

1. Islamic Religious affairs.
2. General information.

As for medium secondary school, the book focuses on Islam and Islamic civilisation more than on general topics and daily activities. By looking at these two volumes, we can justify what we have said above.

Volume Four:

Unit One: Education: New Academic Year, Education in Malaysia, Library.

Unit Two: Daily Life: Tour to Kuala Lumpur, Welcoming Friend Coming Back From Abroad, Al-Adhā Festival, Writing a Letter to a Friend.

Unit Three: Job: Advertisement in Newspaper, Craft, A New Officer, Working Environment.

Unit Four: Health: Food, Seeing the Doctor, Human Affairs.

Unit Five: Islamic Culture: Dār al-Hijrah, Al-Idrīsī, Baghdād, Cairo, Al-Rāzī.

Unit Six: Modern World: Countries of the World, Muslims in the World, Letter from Morocco, National Day.

Volume Five:

Unit One: Society: Cooperation, First Aid Group, Happy Ending.

Unit Two: Economy: Malaysian Economy, Petrol, Foreign Exchange.

Unit Three: Pilgrimage: Preparation for Pilgrimage, Airways, Journey to Mecca al-Mukarramah, In the Holy Land.

Unit Four: Islamic Values: Al-Istiqāmah, Al- 'izzah, Civilisation (al-hadārah).

Unit Five: Civilisation: Islam: The Practical Religion, Ibn Khaldūn, The Effect of Islamic Civilisation on Europe.

Unit Six: Education and the Future: Higher Education, Computer, Arabic in Malaysia.

With this cultural content, students, at the end of their course, are, it is hoped, able to read Arabic books whether the topics are related to Islamic civilisation or modern life which are relevant to their age and knowledge.

Extra Reference Book.

As was mentioned in the first paragraph under text book topic, there are five extra reference books named Al-Mukhtārāt Al-'Arabiyyah which are used apart from Al-'Arabiyyah text book. However, until 1990, only two volumes were published. The two are for Form Two and Three in Lower secondary school. ¹⁵ The book aims to provide as much information as possible to students and to drill them in how to use Arabic practically. Hence all of the topics focus on conversation. All the lessons which are presented in conversation form are followed by two kinds of drills: comprehension and completing the sentences.

The topics for this purpose are as follows:

Form Two: Food, Living Room, Bed Room, In the Market, After Having Food, Friday Prayer, A Friend From an Arab country, Airport, In the Hotel.

Form Three: Sports, Congratulations Letter, Prophet's Birthday, Fasting Month, Trip To the Highlands, The Mosque, The Independence of Malaysia, Television, Muslim Festival(Eīd al-Fiṭr al-Mubārak), Who walks on the right way, will arrive(Proverb).

These topics are adapted from Arabic books and modern journals. ¹⁶

CONCLUSION

After looking at the purposes of learning Arabic, the syllabus and text books in National Islamic secondary school, we can conclude as follows:

1. The purpose of learning Arabic in this school attempts to combine learning Arabic for religious purposes and learning Arabic for specific purposes. It endeavours to educate students in the Arabic Language so that they can use this knowledge to understand al-Qur'ān, Ḥadīth and other religious sources. More than that, the student will appreciate and take pride in the Arabic Language as the language of the Holy Qur'ān.¹⁷ At the same time, it aims to educate students in Arabic as one of the means to acquire knowledge.¹⁸ Nevertheless, this syllabus did not ignore the importance of communication in Arabic although this country is not an Arab country. Therefore, learning Arabic for general purposes i.e. speaking, listening and reading have been inserted in its purposes so that students can communicate among themselves in Arabic.¹⁹

2. The main idea of these purposes is to make Arabic in NISS a practical language and not a "subject" to be learned by the student. Arabic is aimed to be a "tool" in communication rather than a subject. This is certainly the difference between learning Arabic in this school and in the Arabic schools.

3. If we look at the text book, it seems to us that this text book (Al-'Arabiyyah) moves toward fulfilling these purposes. It tries to make this language a living language i.e. spoken by teachers and students. It changes some of the teachers' attitudes toward this language. In the past, teachers taught students grammar only and avoided drills and speaking Arabic with students. When they teach students using this book, they have no choice but to speak to students in Arabic and give them drills and tests so that students feel confident to use this language.

4. This book is hoped to be a starting point toward improving the way of understanding al-Qur'ān among Muslim students in Malaysia. This is because the book does not keep al-Qur'ān away from Arabic. It uses al-Qur'ān as a source and this is the brave experiment to eliminate the way some Muslims in Malaysia think about al-Qur'ān. They think that al-Qur'ān is used for religious purpose only and not for other purposes such as academic or language learning. It is clear among them that anyone who attempts to study al-Qur'ān NOT for religious purpose, is stamped as an unbeliever (kāfir) or at least

will be blamed because he has degraded the Holy Qur'ān.

2.3.3 TEACHER AND STUDENT

a. TEACHER.

There are about 303 teachers in National Islamic Secondary Schools in Malaysia.²⁰ The number of teachers in Arabic schools is more than the number of teachers in NISS. About 95% of these teachers are Malaysian. Some of them graduated from middle east universities such as Al-Azhar University, Al-Malik Sa'ud University in Riyadh, while others graduated from local universities such as from the Islamic Faculty, National University of Malaysia and Islamic Academy, University of Malaya. Among these teachers, only 40 teachers were really graduated in Arabic studies. The others came from Islamic studies (Shari'ah or Uşūl'l-Dīn). This phenomenon has caused a major problem in teaching Arabic in Malaysia. (The problems of teaching Arabic in Malaysia will be discussed in the next section).

B. STUDENT

Briefly, there are three intakes of student to NISS and Arabic schools: the first intake is for Form One, the second intake is for Form Four and the third intake is for Form Six. All students in this school are Muslim because the admission requirement to this school is that the student should know how to read Jawi (Malay alphabet which similar to Arabic alphabet) and he should know how to read al-Qur'ān. One of the most important things about the students in NISS and Arabic is that they enjoy a variety of choice when they graduate from this school. Some of them have been sent to Arab countries such as Morocco, Jordan and Egypt to further their study in Arab universities. From 1986 until 1990, the DIE sent 80 students from NISS to Morocco and from 1988 to 1990, 40 students were sent to Jordan.²¹ At the same time, the students from this school represent a large number of the university students in local universities in the Faculty of Arts, Sciences, Law and Islamic studies.

2.4. THE PROBLEMS OF TEACHING ARABIC IN MALAYSIA.

Teaching Arabic in Malaysia has passed through many stages to become established: from private schools to be under the administration of the department of Islamic affairs in the states and then under the department of Islamic education (for some schools). The department of Islamic education in the

Ministry of Education, together with the department of Islamic affairs, have had many problems in order to make this kind of school of the same standard as other types of school in the country. This section then, endeavours to highlight these problems so that some suggestions could be forwarded at the end of this research. To make the discussion more clear, the problems will be discussed according to these factors: administration, syllabus, teachers, and other factors.

a. ADMINISTRATION.

The Director in the Department of Islamic Education listed the problems in the administration in his paper presented in one of the Arabic teaching seminars held in Malaysia in 1990 ²² as follows:

a. A lack of qualified staff to administer Arabic teaching programmes. He said that until 1990, there were only two officers who were responsible to this section (Arabic). They had to look after all Arabic schools which are under the administration of this department.

b. "A lack of qualified staff in Arabic language to administer Arabic teaching in the states which are far from the capital where the main office is located." ²³ Most of the staff in the states are those whose major study is not Arabic. They graduated from the Middle East in Islamic Law or theology and some of them graduated from local universities from the faculty of Arts.

c. "A lack of technical supervision from the Ministry of Education in all stages of administration: syllabus, text books, teachers, training, examination system, etc." ²⁴ In other words, officers in the department have to do their duty without any help from the ministry.

d. "The Department of Islamic Education does not provide an Arabic teacher training college." ²⁵ What it is doing at the moment is providing an Islamic religious training college only. This means that those who are willing to be Arabic teachers, have to attend this training college to obtain a diploma in teaching. It is necessary also to state here that until 1990, there was no Arabic teacher training program in any university in Malaysia. Only in the academic year 1990/91, International Islamic University introduced this kind of course in the Faculty of Education in the university. Then the University of Malaya introduced this course incorporating it with Islamic education training.

e. "There is no expert in teaching Arabic to observe the teaching and learning Arabic programme in Malaysia." ²⁶ On the contrary, if we look at teaching English, French, and Japanese languages, we find that this problem does not arise. This is because many experts in these languages either from this coun-

try or abroad are involved in developing the learning of these languages.

f. "There is no specific budget for Arabic language subjects from the Ministry of Education as is provided to other subjects such as sciences and mathematics."²⁷ This means that the Arabic section has to 'beg' the budget from the Ministry to the Islamic education section. Having a small budget of course will automatically prevent this section from expanding its activities.

2. SYLLABUS.

a. "There is no integrated syllabus for Arabic language in the primary stage."²⁸ This is because as mentioned (before), Arabic schools are under the department of Islamic affairs in the states while National Islamic secondary schools are under the department of Islamic education in the Ministry of Education. Both use different syllabuses: the first is more on the classical system (focus on grammar), while the second focuses on modern standard Arabic. When students from these two kinds of school meet at the higher study level, the problems occur. Most students from Arabic school do better in understanding grammar and in writing than those who are coming from the national Islamic school. Teachers in the university for example, have great difficulties in finding the most suitable syllabus for these two categories of student.

b. A lack of texts, extra text books and references in all stages of schooling. Some text books (especially for grammar are taken from the Middle East e.g. al-Naḥwu al-Wāḍiḥ. It is so difficult to find Arabic exercise books in book stores or even in the school especially with reference to Malaysian environment.

c. A lack of teaching aids materials which are important to language learning. Compared with teaching other languages, teaching aid materials for Arabic are left behind. There is no proper program for teaching Arabic using these kinds of teaching aids e.g. slides, overhead projector, pictures, video, cassette and computer. Some Arabic schools have language laboratories but they are not being used because the above materials are not available.

3. TEACHERS.

a. Only a small number of teachers who are involved in teaching Arabic hold a degree in teaching Arabic either in the National Islamic secondary or in Arabic schools. For example, in the State of Pahang which is the biggest state in the Malaysian Peninsula, there are more than twelve Arabic schools and

none of the teachers who teach Arabic in these schools holds a degree in teaching Arabic. Most of them have a degree in Islamic Law (Shari'ah) or Theology (Uşul al-din) or Arts (history or Arabic literature) from Middle Eastern universities.

b. The above problem has caused another problem which is "the teachers have little knowledge of Arabic language." ²⁹ This will affect the standard of teaching in the classroom. The Department of Islamic affairs might be responsible for this problem because it does not offer a scholarship solely in Arabic for those who want to do further study in any higher institution either in the country or abroad.

c. This problem has a relation with the teachers themselves. "Teachers are not motivated to improve the skills of teaching and learning Arabic." ³⁰ The Language centre in Nilam Puri, Kelantan (one of the states in Malaysia) offers every year courses in teaching Arabic to Arabic teachers all over the country. However, the response is not as it should be. Although this phenomenon does not represent the majority of the Arabic teachers, it is still one of the problems in teaching Arabic in Malaysia.

d. Most Arabic teachers are those who have been involved in teaching for a long time. They represent a majority among Arabic teachers. When the Department of Islamic education introduced a new approach to teaching Arabic to stress the four skills of writing, reading, speaking and listening rather than grammar, most of these teachers did not respond to it. In other words, they still prefer an old method and an old syllabus. The problem does not stop here only but has affected the learning system including the examination . It also affected students. If the students in the old syllabus system had a lot of problems in learning Arabic because the syllabus was not suitable to them, then the students in the new syllabus system will face the same problem because the attitude of the teachers does not change.

OTHER PROBLEMS:

In addition to the above problems, there are other problems which could be summarised as follows:

a. Some responsible persons e.g. teachers, parents, administrators, are not concerned with the process of learning Arabic such as creating the environment for it or giving moral and material support and so on.

b. The number of places in Arabic schools is less than the number of students. Every year, the schools have to refuse some applications from students because they cannot provide enough places. This kind of school usually receives 2 to 3 thousand applications and can accommodate only 5 to 7 hundred stu-

dents.

c. Students' attitude to Arabic language has changed today. This happens because when they go to school, they are looking towards their future. To be precise, they are looking for a job. They find that Arabic language does not offer a good job when they graduate from school or university.

d. The environment in Malaysia does not help students who learn Arabic to develop this language. Although the percentage of Muslims is more than 50% in Malaysia, they do not use Arabic as a second language or even in their religious activities. Arabic is used in the classroom only. There is no publication in Arabic sold in any book shop in Malaysia. When they learn about Islam, they read books translated from Arabic into Malay. These factors discourage people from learning Arabic.

CONCLUSION

Highlighting the problems of teaching and learning Arabic does not mean to expose the weaknesses in it. It endeavours to make people, especially those who are involved in education become aware of these weaknesses and problems so that immediate action could be taken in order to solve the problems. Therefore at the end of this study some suggestions will be discussed together with suggestions for teaching vocabulary which is the main focus of this study.

END NOTES

1. Hijazi, Mahmud, (1990), Text books for government Arabic school in Malaysia, working paper presented in the seminar of Teaching Arabic in Malaysia, 25-28 August 1990, p. 10.
2. From the syllabus of Arabic Language in secondary school, (1991), Islamic Division in the Ministry of Education, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, pp. 2-3.
3. There are ten states in Malaysia which have a king of the state. The others have governor only.
4. The syllabus for Religious secondary school in Pahang State, (1986), Department of Islamic Affairs, Pekan, Pahang.
5. Kadir, Z.A., (1990), Teaching of Arabic in secondary school in Malaysia, working paper presented in the seminar of teaching Arabic in Malaysia, 25-28 August, 1990, p. 9.
6. Ibid., pp 10__11.
7. Ibid., p. 5.
8. There are many kinds of Arabic hand writing such as ruq'ah, kufi etc.
9. Ministry of Education, (1989), Syllabus for Arabic language in secondary school, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
10. Hijazi, Mahmud, op.cit., p.1.
11. Ibid., pp 4__12.
12. This means the name of places, Malaysian custom and culture, sources of Malaysia either from agriculture or industry, the look out of Malaysia etc.
13. What the writer means here is that he adopted the methods in writing text book for non Arabic speaker in other countries where he involved to be used in writing text book for National Islamic secondary school.
14. Beg, A.J. (1983), Arabic Loan-words in Malay, A comparative study, survey of Arabic and Islamic influence upon the language of mankind, Malaysia, The University of Malaya Press, Kuala Lumpur, p.77.
15. Hijazi, Mahmud, op. cit., p.11.
16. Ibid., p. 12.
17. See the purposes of learning Arabic in NISS no. 1,2,3, and 5.

18. Ibid., no. 4,8,9,10,11,12, and 13.
19. Ibid., no.7.
20. Kadir, Z.A. op.cit., p.13.
21. Ibid., pp 14__15.
22. Kadir, Z.A., op.cit., pp 15__18.
23. Ibid.
24. Ibid.
25. Ibid.
26. Ibid.
27. Ibid.
28. Ibid.
29. Ibid.
30. Ibid.

CHAPTER THREE

TEACHING VOCABULARY IN MODERN LANGUAGES

- 3.1. GENERAL PRINCIPLES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING VOCABULARY
- 3.2. LIMITATION OF FREQUENCY LIST
- 3.3. GRADING VOCABULARY FOR PRESENTATION
- 3.4. PRESENTING VOCABULARY
- 3.5. CONCLUSION

TEACHING VOCABULARY IN MODERN LANGUAGES.

1. THE PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING AND LEARNING VOCABULARY IN GENERAL.

Introduction.

In this chapter, the focus will be on teaching and learning vocabulary in general either to beginners or to those at the advanced level. The intention is to find out and list the principles which have been established by educationists in this field.

1. GENERAL PRINCIPLES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING VOCABULARY.

In order to ensure that the teacher has successfully performed his duty when he teaches his students, he needs to have certain principles and criteria so that he can fulfil the requirement of teaching. Simultaneously, students should be alerted that they have a duty to achieve success when they learn vocabulary. To do this, both the teacher and the student have to follow the principles which guide them to their target. What are the principles on which such learning is to be based? Michael Wallace, in his book "Teaching Vocabulary" ¹ has suggested nine principles to be followed in teaching and learning vocabulary:

i. AIMS.

He says that "the teacher has to be clear about his or her aims: how many of the things listed does the teacher expect the learner to be able to do? With which words? Unless the teacher is clear on this point, it will be difficult to assess how successful or otherwise the vocabulary learning has been." ² In addition, what is the aim in his vocabulary teaching? If the aim is for general purposes, he or she should not teach the vocabulary for specific purposes. Also if his or her aim is for spoken language, he should focus on vocabulary which helps students to start speaking. In the classes for spoken language, students

are given the text rarely. They are trained by speaking. For this reason, if the teacher uses a lot of texts in spoken language lesson, he or she has failed to achieve some of his or her aims. Similarly, the teacher who teaches vocabulary for academic purposes has failed to achieve his target if he uses colloquial or dialect terms in his teaching. "If the emphasis is audiolingual, then colloquial and formal vocabulary will have to be distinguished." ³

ii. QUANTITY.

"Having decided on what is involved in vocabulary learning, the teacher may have to decide on the quantity of vocabulary to be learnt. How many new words in a lesson can the learner learn? If we mean by 'learn' that the words become part of the student's active vocabulary, then one estimate puts the number as low as around five to seven new words. Clearly, the actual number will depend on a number of factors varying from class to class and learner to learner. If there are too many new words, the learner may become confused, discouraged and frustrated." ⁴ For this reason, the teacher is advised not to put more than 10 per cent new words to students when he distributes to them any text or article to read in the classroom or at home because too much unknown vocabulary will make them give up the text. On the contrary, it will make students give up also if they make less progress in acquiring new vocabulary because they could not find new vocabulary that they should expect from the text they read. This is because the text is easy for them. To cope with this problem, "the teacher may decide to supplement the students' vocabulary from sources other than the course-book." ⁵

How should vocabulary be selected? Joseph Michel and Paul Patin in their report on the teaching of foreign languages ⁶ state that " if the teacher and learner could determine which words most need to be learned, then their efforts could be more concentrated and fruitful." They added that the question of selection in the face of an infinite corpus of words is critical and there are several criteria to help in com-

piling a vocabulary list. The first norm for selection is the emphasis of the course. (This has a close relation with the first principle, the aim. However, the focus here is on the selection of the vocabulary). If the emphasis is heavy reading-writing emphasis, it would perhaps indicate an ultimate desire to use the language for scientific or esthetic purposes. This would call for a formal, technical vocabulary. A stress on receptive skills, on the other hand, would require the learning of a larger vocabulary than that necessary for the productive skills since the speaker or writer can express and paraphrase within the range of the words he knows.

For the teacher who wants to select and control the flow of vocabulary, there are five variables, listed by William Mackey⁷ that have been scientifically applied to the selection of words:

- a. Frequency: the number of times a word occurs in a number of running words (words selected from texts at random).
- b. Range: the number of different texts in which a word is found.
- c. Availability: the readiness with which a word is remembered or used in a certain situation and not in another (e.g., in a restaurant but not in a classroom).
- d. Coverage: the capacity of a word to displace other words (e.g., bag has greater coverage capacity than any of the other words. It can replace suitcase, valise, handbag, sack).
- e. learnability: the ease with which a word is learned, based on such features as similarity to native words, clarity of meaning, brevity, regularity of form.

iii. NEED.

In this principle, two factors should be considered: the purposes of learning and the level of students.

For the purposes of learning, "common sense dictates that students who are required to read technical reports in English in their native country will have different lexical needs to those learners who want

survival English for travel purpose in English-speaking countries.⁸ As for the level, it is "equally obvious that elementary students will recognise limitations in their selection of lexis that will not be true of advanced learners."⁹

Some of the criteria that can be used, such as availability and learnability, have been mentioned in order to select and control vocabulary. By putting these all together, teachers are hoped to be able to identify what their students need and what vocabulary should be used to fulfil their need. However, M. Wallace urged that "in most cases the choice will be made for the teacher by the course-book or syllabus he is using. In any case, one would hope that the choice of vocabulary will relate to the aims of the course and the objectives of individual lessons."¹⁰ In addition "it is also possible for the teacher, in a sense to put the responsibility of choosing the vocabulary to be taught on the students. In other words, the student is put in a situation where he has to communicate and gets the words he needs, as he needs them, using the teacher as an informant."¹¹

The conflict, however, occurs when teachers or students attempt to fulfil 'need' in learning vocabulary. First, the student might need a lot of technical vocabulary but it seems to be incongruous with his general language level or his grammar on the other hand. Ruth and Stuart in their book 'Working With Words' stressed "How does one reconcile the need for highly technical vocabulary alongside the apparent inability of the students to manage very basic grammatical structures?"¹²

iv. FREQUENT EXPOSURE AND REPETITION

To make all student really acquire a new word, "there has to be a certain amount of repetition until there is evidence that the student has learned the target word. The simplest way of checking that this learning has been done is by seeing whether the student can recognize the target word and identify its meaning. If the word has to be part of the learner's productive vocabulary, he must be given the oppor-

tunity to use it, as often as is necessary for him to recall it at will, with the correct stress and pronunciation. It is not enough, however, that this should happen only in one lesson: since the learner is exposed to a large number of words, the words he is meant to remember should crop up at regular intervals in later lessons."¹³ John L. Locke from University of Illinois, in his article, 'The Value of Repetition in Articulation Learning'¹⁴ has proven that repetition has value in verbal learning. In response to Rock's study¹⁵ who said that repetition does not help in learning language, Locke set out to prove that repetition has value in learning language especially in verbal learning. He conducted experiments using children who were native English speakers. In the first experiment, three non-English phrases spoken by a native speaker of German were presented randomly. The children had to imitate the sounds they heard. A considerable improvement in their performance was noted on the second trial (from 52 to 89%) with relatively modest increments in further trials. This suggests "an inverse relationship between the difficulty of phonetic response and the value of repeated trials."¹⁶ He also suggested that "the great initial learning occurred at some time between the first response and the onset of the second stimulus presentation."¹⁷

v. MEANINGFUL PRESENTATION

This means that the word is presented in such a way that its denotation or reference is perfectly clear and unambiguous. There is no doubt that it is important to teach the meaning of a word without specifying very closely what 'teach the meaning' implies. However, to make 'meaningful presentation' "it is not always an easy task. This is because some words can denote several things. Others can have a wide range of denotations according to the context. The word table for example may be discovered in contexts like this (the examples and quotation listed by M. Wallace from the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English):

1. The waiter told us that, if we wished, we could choose something from the cold table (i.e. a display of cold food, such as salads etc.) ;
2. John's stories kept the whole table amused (i.e. everyone sitting at the table);
3. There is a table of contents at the front of this dictionary (i.e. list);
4. The children were learning their tables. (lists which young children repeat to learn what number results when a number from 1 to 12 is multiplied by any of the numbers from 1 to 12);
5. The President is at table now but he will see you when he is finished eating. (i.e. having a meal) ¹⁸

If we look at Arabic language, we find the same problem. The word **ضرب** can denote several things. For example, to hit with = **ضرب ب** , to turn away from = **ضرب عن** , to travel = **ضرب في الأرض** , to draw a line = **ضرب خطا** , to impose a tax = **ضرب ضريبة** , to give an example = **ضرب مثالا** , to mint money = **ضرب نقودا** .(the examples are adapted from A dictionary of Modern Written Arabic edited by J. Milton Cowan. The words **يرغب** and **يدعو** have different meanings if we put different prepositions with them: **يرغب في (يريد) , يرغب عن (لا يريد) , يدعو عليه (بالشر), يدعو له (بالخير)** .To face this problem, M. Wallace suggests that "in elementary classes, we try to teach words which have a clear, concrete denotation: something that can be seen or touched. So we often present nouns like desk, blackboard, chair, table; verbs like sit, stand, walk, read; adjectives like big, small, square red; and so on. As the student's command of the language improves, he will discover that even these 'straightforward' words can have a wide range of denotations according to the context." ¹⁹

vi SITUATION PRESENTATION.

Using a word with a correct meaning but inappropriate to the given situation is assumed to be not in the correct language usage. This is what M. Wallace means by situation presentation. He says that words can vary according to the situation in which we are speaking and according to how well we

know the person to whom we are speaking (informal to very formal). Students are recommended to learn words in the situation in which they are appropriate. "The word right (hand side) and left (hand side) for example, are perfectly acceptable ways of indicating direction, but on board a ship, there are situation where these terms would sound strange, the terms port (for left) and starboard (for right) being more appropriate. Similarly the progress of a ship is measured in knots (rather than miles or kilometres), and depth below sea-level sometimes in fathoms (rather than feet or metres): and so on."²⁰ Similarly in Arabic language, the word al-sunnah could vary according to the situation. The literal meaning is al-tarikah (way) but Islamic Usulists define it as anything that primarily refers to a source of the Shari'ah and a legal proof next to the Qur'an; while the Hadith scholars use al-sunnah as anything that refers to all that is narrated from the Prophet Muḥammad (peace be upon him), his acts, his sayings, and whatever he has tacitly approved plus all the reports which describe his physical attributes and character. In a very formal greeting between the student and the teacher or the employee and his employer, the student or the employee would say to his teacher or his employer **كيف حالكم** (using plural pronoun), to greet him but he will say **كيف حالك** (using singular pronoun) only, when he greets his friend. These examples (when a word that is correct in one situation is not correct in another, although it has the same kind of significance) could be paralleled in many other situations.

vii. PRESENTATION IN CONTEXT.

This means that words very seldom occur in isolation. According to Hittleman, students are not learning new words if they learn them in isolation. "Too often vocabulary development procedures encourage pupils to memorize just lists of words. Individual words are of no help to pupils unless the concept for the word is also learned."²¹ One of the ways to learn words in context is by knowing the usual collocations that the word occurs in. Collocation happens "when two items co-occur or are used together

frequently."²² "Items may co-occur simply because the combination reflects a common real world state of affairs. For instance, 'pass' and 'salt' collocate because people often want other people to pass them the salt."²³

There are common types of collocation in every language and they (the types) could be similar between one language and another and could vary, on the other hand. The most common types of collocation, according to Gairns and Redman²⁴ are as follows:

- a. Subject noun + verb e.g. The earth revolves around the sun. (It would be less common, for example, to use 'circulate').
- b. Verb + object noun e.g. She bites her nails. (On the whole, we would not use 'eat' here, though many other languages would).
- c. Adjectives + noun e.g. a loud noise, heavy traffic.
- d. Adverb + past participle used adjectivally e.g. badly dressed, fully insured.

If we look at Arabic words, we find that certain words are presented in certain contexts. To correct students' paper or work, the teacher will say *يصحح الأستاذ اوراق الطلبة* and will not say *يصلح الأستاذ* though the word *يصحح* and *يصلح* give the same meaning. The sentences in Arabic usually begin with this type: verb + noun. On the contrary, sentences in Malay are never begun with a verb. Students should be reminded in the early beginning of their learning so that they might be aware of this difference. In Arabic language, words always perform according to what is said (*سماعي*) and not what should be (*قياسي*). For this reason, Arabic scholars always say, (*لغتنا توقيفية*) which means our language is based on what is said by Arabs. For example, for the word *القاضي* the plurals of this word are *قاضون* and *قضاة* , but people always say *قضاة* : it is most rare to find the word *قاضون* in Arabic books. The verbal noun for *قاتل* are *قتال* and *مقاتلة* . The first one is *qiyāsi* while the other one is

ghair qiyāsi, but people always use *ghair qiyāsi*. Even in the Holy Qur'ān, Allah says,

(يسألونك عن الشهر الحرام قتال فيه .. الآية)

This principle, then, is very important to ensure that the student fits a right context to every word he uses. It is also important to build a correct sense of the language he is writing or speaking and translating what in his mind using his native words or structures.

viii. LEARNING VOCABULARY IN THE MOTHER TONGUE AND IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE.

The intention of this principle is to look at the learning of vocabulary in the first language (or mother tongue) and in the second language (target language). It is clear that learning of vocabulary in the first language is easier than in the second language. Everyone acquires a large amount of vocabulary in his mother tongue, compared to what most foreign language learners would aspire to. M. Wallace ²⁵ has listed some reasons why this large vocabulary is achieved in first language learning process: First, there is felt need: in the first language 'knowing the words' is a matter of survival, or at least of social competence- this basic kind of need does not exist in most foreign language-learning programmes and so a paler, less realistic version of it usually has to be engineered in some way. Secondly, the first language learner mostly controls his own rate of learning. In a protective environment, adults are tolerant of children's ignorance of language: the child is more likely to feel anger and frustration in this respect. So he learns what he needs as he needs it. Thirdly, the first language is exposed to an enormous quality of his own language and has tremendous scope for repetition of what he learns, while learning a second or foreign language he does not have this advantage. What happens most of the time is that the student learns vocabulary in the classroom only. Fourthly, the language is nearly always encountered in an appropriate situation and in the appropriate context. So he will probably not have too many problems

with appropriateness or with collocation. Fifthly, since words are learnt as they arise out of a felt need in a particular situation, they usually have a clear denotation.

Although these are the factors by which the student can acquire vocabulary in learning first language, it does not mean that it could be implemented in learning the second language. The circumstances are very different and since the time available for learning the second language is almost invariably very much shorter, then short cuts will have to be taken. In order to achieve the target, the availability of the words, the purposes of learning of second language, the structure; structure words and content words, the content: nouns, verbs, adjectives and so on, the connotation, relationships between words, productive and receptive vocabulary and correct forms and many more are things that should be considered in teaching second language.

ix. INFERENCING (GUESSING) PROCEDURES IN VOCABULARY LEARNING.

Inferencing is one of the vocabulary learning processes. This is because students cannot remember or identify thousands of words. M. Wallace claims that some educationists estimate that students should recognise at least 40,000 words, while the students, on the other hand, could recognise not more than 2,000 words. He says that not all of the remaining words will be learnt from a dictionary. So how can the student understand the remaining words? The answer is of course, according to him, that the students guess the meanings of words by hearing them used in a certain situation or sometimes by reading them in a certain context and guessing their meaning from the context. He added that another aspect of vocabulary learning is that the mother-tongue speaker learns to be content with what he called its approximate meaning: in other words, he is satisfied with a meaning which makes sense of the context. He gave an example that someone reading a historical novel set in the nineteenth century will probably guess names like broughams, barouches and clarences are all names of horse-drawn carriages of some

kind, and be content with that: only if he is curious will he check up in a dictionary to discover the exact differences between those words. He concluded that it is unlikely that knowing the precise differences between these old-fashioned carriages would add anything to the reader's understanding or enjoyment of the story.

Similarly, someone reads a story or article in Arabic. He understands the whole idea of the text or article, but if we ask him every word in the article or the story, he might be unable to explain the meaning. What he did was he guessed the meaning from the context (especially if the words refer to the names of places, instrument or things that can be found only in that place). Here, guessing has played an important role in vocabulary learning process. "Most young readers who are reading the story properly, that is with enjoyment will be too caught up in the story to bother about such details... In vocabulary learning a principle called the 'need to know' could be applied: students should not be told more about the meanings of words than they need to know to understand the context."²⁶

In addition to these general principles, there are other principles in teaching and learning vocabulary but more on the content itself.

Under the Criteria for Selection, Gairns and Redman state that frequency, cultural factors and expediency play an important role in selecting vocabulary to be taught to the students.

a. FREQUENCY

"The high frequency of an item is no guarantee of usefulness, but there is obviously a significant correlation between the two so it worth examining some of the work on frequency word-counts that has been carried out over recent decades."²⁷ In teaching English vocabulary for example, many word lists have been published. "Some 80 word lists this century have been based on this principle (frequency of usage). It seemed evident that if words were useful they would be used often: to establish a basic word-

list for language teaching, it was necessary simply to count a wide sample of spoken or written discourse.”²⁸ Some of these lists are ‘General Service List of English Words (compiled and edited by Dr. Michael West, 1953), The Kucera and Fancis list (1967), ‘Threshold Level’ (1975) prepared for the Council of Europe by J. van Ek and the latest one is the ‘Cambridge English Lexicon’ (compiled by Roland Hindmarsh, 1980). In Arabic language, there is one word list ‘The Basic Vocabulary of the Arabic Primary Reading’ by Dr. Fakhir H. Akil (1953), Professor of Educational Psychology in the Syrian University. The latest one by Professor Daud Abdoo, has not been published yet.

b. CULTURAL FACTORS

Cultural factors are important in selecting the vocabulary. If the student learns English in South East Asia, he does not need to learn about sleet and anti-freeze and many more simply because these things do not reflect his cultural interests. “And at a socio-cultural level there are topics that take on a significance in certain countries... Inappropriate lexical selection is just one of the pitfalls of cultural ethnocentricity, and for native speakers working abroad this area may warrant considerable attention; not only in terms of vocabulary but of the whole syllabus.”²⁹

c. EXPEDIENCY

"The classroom will often dictate the need for certain vocabulary, without which students may fail to understand their teacher, fellow students or the activity they are supposedly engaged in. One such area is grammatical terminology, and although many teachers are loath to burden their students with too many grammatical labels, a shared understanding of certain items can be an asset. Highlighting is often made easier, explanations can be more succinct, and the student is able to make profitable use of dictionaries and grammar books that would otherwise be inaccessible to a large extent. The final choice, however, must rest with the teacher as age, course duration and the educational language learning

background of the students may significantly influence the possible benefits or harm of employing grammatical terminology." ³⁰

Another area of classroom language which is included under expediency is items which frequently appear in language activity instructions such as "(true/false, tick/cross, regular/irregular)" ³¹ and many more items which frequently appear. The authors stressed that constant exposure alone usually guarantees that these items will eventually be absorbed, ..."but one can hasten the process in a positive way by designing classroom activities that will incorporate many of these items and so avoid confusion or misunderstanding at a later date." ³² (Examples of Arabic words are discussed in chapter four under Antonyms).

In addition to two situations which are mentioned above, the expedient vocabulary teaching also occurs when:

"__ the classroom activity demands it e.g. items that are not intrinsically useful may be taught if they serve another function such as providing the necessary language to negotiate a role play/simulation.

__ A classroom activity engages the students' interest to such an extent that it seems worthwhile to include lexis that might otherwise be deemed irrelevant.

__ The student demands to know the meaning of a word. When this happens (and it happens all the time), teachers have to use their discretion in deciding whether the question is sufficiently relevant to take up classroom time. If teachers give in to every student request for information they are likely to be distracted from the main teaching aim, and worse still, the lesson is in danger of degenerating into a 'stream of consciousness' approach to vocabulary teaching which is unlikely to be very constructive.

The opposite philosophy i.e. ignore all questions and plough on with the lesson plan, is equally damaging. Students find it very frustrating and demotivating to have information withheld, particularly if they

are struggling to express themselves and lack the necessary vocabulary.

— The course book dictates it." ³³

2. LIMITATION OF FREQUENCY LIST.

Contrary to the researches about the importance of frequency, there are some scholars who call for the limitation of frequency lists. Jack C. Richards from the International Center for Research on Bilingualism, Laval University, Quebec claims that many teachers have questioned the usefulness of word-frequency lists. ... "To teach vocabulary, it is necessary to recreate the contexts in which words are used, choosing situations which the learner is likely to encounter. The vocabulary of many familiar situations however, does not rank highly in frequency lists. Soap, bath, cushion, chalk, and stomach, are not within the first 2,000 words of Thorndike and Lorge's list. Teachers and course designers have often had to ignore the frequency lists and rely on their own discretion as to which nouns should be taught. " ³⁴

Another scholar, Fries, believed that depending on word-lists based on frequency was the result of poor sampling. He writes, "We do not need more general counts which include the function words, but counts limited to 'things' and 'qualities'. There are many common necessary words that do not get into print, especially into the kind of publication that furnished the bulk of the material counted." ³⁵ J.

Richards argued that most frequent words in the language are words with grammatical, abstract or general meaning. The grammatical words according to him, are frequent because it is impossible to produce a sentence without them. Both grammatical and abstract words have a variety of meaning and hence several opportunities to occur in any given text, but not being context-bound. He gives an example for this argument. He writes, "The Oxford English Dictionary gives, a large number of senses for

the following words: make (97), go (94), give (64), of (63), do (54), keep (58), put (57), up (67), with (45). These are words with high and stable frequencies in word lists. Not being context-bound, they can occur in many situations."³⁶ "Infrequent words are highly context bound, carry a great amount of information, and are liable to vary from one topic of discourse to another."³⁷

In conclusion, Richards states, "Word frequency, as reflected in corpuses of spoken or written language is a stable index for those members of the lexicon with grammatical, general, and context-free meaning, such as the structural words, and the most frequent verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and nouns, but less reliable for context-bound words such as the majority of concrete nouns."³⁸

2.1. OTHER TYPES OF WORD-LISTS.

As an alternative, they suggest psychological studies as a base for vocabulary selection. "In the field of association psychology, studies of word behaviour have supplied a great deal of information on the psychological grouping of words. Numerous word association studies have been carried out to provide support for learning theories, and theories of categorization and conceptualization."³⁹ Here are some types of word lists which have been carried out in this field:

a. VERBAL CATEGORY TEST.

They studied the effect of the domination or organization imposed on words by particular mental concepts. To carry out word lists, they have to make an experiment and all experiments are imposed on a student. "In one set of experiment, students were given categories such as weapon, the house, food etc. and asked to list four words belonging to each category."⁴⁰ At the end of an experiment they will find which words belong to this category and which four words are the most popular among students. (One of the results of these experiments can be found in Bousfield's article).

b. AVAILABILITY

"A similar type of measurement was developed independently in France in 1954. It was found that the frequency lists established for this project gave insufficient importance to many common nouns."⁴¹

Miche'a in his article 'Basic Vocabulary': New Research and Techniques for the Benefit of Modern Language Teaching, elaborated the concept of word availability in an attempt to rate nouns according to their degree of association within specific categories and situations. Situation, according to Miche'a, calls words to mind according to their degree of availability. "An available word is a word which though not necessarily frequent, is always ready for use, and comes to mind when it is needed. It is a word which, belonging to normal associations of ideas, emerges whenever such associations come into play... This is why it is possible to attribute to many concrete nouns a degree of availability within a particular associative group, whereas statistics based on the analysis of texts are unable to allot them any stable and well defined place in order of frequencies."⁴² To locate the available words, they drew up the lists of categories which had been mentioned above. This list (verbal categories) was used to elicit the most available words for a number of basic situations. "This information was then used to correct the figures obtained by frequency alone."⁴³

c. WORD FAMILIARITY

Word familiarity is an attempt to measure the degree of importance people attribute to words. According to J. Richards,⁴⁴ this may be measured by asking subjects to rate words on a scale which indicates the degree to which they expect to hear, see or use words. Word familiarity may be interpreted differently according to the type of word which is rated. For members of a lexicon with stable frequencies, such as the common verbs, adjectives, adverbs and nouns, word familiarity confirms the psychological reality of word frequency. For concrete nouns, word familiarity may reflect the familiarity of an item for a person. Tooth paste for example, is not a frequent word, although it is a familiar word, since it

designates something which is used by many people every day.

To conclude, we might say that word familiarity and word frequency can be beneficial in teaching vocabulary. Since word familiarity is "significant and stable position which indicates the degree to which people expect to hear, see, or use and may differ according to the social, cultural and intellectual level of speakers, each of these variables is likely to be reflected in differences in vocabulary knowledge and use.." ⁴⁵ On the other side, most of the word-lists utilized for teaching, have been produced by language teachers such as Palmer, Bongers and M. West (for English language) or by educational psychologists such as Thorndike who know better about vocabulary learning needs. No doubt, they have made a big effort to improve teaching vocabulary. It clear then that both frequency and familiar words are very valuable as a major guide in teaching and learning vocabulary.

3. GRADING VOCABULARY FOR PRESENTATION.

Another principle in teaching and learning vocabulary is grading vocabulary. Grading vocabulary is very important to identify which particular thing should be learnt first and which one should be learnt after it. This is necessary in order to teach vocabulary in proper arrangement.

J. Michel and P. Patin have noted that in discussing the teaching of vocabulary, we need to divide words into two types: function words and content words. "Function words are the connective and grammatically determined items used in manipulating the structures of a language. Content words are the items expressing the meanings that have correlatives in the real world." ⁴⁶

Robert Lado suggests three stages in the presentation of vocabulary:

"The first stage, vocabulary to operate the patterns and illustrate the sounds of the second language, should be kept as simple as possible in order to allow the teacher to concentrate on the grammatical

patterns and the sound system."⁴⁷ This means an emphasis on the function words. Content words are kept to a minimum and for convenience are taken from objects in the immediate environment.⁴⁸

In the second stage, "the student acquires the vocabulary items he needs to converse on contextual areas of wide currency."⁴⁹ This means there would be an increasing emphasis on content words.

The third stage involves esthetic and technical vocabulary, and is not met until the more advanced and specialized stages of language study. The composition of such advanced vocabulary will depend chiefly on the choice of readings. This is because at the advanced level, vocabulary is expanded principally through reading.⁵⁰

4. PRESENTING VOCABULARY.

This is the last principle to be discussed in the principles of teaching vocabulary. In this principle, the emphasis is on how vocabulary can be taught. There is no doubt that methods and techniques must be perfect to the purposes of learning in order to get an efficient learning of vocabulary. J. michel listed four elements which have been defined as constituting knowledge of a word when we teach vocabulary: form, meaning, distribution, and use.

a. FORM.

Robert Lado suggests that to acquaint the student with the form of the word "the learner first hears the word in isolation and then in a sentence."⁵¹ "Slow repetition and breaking the word into parts will help.

The student should then pronounce the word, even if his aim is only reading or listening. Repeating the word out loud will help him remember it longer and identify it more readily."⁵² The authors added that teachers seem to fear over-dependence on the written forms once introduced, and so they delay this introduction. However, Wilga Rivers, who admits the dangers both of delaying and of hastening the introduction of the written form, says "the advantages in the greater assurance with which many students

will approach their oral work and mimicking after they have been given some opportunity to see in written form what they are to practise, far outweigh these rectifiable disadvantages." ⁵³

b. MEANING.

Mackey has used four procedures for the teaching of meaning: differential, ostensive, pictorial and contextual procedures. ⁵⁴

i. DIFFERENT PROCEDURES: "are those based on differences in word meaning between the first language and the second. These procedures involve use of the native and target language in two ways: explanation and translation. One would use the native language if he thought he could save time and avoid misunderstanding in getting across the meaning. "It can save valuable time..... and it can be a very quick way to dispose of low frequency items.." ⁵⁵ One would avoid using the native language however, if he believed he could encourage thought in the target language, the ostensible goal of most courses." ⁵⁶ "If the native language is used in explanation, then it is usually to explain such things as grammar rules, the production of sounds, differences in the structures of the two languages, and situation about which the language is to be used." ⁵⁷

J. Michel adds that if the native language is used in translation, then it should be used according to the following norms: "If translation leads to mistake, avoid it. If translation helps to avoid mistake, use it. If translation help learning, use it. If translation hampers learning, avoid it." ⁵⁸

ii. OSTENSIVE PROCEDURES:

These procedures are used to demonstrate the meaning of words directly through the use of objects, action, and situation. They are suitable for concrete word which can be explained by the obvious procedure of pointing to the referent object, but not for an abstract word because pointing to the referent is not possible. However, "in the case of the quality word, meaning can be effectively presented in contrast

with its opposite by means of an object which best bring out this opposing quality. Eg. short, a long pencil can be placed beside a short pencil. Abstract words indicating relationships such as on, in, under, can be demonstrated through objects which are placed in positions illustrating this type of relationship."⁵⁹ Mackey recommends that the following should be observed in order to avoid ambiguity and misunderstanding of what is being explained in ostensive procedures:

1. "The action should be completely isolated from other actions, significant or non-significant,
2. The timing of the action should reflect the tense of any verb involved.
3. The gestures should be clear and conventional."⁶⁰

iii. PICTORIAL PROCEDURES.

This means using illustrations. One of these is picture. Pictures according to Michel, can serve one of several functions. It can be thematic, illustrating a theme contained, for example, in a text: mnemonic, designed to remind the learner of certain words or sentences already learned. Robert Lado,⁶¹ suggests that visual aids such as illustrations of series, scales, and system (days of the week, numbers, month) are good and effective in teaching words in lists. "Pictorial procedures may be considered in terms of the media employed: textbook illustrations, films (slides, filmstrips, motion-pictures, video tape): wall pictures, and picture cards. Pictures can be useful and stimuli for oral compositions and for question-answer drills, especially if their sequence and rate of presentation can be easily controlled."⁶²

iv. CONTEXTUAL PROCEDURES.

This procedure means that new vocabulary items are put into contexts where already familiar words give students meaning. It is clear that the teacher can move to this procedure only when the student has acquired a certain amount of vocabulary. In other words, it is not suitable for absolute beginners. "Context helps us to guess the meaning of words. In fact, that is what we do when we learn our native

language. A child learns many of his words by drawing tentative conclusions from a variety of contexts; multiplication of context helps to make meaning clear."⁶³ Burns and Schell say that contextual signals are aids to determining the possible meaning of an unfamiliar word. "Contextual signals work partly because of (1) the reader's reasoning ability, (2) the reader's store of possible word meanings and (3) the extent of the reader's knowledge about the topic."⁶⁴ According to Deighton,⁶⁵ context may reveal the possible meaning of words through:

1. Definition. Sentences containing forms of the verb to be alone or in a verb phrase with the word called, often give the reader an explicit definition of an unfamiliar word.
2. Example. Sentences provide clues to possible meaning when they contain expressions such as: for example, such, such as, like, especially, other, this, and these. If the reader has a knowledge of the item used as an example, it may be possible for a meaning of the unfamiliar word to be inferred.
3. Modifiers. Sentences often contain unfamiliar words that can be understood because of a modifier used with that word. Modifiers can be single words, phrases, or entire clauses.
4. Restatement. Sentences containing appositives, the punctuation marks of parenthesis and dashes, and the words 'in other words', 'that is' or provide numerous signals to unfamiliar words.
5. Inference through established connectives.

Other contextual procedures mentioned by Mackey besides the above procedures of multiple context include definition, enumeration, substitution, metaphor, and opposition.

Definition: does not mean quoting a dictionary; this procedure involves defining new words in term of words already known.

Enumeration: enables one to teach a meaning by listing what it includes.

Substitution: can be used to teach new words eg. pronouns or synonyms, or to clarify meanings by in-

dicating which words can replace others.

Metaphor: can be used; depends on the student's ability to see the analogy between two things that have a common feature eg. the human foot and the fool of a mountain.

Opposition: is the use of antonyms to teach new words; if a student knows one word, the indication that a new word is its opposite will communicate the meaning.

Finally, "the meaning of a complex or compound word can be taught by dividing the word into its better-known parts and working with these parts."⁶⁶

d. DISTRIBUTION.

According to Michel and Patin,⁶⁷ this third element is a somewhat more difficult task than teaching either the form or the meaning. This is because a highly proficient speaker will handle it properly since it involves knowledge of all the syntactic and semantic restrictions on a word. So they call this element (distribution) "feature of a word." For example, a near-fluent speaker of English would know the syntactic restrictions on the words say and tell. He would realise that while these two words seem equivalent in meaning, they do not have the same syntactic privileges of occurrence. Their respective distributions are different. Thus 'I told him to go' is grammatical, while 'I said him to go' is not.

The problem of cognates is related to the question of distribution. "They are deceptively simple in appearance, but are actually quite difficult to learn because their range of meaning and distribution is not always identical in two languages. For this reason, the distribution and the use of a word (discussed below) will be learned better through varied examples in the language rather than through many specific techniques."⁶⁸ One such exercise suggested by Lado is the presentation of numerous sentences "that illustrate the range and variation of usage."⁶⁹

When a student has mastered the meaning of a word, he then forms a concept of a word. 'Concept', ac-

According to Belyayer, a Russian psychologist of language learning is to 'meaning' as 'universal' is to 'particular'. He added "it is impossible to acquire or master a word unless that word is associated with the concept expressed by it. The meaning of a word on its quite insufficient, if only because a word usually has several meanings and one can retain them all in the memory only if they are united in sense and embraced by a general concept."⁷⁰ According to Williamson,⁷¹ to develop vocabulary, we should be concerned with the teaching and learning of a variety of conceptual relationships. The pupil must be able to recognise: (1) members of the concept, (2) what is not a member of the concept, (3), unique characteristics that place members within a concept, (4) the range of sizes of members within a concept, (5) an act or activity peculiar to members of the concept, (6) the effect one concept has upon another, (7) the cause and effect relationship between two or more concepts, and (8) what members of a concept depend upon for continued existence.

d. USE.

The fourth constituting knowledge is the use of a word. Word usage is also important because it is "a skill which is mastered more by unstructured conversation than by any specific techniques. There are artificial frameworks which provide the student a somewhat unstructured situation in which to use a word in a variety of contexts."⁷² "Since in everyday life one has to use language not in any systematic order, but in answer to needs that arise, it would seem that the teaching method should fix an item not in a certain position but should allow for its use in many different conditions in order to provide for flexibility and independence of language habits from specific contextual stimuli."⁷³

Robert Lado suggests several techniques for encouraging a use of words to the point that this use becomes trend and habitual to the learner. "The realia, pictures, and dramatizations which were originally used to teach meaning can now be used as stimuli to elicit a learned word or its opposite in free-recall,

in oral-written compositions, and in question-answer situations. A somewhat related technique, called 'shift of attention' by Lado, has the teacher provide a context, by description or through reading, which will elicit the use of particular words learned in a similar context. All the while the student's attention is on some non-vocabulary problem, so his recall of the words occurs unconsciously."⁷⁴

Nelson Brooks⁷⁵ suggests another approach in the form of three vocabulary drills.

1. the student hears in the target language a series of definitions and repeats each one aloud, twice. Then, he hears a series of questions, the appropriate answer to each one being a definition he has just repeated. After giving the answer, he hears the original definition to reinforce or correct what he has said.
2. he hears a word or expression, then hears its equivalent used in a complete utterance in the target language. He then hears and repeats the target sentence several times for reinforcement.
3. the student hears a sentence in the target language, then is given an expression in the same language that is to replace or paraphrase a part of the sentence. He gives the sentence with this replacement, then hears it redone for reinforcement.

5. CONCLUSION.

These are the principles in teaching and learning vocabulary. In this topic, I have discussed three major things in teaching and learning vocabulary: the general principles, grading and presenting vocabulary. If the first section is general and covers all aspects of teaching and learning vocabulary process, the second and third focus more on content itself. It sometimes goes deeper and is too technical in discussing this element. Since the criteria for vocabulary selection are important, I have taken forward two points of view in selecting vocabulary: frequency and familiarity. All these points of view are exposed

to be analysed. Therefore, we might benefit from them in the next chapter when we discuss the selection of vocabulary in teaching Arabic vocabulary. It would be also remembered here that most examples in this chapter are taken from English language. This happens because most of the references are taken from English books. There is no harm since these principles are those which are implemented in other languages. However, there are some examples valid for certain language only. Therefore I have tried not to put this kind of example in this chapter.

Lastly, it would be necessary also to be said here that these principles become an important guide to chapter four to present methods and techniques for teaching Arabic vocabulary to beginners in the proper arrangement.

END NOTES.

1. Wallace, M., (1982), Teaching Vocabulary, Heinemann Educational Books, Oxford, p., 27.
2. Ibid.
3. See no. 6.
4. Ibid. p., 28.
5. Ibid.
6. Michel,J. and P. Patin, Some Techniques For Teaching Vocabulary, ERIC reports on the teaching of foreign languages, no. 27, American Council on the teaching of foreign languages, New York, pp.,1__11.
7. Mackey, W., (1964), Language Teaching Anaylisis, Indiana University Press, Bloomington, p. 176.
8. Gairns, R. and S. Redman, (1986), Working With Words: A Guide To Teaching and Learning Vocabulary, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, p. 59.
9. Ibid.
10. Wallace, M. op.cit. p., 28.
11. Ibid.
12. Gairns, R. and S. Redman, op.cit., p. 60.
13. Wallace, M., op.cit., p. 29.
14. Locke, J., (1970), The Value of Repetition in Articulation Learning, IRAL, Volume viii, (1970), pp. 147__53.
15. Rock,I., (1975), The Role of Repetition in Associative Learning, American Journal of Psychology, 1975, 70, pp. 186__93.
16. Locke, J., op.cit., p. 150.
17. Ibid., p. 152.
18. Wallace, M., op.cit., p. 19.
19. Ibid., p. 18.
20. Ibid., p.10.
21. Hittleman, D., (1978), Developmental Reading: A Psycholinguistic Perspective, Rand Mc.Nally College Publishing Company, Chicago, p. 279.

22. Gairns, R. and S. Redman, op.cit., p.37.
23. Ibid.
24. Ibid.
25. Wallace, M., op.cit., p. 20.
26. Ibid., p. 23.
27. Gairns, R. and S. Redman, op.cit., p. 58.
28. Richards, J.C., A Psycholinguistic Measure of Vocabulary Selection, IRAL., Volume VIII (1970), pp. 87__96.
29. Gairns, R and S. Redman, op.cit., p. 59.
30. Ibid., p. 62.
31. Ibid.
32. Ibid.
33. Ibid., p. 64.
34. Richards, J.C., op.cit., p. 88.
35. Fries, C.C. and A.E. Traver, (1940), English Word List, American Council on Education, Washington, p. 92.
36. Richards, J.C., op.cit., p. 89.
37. Fries, C.C. and E. Traver, op.cit., p. 82.
38. Ibid.
39. Bousfield, W.A., (1961), The Connecticut Free Associational Norms, (Technical Report N. 35), University of Connecticut, Storrs.
40. Bousfield, W.A., (1957), Cultural Norms for Verbal Items in 43 categories (Technical Report N. 22), University of Connecticut, Storrs.
41. Richards, J.C., op.cit., p. 90.
42. Miche'a, R., (1964), "Basic Vocabularies": New Reaearch and Techniques for the Benefit of Modern Language Teaching, Council for Cultural Cooperation, Strasbourg, pp. 19__33.
43. Richards, J.C., op.cit., p. 91.
44. Ibid.

45. Ibid., p. 96.
46. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p. 3.
47. Lado, R., (1964), Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach, McGraw Hill, New York, p. 117.
48. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p. 3.
49. Lado, R., op.cit., p. 118.
50. Ibid.
51. Ibid., p.121.
52. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p.3.
53. Rivers, W., (1964), The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher, University of Chicago, p. 111.
54. The outline for this section is taken from W. Mackey, pp. 239__253.
55. Gairns, R. and S. Redman, op.cit., p.75.
56. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p. 4.
57. Mackey, W., op.cit., p. 240.
58. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p.4.
59. Ibid.
60. Mackey, op.cit., p. 241.
61. Lado, R., op.cit., p. 125.
62. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p. 5.
63. Mackey, W., op.cit., p. 252.
64. Burns, P.C. and Schell, L. M., (1975), "Instructional Strategies for Teaching Usage of Context Clues." Reading World 15: 89__96. Since this book is not available to me, my knowledge of this idea is taken from Hittleman's book. op.cit. op.cit., p. 287.
65. Deighton, C., (1959), Vocabulary Development in the Classroom, Bereau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Since this book is not available to me, my knowledge of this idea is taken from Hittleman's book, (ibid).
66. Lado, R., p. 125__26.
67. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p. 5.

68. Ibid.
69. Lado, R. op.cit., p. 126.
70. Belyayev, V., (1963), The Psychology of Teaching Foreign Language, trans. R.F. Higley (Pergamon, Oxford, England), p. 146.
71. Williamson, L., (1974), "Teach Concept. Not Words." Paper read at the Annual meeting of the Western College Reading Association, Oakland, California, ERIC No. ED 092 925. The idea is taken from Hittleman's book, p. 279.
72. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p. 6.
73. Valdman, A., (1966), Trends in Language Teaching, McGraw Hill, New York, p. 113.
74. Michel, J. and P. Patin, op.cit., p. 6.
75. Brooks, N., (1964), Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice, 2nd ed. Harcourt, New York, pp. 259__60.

CHAPTER FOUR.

TEACHING ARABIC VOCABULARY FOR BEGINNERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL.

4.1. INTRODUCTION.

4.2. THE SELECTION OF VOCABULARY.

4.3. TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING ARABIC VOCABULARY FOR BEGINNERS:

1. CONTEXT CLUES

2. SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS

3. ROOTS

4. PRONUNCIATION AND SPELLING

5. VISUAL TECHNIQUES

6. TRANSLATION

7. LEARNING WORDS IN LIST

8. USING A DICTIONARY

9. TESTING AS TEACHING

10. STUDENT-CENTERED LEARNING

11. USING THE HOLY QUR'AN AND ARABIC LOAN-WORDS IN MALAY

TEACHING ARABIC VOCABULARY TO BEGINNERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

4.1. INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that learning vocabulary is very important in any language learning. However, some linguists say that by learning language we can learn vocabulary. This is one of the reasons why learning vocabulary was neglected in the past.

“One reason why vocabulary was neglected in teacher-preparation programs during the period 1940-1970 was that it had been emphasised too much in the language classroom during the years before that time. Indeed, some people had believed it was the only key to language learning.”¹

According to R. Lord ², learning vocabulary is by far the most sizeable and manageable component in the learning of any language. He added that in the applied linguistic literature, discussion of methods of teaching vocabulary are rare indeed and published foreign language courses have invariably one thing in common: an apparent lack of awareness of the nature or function of vocabulary, or at any rate a reluctance to face up to it.

Moreover, teaching and learning vocabulary in the past was discouraged by some specialist in teaching methodology. According to Virginia Allen,³ some specialists in methodology seem to believe that the meanings of words could not be adequately taught, so it was better not to try to teach vocabulary. They feared students would make mistakes in sentence construction if too many words were learned before the basic grammar had been mastered. Consequently, teachers were led to believe it was best not to teach much vocabulary.

If we look at teaching Arabic vocabulary in secondary school in Malaysia, we find that the syllabus, especially in Arabic schools, puts an emphasis on teaching grammar. Some students have become masters in grammar when they graduate from secondary school but they cannot acquire a lot of vocabulary. Most of them just passively pile up a confusing word-list. This phenomenon can be seen in every examination conducted by the Examination Board in the Ministry of Education or by the Department of Islamic Affairs in the state. There is a noticeable difference between the students' achievement in answering the grammar questions and in answering the essay and comprehension questions which require vocabulary. From the students' point of view, learning Arabic grammar

means learning Arabic. For this reason, when the Islamic Academy in the University of Malaya changed the way of teaching Arabic into a new method which is a combination of learning grammar and learning reading, writing and speaking, the coordinator was asked by some senior lecturers about this new method.⁴ In other words, they accused him of trying to lower the standard of Arabic in that academy. More than that, when students come to Arabic classes, they always ask about 'when' they will learn Arabic grammar. This means they prefer to learn grammar separately rather than learning it together with other topics i.e. reading, writing etc. However very few of them ask about learning vocabulary.⁵

There is no doubt that learning grammar itself is very important in order to understand the language and to use it correctly. "Students who do not learn grammar along with vocabulary will not be able to use the language for communication. Even material in which all the words look familiar may be impossible to understand if the grammatical constructions have not been learned."⁶ This chapter does not intend to focus on learning vocabulary only and neglect learning grammar. It is intended to find out the methodology and the techniques of learning Arabic vocabulary and attempting to identify vocabulary teaching as a key topic of paramount importance to other skills in foreign or second language learning.

The reasons behind this attempt are very clear. First, to get a balance between teaching grammar and teaching vocabulary in teaching Arabic as a foreign language (TAFL) or as a second language (TASL). Second, to give teaching Arabic vocabulary "a separate identity at the heart of Arabic language teaching and learning and not only to be subsumed within the skills of reading and writing."⁷ It is clear among teachers today that they do not believe teaching vocabulary should be delayed until the grammar is mastered. According to V. Allen, "in the best classes, neither grammar nor vocabulary is neglected. There is thus no conflict between developing a firm command of grammar and learning the most essential words."⁸

Another reason for this attempt is that from our previous experience in teaching Arabic as a second or as a foreign language, we find that not all teachers ignored teaching vocabulary in teaching Arabic. They did teach Arabic vocabulary and in some classes, teachers have devoted much time to vocabulary teaching. However, the results as we can see from the students' achievement, as mentioned

above, have been disappointing. Most of the time, after years of learning Arabic, many of the words most needed have never been learned. This shows us the lack of techniques and the lack of effective ways of teaching vocabulary. Therefore this chapter attempts to tackle this problem. However, because the topic covers teaching Arabic vocabulary to beginners, the enquiry will not go beyond this limit.

4.2. THE SELECTION OF VOCABULARY.

Before going further into this topic, there are some important things to be mentioned:

1. The purposes of learning Arabic in secondary school as we can see in chapter two are for religious (understanding Islam) and general purposes i.e. non academic purposes such as conversation, writing, reading and speaking. Therefore all methods and techniques which are suggested in teaching vocabulary are based on these purposes.

2. To discuss the ways of teaching vocabulary, these questions are very helpful:

- a. Which words do students need most to learn?
- b. How can we make those words seem important to students?
- c. Why are some Arabic words harder than others to learn?
- d. Why do the present ways of teaching Arabic language fail to make students acquire a good stock of vocabulary?
- e. Do we really need vocabulary teaching aids to be used in teaching vocabulary? If we do, which kinds of aids?

In teaching vocabulary, there is a topic in the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching method which is called "Vocabulary Control." This method has been used in teaching English vocabulary in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) for years "Harold Palmer, Michel West⁹ and other specialists produced a guide to the English vocabulary needed for teaching English as a Foreign Language. They found that a core of 2,000 or so words occurred frequently in written texts and that a knowledge of these words greatly assists in reading a foreign language."¹⁰ According to Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, these efforts to introduce a scientific and rational basis for choosing the vocabulary content of a language course represented the first attempts to establish princi-

ples of syllabus design in language teaching.

If we look at teaching Arabic vocabulary, we find that teachers are required to teach 600 words for beginners of which 400 words are nouns and 200 more are verbs.¹¹ The problem occurs here where there is no list of Arabic words to be used as a guide for teacher in teaching Arabic vocabulary. The list of Arabic vocabulary selection is very important. According to G.B.Jeffery in his foreword to General Service List of English Words book by M.West, “the dominant activity throughout the period among all those concerned with systematic teaching has been vocabulary selection.”¹² Since there is no list of Arabic words, we have to find out other sources for the purpose of teaching vocabulary. We can use, for example, the syllabus for teaching Arabic itself as a source because this syllabus uses the Holy Qur’ān, Ḥadīth and religious books as its basis. As for general vocabulary, we can use what is around students themselves such as the classroom, school, house etc. Hence we can divide teaching Arabic vocabulary for beginners into two parts:

One: Teaching academic vocabulary.

Two: Teaching general vocabulary.

One: Teaching Academic vocabulary.

To be precise, “academic” here refers to religion or something related to religion. This is very clear because students are not taught Arabic to understand other subjects like geography, history, sciences and Arts in Arabic. They do learn Arabic to understand Islam in general and to understand the Holy Qur’ān, the Ḥadīth and most of the religious books like Fiqh, Tauḥīd, and Tafsīr, works which are the most important sources for Muslims written in Arabic. If we go through the syllabus from the Arabic school, we find that there are some verses from al-Qur’ān which are taught to the beginners in secondary school. There are some selected Ḥadīths to be taught to beginners as well and these become of a great assistance in teaching academic vocabulary because students do not learn something absolutely new when we teach them.

In addition, there is one more very important source in teaching vocabulary for beginners which is Arabic Loan-words in Malay language. According to Mohamed A.J. Beg,¹³ there are more than 300 Arabic words used for religious purposes and this represents large proportion in comparison to other

Arabic Loan-words in Malay for other purposes. Therefore this becomes a main source to teach Arabic vocabulary because though some of these words are complicated like the words آيات plural of آية and ارواح plural of روح and the beginner students do not know the plural in Arabic yet, students can understand this word easily because these words are familiar to them in their daily life.

To conclude, we can say there are three main sources for teaching academic vocabulary to beginners in secondary school. These sources are:

1. The Holy Qur'ān and the Ḥadīth
2. Religious and reference books
3. Arabic Loan-words in Malay.

Two: Teaching General Vocabulary.

I am intending to use the word 'general' here because I am going to develop the idea of teaching vocabulary for beginners. Since the topic is restricted to the beginners, the approach is always very basic. According to Virginia F. Allen, "in books that are intended for the first stage of English, the vocabulary lessons usually contain words for persons and things in the classroom, words like boy, girl, book, pencil, window, door..."¹⁴

From my point of view, we really need to teach students general vocabulary when they are beginning to learn Arabic and this kind of vocabulary becomes less important when they reach the advanced level. In other words, we give extra attention to teaching general Arabic vocabulary when students are in the basic level and then the focus will be on academic vocabulary when they are in more advanced levels.

Why do we need to give full attention to teaching general vocabulary to the beginners when, on the whole, the purpose of learning Arabic is for religious purposes? The answer is clear that it is to attract the student's attention towards this language. When students learn any language, they at least want to use this language in their daily life; in the classroom, in the cafeteria, in the play ground, in the house, in the shop etc. They also want to know the words for things in front of them (eg. book, pencil, blackboard, table, shoes and many other things) in Arabic. They are very proud if they can say a word in Arabic, even a single word, not even a complete sentence. They can show their friends, their parents

and their brothers that they know such a thing in Arabic. There is no other alternative to achieve this purpose but to teach students general Arabic words. At the same time, we should bear in mind that students in this stage are in the early beginnings. We need to make them feel that they have learned something in Arabic when they want to communicate using this language. We should remember that in secondary boarding school, this language is competing with other two languages; French and Japanese.¹⁵ Students might choose these two languages instead of Arabic if they find this language cannot enable them to use it in their daily life.

Another reason for teaching general Arabic vocabulary to beginners is that any vocabulary teaching in any language today, begins with teaching general vocabulary which can be found or heard every day. This is probably based on many factors. One of them is that these general words (eg. book, clothes, etc.) are concrete words which can be seen easily every day and hence it is easier to teach the beginners because they need something easy to start with.

Words To Be Selected.

There are many words which are to be selected in teaching general Arabic vocabulary. However because the purpose is for beginners and we should consider many things as M. Wallace said:

“Usually, in elementary classes we try to teach words which have a clear, concrete denotation: something that can be seen or touched. So we often present nouns like desk, blackboard, chair, table, teacher, student; verbs like sit, stand, walk, write, read; adjectives like big, small, round, square, red, green, and so on.”¹⁶

Below are the lists of topics which might be useful for teaching general Arabic vocabulary for beginners:

1. Human body and Family.
2. Buildings like house, school, offices, mosque, hospital, and library.
3. Clothes.
4. Shops and markets.
5. Time
6. Job.
7. Daily activities.

8. The weather.
9. Vehicles.
10. Sports.
11. Animals.

This list is an example of selecting nouns. It is really important to remember that only **familiar** and **frequent** words are needed to be taught to students. For example, when we teach them about fruit, we don't need to teach pear, peach, avocado etc. which could not be found in Malaysia but we could teach them dates although this fruit is not grown in Malaysia, it is very familiar among Malaysians especially in the fasting month. The same is applied to apples and grapes. Although they are not grown in Malaysia, they are very familiar to Malaysians. Some of them eat them every day. When we teach them about sport, we talk about football, badminton and table tennis, for example. We don't need to teach them about golf and its equipment, cricket and bowling because these sports are not familiar to Malaysians.

To be more successful, teachers sometimes need to ask students to tell teachers words they think are important enough to learn. Morgan, J and Rinvoluceri, M. ¹⁷ mentioned in their book that Secker and Warbury (1963) in their book 'Teacher' stated that one of the English Language teachers, Sylvia Ashtonwarner described how she taught Maori six-year-olds to read by asking them to tell her words they thought were important enough to learn. If this method, to some extent, was successful, that means we can apply it in teaching our students and they are a better subject than Maori students because when they start learning Arabic, they are thirteen- year-olds. They have acquired a lot of core vocabulary in their native language. What they need now is to transfer these words into Arabic.

As for verbs, the verbs which are chosen to be taught must be familiar, frequent and easy words. The list below can be used as a guide.

1. Intransitive verb (فعل لازم) means no second party or object (patient) is needed like: sit (جلس), stand (وقف), lie down (ضجع), run (جرى), walk (مشى).
2. Transitive verb (فعل متعد) when the verb passes to a object or needs a second party like: shaking (تصافح), talk (تكلم), take (اخذ), open (فتح) and so on.

In dealing with these verbs, we should try as far as we can to avoid using complicated verbs like weak

verb(فعل معتل) ect. However, if we are obliged to teach this kind of verb because it is very familiar we should do so but in restricted conditions.

4. 3. TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING ARABIC VOCABULARY FOR BEGINNERS

In this topic, the discussion will cover both teaching academic vocabulary and teaching general vocabulary. However, in some techniques which are more relevant to one of them, the examples will be focused on it.

To teach beginners, it is necessary to begin with basic vocabulary either for general Arabic vocabulary or academic vocabulary. To know what is basic vocabulary, we need to investigate how a child learns his first three or four thousand words. According to Dale and others,¹⁸ three quarters of children had a vocabulary of fifteen hundred words by January and February of their first year of school. They noticed that most of these words: (a) can be sensed. (b) are necessary to speak almost any sentence. (c) are in the everyday vocabulary of most people. (d) are ones which have been experienced and internalized and will never be forgotten.

By looking at these factors, we might say that we can teach students the basic Arabic vocabulary which have the above criteria even though we teach them academic vocabulary. For example, the words: صلاة (prayer), يصلي (pray), سلام (regard), يسلم (give a greeting), are necessary to speak almost any sentence and are in the everyday vocabulary of Muslims. They also can be sensed because we can see Muslims pray five times a day and for salam we can see and hear Muslims greet each other when they meet by using this word in (peace be upon you) السلام عليكم After this short introduction, we will discuss below the techniques of teaching Arabic vocabulary to beginners.

1. CONTEXT CLUES

Dale and others said in their book: "By using context clues, the reader can often figure out the meaning of an unfamiliar word without looking it up in a dictionary."¹⁹ According to them,²⁰ there are four kinds of definitions in teaching vocabulary with context clues method.

a. Formal Definition: This is a very formal definition where the meaning of the word is expressed in a direct statement. We can find this kind of definition in every kind of learning: in learning language,

Arts or science. For example, the word **كلمة** is defined as **مجموعة من الحروف والاصوات تؤدي الى المعنى** (a group of sounds and consonants which have meaning). So we can teach beginner students by defining the word: **صلاة** (prayer) or **مكتب** (table). However, we cannot use this kind of definition easily because many words in the definition are sometimes new words to the students. If this happens, we are not only unable to introduce them to the new words, but two difficulties arise; in understanding the meaning of the word given and in understanding the meaning of the definition itself. This was happening in many lessons in Arabic school. Students in Remove class or in Form One are required by teachers to memorise many definitions. For example, in learning language they are required to memorise the words **الفعل الماضي, الحروف, الفعل الاسم, الكلمة**, and many more phrases. In learning religious subjects, they are required to memorise the definitions of **الحج, الزكاة, الصوم, الصلاة, التوحيد, الشهادة, الربا**, etc. , while the students in this stage have just started to learn Arabic and do not acquire more than 50 Arabic words. What happens is one of two things: firstly, students memorise the definition without understanding the meaning of the words in the definition. When they forget one of these words, they cannot recall the missing word because they lack complete understanding of it. Secondly, they memorise them in Malay language after the teacher has translated the meaning of every word in the definition, and then, when they are required to give the definition, they do it in Arabic words but with Malay structure. What I would like to suggest here is to use the basic definition. To do this, we need to provide what one educationist calls “The Basic Dictionary Definition.”²¹ In addition, we need illustration, diagrams, pictures and examples sentences or phrases in order to determine the meaning of the word defined. If we go back to the word **الصلوة**, and we want to define it, we can define it as follow: **عبادة تبدأ بالتكبير وتنتهي بالسلام**. This is a very basic definition because students are familiar with the words **عبادة, التكبير, والتسليم**. We need only explain **تبدأ** and **تنتهي**. By using a picture, students can understand more about the definition of **الصلوة**. Then we give one or two examples in sentences to make it clear like

محمد يصلي الظهر في بيته ، إبراهيم يصلي الجمعة في المسجد .

b. Definition by Example.

“A definition by example can further clarify the formal definition.”²² To teach beginner students, it is

better to use a definition by example because it is more attractive and quite informal. For example, to teach the word **الكلمة** (word), we can say, **تا ليست كلمة ولكن كتاب كلمة** (Ta is not a word but kitāb is). To teach the word **مدرسة**, we can say, **في المدرسة، مدرسون وتلاميذ وفصول** (in school, you can find teacher, classes and student). However, it is very clear that this kind of definition is particularly suitable for concrete Arabic vocabulary.

c. Definition by Description

It is sometimes possible to define a word by describing the physical qualities or characteristics of the object for which the word stands. When we teach beginner students, we always talk to them, drill them with examples and ask questions to make them talk. By using this method, we can do these activities because in defining a word by description, it always answers the questions who, what, when, where, why, etc. For example, to teach the word **موز** (banana), we say, **الموز شكله طويل ولونه أصفر وطعمه لذيذ** (A banana is a long, yellow sweet fruit). This description is the answer to 'what'. To explain about the location of Malaysia, we say, **ماليزيا تقع في جنوب تايلاند وشرق إندونيسيا وشمال سنغافورة** (Malaysia is located to the south of Thailand, east of Indonesia and north of Singapore). Here the students can understand the meaning of **شمال** (north), **جنوب** (south), and **شرق** (east) because they are familiar with the location of Malaysia.

Teachers, however, should be aware of complicated descriptions or too general descriptions which lead students to misunderstand the actual meaning of the word. "The principal fault with the descriptive context-clue method is that it often does not distinguish a word from others in the same class."²³

In the sentences above, notice that Malaysia is the only country in the region that fits the description. Similarly, the description of a banana fits only it. But if we say, **هي تقع في شرق إندونيسيا** (it is located to the east of Indonesia), this description will fit Malaysia but it could also be Singapore or Thailand or the Phillipines because they are located to the east of Indonesia as well.

From here, we can conclude that to give a more exact definition by description, the teachers would have to add more details but without making the students confused.

d. Defining by Comparison and Contrast.

This method gives a student an opportunity to stretch the meanings of words and to be creative in his learning. Defining by contrast may help the student by telling him what a word is not. On the whole it

is a helpful device but it does not give the student an exact meaning of the word being defined. For example: A whale is not a fish.²⁴ Although this clue tells us not to classify whales with tuna, shark, and swordfish, it does not tell us what a whale is, how long it is, what it looks like.

In teaching Arabic vocabulary, this approach is not recommended for the very early beginners for two reasons. Firstly, students have not acquired a lot of vocabulary yet, so how can they become creative to find out the meaning of the target word. Secondly, teaching opposite or contrasting meanings to freshly beginning students might confuse them in using the words. It might be helpful to teach them after three months of learning Arabic by introducing the word **بارد** (cool), **صغير** (small) and other words which are familiar to them.

2. SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS (المترادفات والمتضادات)

Synonym and antonym are words formed from the Greek root onym meaning 'name'.²⁵ Synonym, from syn (together) + onym (name) means a word grouped with other words in the same classification according to general meaning: repeat, iterate; below, under. In Arabic **المترادفات** means words that have same meaning:

(a). Synonyms in Vocabulary Development.

“Studying synonyms is an excellent time-saving approach to vocabulary study. Comparing synonyms helps the student see the relationship between words of similar meaning. It also helps the student generalize and classify words and concepts. Synonyms are substitute words. They allow us to express the same idea in a variety of ways, although the overall context, the setting, the mood, the tone of the speaker may dictate the choice of the synonym to be used.”²⁶

Although a synonym for a word may not have the exact meaning of the defined word, as Arabs always say that every word in Arabic has its own meaning and value, it is often one of the best and shortest defining devices. In addition, teaching synonyms is one of the best ways to help students acquire vocabulary and diversify the usage of words and extend their vocabulary and their reading skills by noticing the similarities of words. By acquiring the words:

(بيت ، سكن ، منزل ، دار)

students can say (بيت أبي كبير ، هذا منزلي ، ذهبت إلى دار أسرتي) .

It must be remembered that a synonym, to be useful, must be closer to common usage than the original word is. For example, هرة هي قطة, أقبل علي أي جاء علي. The word جاء is closer to common usage than the word أقبل. Similarly, the word قطة is closer to common usage than the word هرة.

(b). Antonym (المتضادات)

“Contrasted with the synonym is the antonym(anti or ant against) a word that means the opposite of another word.”²⁷ For example, weak ضعيف , strong (قوي), near (قريب), far (بعيد). Like the study of synonyms, the study of antonyms can help students learn words through the process of classification.

Antonyms in Vocabulary Development.

This is another effective way to help students' vocabulary skills. Although the term antonym might not be used in the very early level, it can be introduced with easy words such as بارد, حار; تحت, فوق; كبير, صغير. They can range from easy words to harder ones when students have mastered the concept of opposites.

“Just as no two synonyms are exactly similar in meaning, few antonyms are the exact opposites of other words. But just as we can conveniently group synonyms according to their general meaning we can also classify certain terms as being opposite or nearly opposite in meaning.”²⁸ Moreover, helping students learn the concept of opposite helps them extend the concept of negativism in language, the concept first met in the use of conjunction such as لكن (but), مع ذلك (however), بالعكس (on the contrary). Classifying antonyms, therefore helps the student to think in terms of contrasting or contradictory concepts and statements.

When we teach the opposite words to students, teachers are suggested to use it often to show the extreme of object or ideas. “In learning a new word the student should, whenever possible, learn the opposite of the word. Thus female would be taught with male, wife with husband, feminine with masculine, lady with gentleman...etc.”²⁹ For example (for Arabic antonyms): كبير, أول وآخر, بداية ونهاية. مذكر ومؤنث, رجل وامرأة, وصغير. This means any word which is learned by the student should be taught together with its opposite unless there is no opposite for it.

However, some educationists prefer delaying the introduction of antonyms to the beginners in order to avoid confusion. "To avoid confusion, it is wise not to teach words with opposite meanings like 'slowly' and 'quickly', at the same time. There is a special advantage to be gained by delaying the introduction of 'quickly' until the students have mastered 'slowly'. The advantage is that the students then feel a real need to learn the word 'quickly'. They have wanted such a word, and now the word is provided. This is the ideal condition for vocabulary learning." 30

What we can conclude here is both say that learning antonyms is very important for students. However, they did not agree as to 'when' this antonym should be introduced; at the same time as its opposite word or after that i.e. when the student needs it. The best thing is that the teacher should bear in mind which antonym should be taught together with its opposite and which ones should not. The words like سريع, صغير, بعيد, امرأة, زوج, and many others from my point of view, should be taught together with their opposites because this will help students in speaking or expressing their idea. But for the word like ثور, the opposite of بقرة, he might delay in introducing this word because it does not help student to build a sentence. Also if he feels that by introducing certain antonyms students will confuse them and always mix them up, he should not do that. For example, if the teacher starts to teach these words شمال, جنوب شرق, جنوب غرب, شرق, غرب, جنوب, شمال, at the same time, students will get confused even though he draws a diagram to make it clear, because students have to memorise similar words at the same time. However, if he must teach them these words for certain reasons, for example, he might go to a certain point and thereby protect students from getting confused in acquiring it. He can recite some verses from the Holy Qur'an, for example. In surah al-Kahfi (the cave), verse 86 Allah says,

((حتى إذا بلغ مغرب الشمس وجدها تغرب في عين حمئة))

(Until when he reached The setting of the sun, He found it set in a spring of murky water). The sun sets in the west. So the word مغرب means the west. In Verse 90, in the same surah, Allah says,

« حتى إذا بلغ مطلع الشمس وجدها تطلع على قوم »

(Until when He came to the rising of the sun, He found it rising on a people) The sun rises from the east. The word east in Arabic is مشرق or شرق. So the teacher can teach his students by saying, الشمس تطلع في المشرق وتغرب في المغرب The other approach is by using key words. To teach

the words **المغرب** and **المشرق** the teacher can simply tell students that one of the prayers performed by Muslims is called **صلاة المغرب**. Why? because at this this time the sun will set. Where does it set? In the west. So the meaning of **مغرب** is west. Another prayer is called **صلاة الشروق**. Why? Because at this time the sun will rise. Where does it rise? In the east. So **الشروق** means east.

Summary

“Synonyms and antonyms are therefore concise devices for presenting comparative and contrastive clues, for helping the reader note nuances (slight shades of defference in meaning) and for comparing and classifying concepts. They give a quick means of seeing similarities and differences.”³¹

It is useful to teach the concepts: synonym and antonym together, stressing the similar structure and the common root (onym) of these two words. The study of synonyms involves noting shades of differences in meanings.”³²

Synonym can be used to define. For example: the word **مدرس** means **معلم** and the word **تلميذ** means **طالب**. So we don't need to give formal definition to these two words.

Antonyms can be used to teach the concept of opposition in language. The student can learn that there is an implied relationship in apparently opposite ideas. We, for example, understand **ظلمة** (dark) because we know **نور** (light). By reciting this verse from Holy Qur'an, we can make distinction between these two contrasting things. Allah says in surah al-Baqarah verse 257,

« يخرجهم من الظلمات الى النور » (from the depths of darkness He will lead them forth into light).

Antonyms can also be used to help students to use the noun of place and time and conjunction properly like **أمام** (in front of), **خلف** (behind), **فوق** (above), **تحت** (under), **قبل** (before), **بعد** (after), etc.

3. ROOTS « جزور الكلمة »

The teacher must use a third approach in teaching Arabic vocabulary with students. To be a good reader, writer, speaker or listener, students must be encouraged to know and like words. To be successful with words, students have to be curious about words and the roots of words.

When the teacher teaches vocabulary to the students, he should know how closely his students look at words. When the Arabic words have a root for every word, do the students notice the root of the

word? Do they notice the word كسر in انكسر, for example? Do they notice that the words ، تعامل، يعمل، يعملون، عامل، عمال، معمل، استعمال، مستعمل، عمل، استعمل، تعامل، and many more are from the word عمل (عمل). They must be told that all of these words belong to one root. Many linguists and educationists believe that learning the roots of words is a shortcut to learning hundred of words.

" Mastering the root-meaning of words through systemetic study of word parts is as necessary for the elementary and secondary student as it is for the college student. ³³

Learning the roots of words can help students to find out the meaning of the word itself in the dictionary. Many students even at university level don't know how to find out the meaning of the word. They look in the dictionary under كسر for the word انكسر and they look under م for the word منزل or مدرسة .

By telling them that words in Arabic are formed from three letters, we can teach them the root of the word: انكسر ، منزل ، مدرسة and many others.

By learning the root of the word also, students can avoid making mistakes in giving the meaning of that word.

If we look at the syllabus in the Arabic school, we find that الافعال الثلاثية المجردة (first stem of the verb) are being taught to the beginners.³⁴ What teachers should do is they should teach this skill to make them master the concept of the verb. However, although they are not taught الافعال الثلاثية المجردة, they cannot avoid learning this verb in their reading text or in writing. For example, in lesson five from Text book الجديد في اللغة العربية for Form One student in National Islamic Secondary School, the word يصطف is found. Also other words like ، مسطرة ، مكنسة ، ممسحة are found in the early lessons in this book. So what the teacher should do is to give them enough practice to make them identify the first stem of the word.

4. PRONUNCIATION AND SPELLING.

It was agreed among linguists that Arabic is a language which is spoken as it is written. There is no difference between pronunciation and writing of the word كتب . However, the above feature is only for Arab people or for those who had mastered Arabic pronunciation. They pronounce the word as they write it. As for Malay, there are some difficulties in pronouncing Arabic words. This happens

because some Arabic letters are not found in Malay alphabet. There are no

(ح، ذ، ش، ض، ط، ظ، ع، غ، ق، ة) in Malay alphabet. However, some of these letters have become familiar to the Malay tongue. These letters are ش which is written and pronounced as SH and غ which written and pronounced as GH. While other letters have changed to Malay letters as follows: ح becomes h. So it is same with ه. ذ becomes z, ض becomes d, ط becomes t, ق becomes k and ة becomes t. The pronunciation for Arabic words becomes as follow:

حرام = haram , ذرية = zuriat , ضرورة = darurat, طاعة = taat , علم = ilmu, قرطاس = kertas. When they write these words in Arabic they will write as follows: هرام ، زريت ، درورت ، تااعت ، الم ، (كرتاس). In addition, the mistake happens more regularly when most of these Arabic words become Malay words by what they call Arabic loan word in Malay. The situation was worsened when the Ministry of Education changed Malayan-Arabic Lettering to Romanised characters. These Arabic loan words remained but are written in Romanised characters.

When students start to learn Arabic, these words are not new to them, but they have the wrong concept of spelling of these words.. What they usually do is write or pronounce these words with their own pronunciation.

So the purpose of this technique is to show how pronunciation and spelling are related to vocabulary learning. If a student commonly mispronounces a word, he is likely to misspell it.

We should remember that in the learning process, accurate spelling is considered important. "Actually, nearly all words that children and young people write are correctly spelled, but our standards are high and we object to the misspelling of two or three words on a list of 150. Bad spelling, if nothing else, is annoying to the reader. Moreover, it requires a large amount of a teacher's time to correct misspelled words and then try to reteach them." ³⁵

If we go back to the way Arabic is spelled, we find that there are two major reasons why the students make mistakes when they write or pronounce the Arabic words:

1. it was said above that certain letters look similar to Malaysian.
2. The way of writing in Arabic. Arabic letters are of two types:
 - a. Letters which can be attached before or after them and might have changed the original structure of the letters. These letters are: ض ، غ ص ، ف ، ق ، ك ، ل ، م ، ن ، ب ، ت ، ث ، ج ، ح ، خ ، س ، ش ،

(, ع , ظ , ه , ي .). For example, the word **مكتوب** and **ت** are attached by the other letters before and after them.

b. Letters that can be attached before them only and don't change the original structure of the word. These words are : **ا , و , ز , ر , ذ , د**. For example: the word **يرى** The letter **ر** is attached to **ي** but the structure of **ر** does not change.

Students are always mixing these letters by attaching the letters that can be attached before them only to another letter. (Eg. **كتب** . The **ا** (alif) is attached to **ب** (ba') or they do the opposite by leaving the letter alone. (Eg. they write **شخص** instead of **شخ ص** . .

One of the best ways to help them solve this problem is by giving them a word in isolation like **ك**) **ت ب** and then asking them to write this word correctly. Students not only benefit from spelling lessons but they can improve their vocabulary. For example, if we give them these letters,

(**ك ر س ي**) students will recognise that the second word is **رجل** (a man) and not **رجل** (foot) and the third word is **على** (on) and not **علي** (Ali).

There is no doubt that "spelling ability ranges widely. Possibly there is a sharp difference in innate ability of persons to visualize the arrangement of word parts and letters. However, most students can sharply improve their spelling by:

a. developing a spelling conscience.

b. noticing word structures.

c. being aware that certain words are commonly misspelled and need to be double checked until they are well known.

Since the number of words that are commonly misspelled is relatively small, students who are alerted to their own personal "demons" should show rapid improvement." ³⁶

As for pronunciation, "it is best to create a situation in which students' pronunciation can be corrected in the spirit of constructive criticism:

a. Students should be encouraged to take note of mispronunciations they hear and discuss them in class.

b. Such keywords can be spelled aloud or written on the chalkboard. Members of the class can repeat each one to themselves until the correct pronunciation is firmly implemented.

c. The teacher might also prepare tapes that spell out key words, allow intervals for the student to pronounce each one, then present the accepted pronunciation in each case.

d. The teacher might record voices of the class members so they can listen to themselves talk. This can be done during regular class discussion periods. This experience helps students note and correct their own pronunciation errors, as well as enjoy a new experience." ³⁷

Pronunciation and spelling are important in building vocabulary because they are means by which we send and receive words and exchange ideas. Poor enunciation, mispronunciation and incorrect spelling distract the process of developing vocabulary and cause static in the communication system.

5. VISUAL TECHNIQUES. (الطرق البصرية)

"These include flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, wallcharts and realia (i.e. objects themselves). They are extensively used for conveying meaning and are particularly useful for teaching concrete items of vocabulary such as food, furniture, and certain areas of vocabulary such as places, professions, descriptions of people, actions and activities (such as sports and verbs of movement). They often lend themselves easily to practice activities involving student interaction." ³⁸

This technique can be used as a basis for a guided pair work dialogue. For example, the teacher shows a set of pictures illustrating school activities such as learning, sport and gathering for certain purposes. Based on the visual aids in front of students, the teacher can ask them questions such as:

ماذا يفعل الطالب؟ هو يقرأ الكتاب .

أين؟ في المكتبة .

ماذا يفعل المدرس؟ هو يكتب في السبورة .

ماذا يفعلون؟ هم يجتمعون أمام مبنى المدرسة .

As beginners, the students might be unable to answer these questions. The teacher can help them by using mime and gesture as an aid to the visual techniques. They are often used to supplement other ways of conveying meanings. According to Gairns and Redman, when teaching an item such as to 'swerve' a teacher might build a situation to illustrate it, making use of the blackboard and gesture to reinforce the concept. Visual aids, "are an extremely useful framework for storage of lexis, and they can be used to highlight the relationships between items. They are also a very useful basis for language practice and we have tried to show how communicative practice can be achieved from clines,

diagrams and grids as well as pictures." 39

a. Using Diagrams.

We can use diagrams below as a guide to meaning (see figure one). Students could also be asked to organise their own diagrams of this type. We can use this diagram too to teach academic vocabulary as we can see in figure two. Students not only acquire the target vocabulary, but can memorise these words easily. The teacher can use the diagram in discussion with the students. For example , he might ask them:

متى يحرم الصيام ؟ متى يكره الصيام ؟ هل هناك صيام في الليل ؟

Teachers can use trees too to elaborate the teaching vocabulary. For example, the word المبنى can be developed as follow:

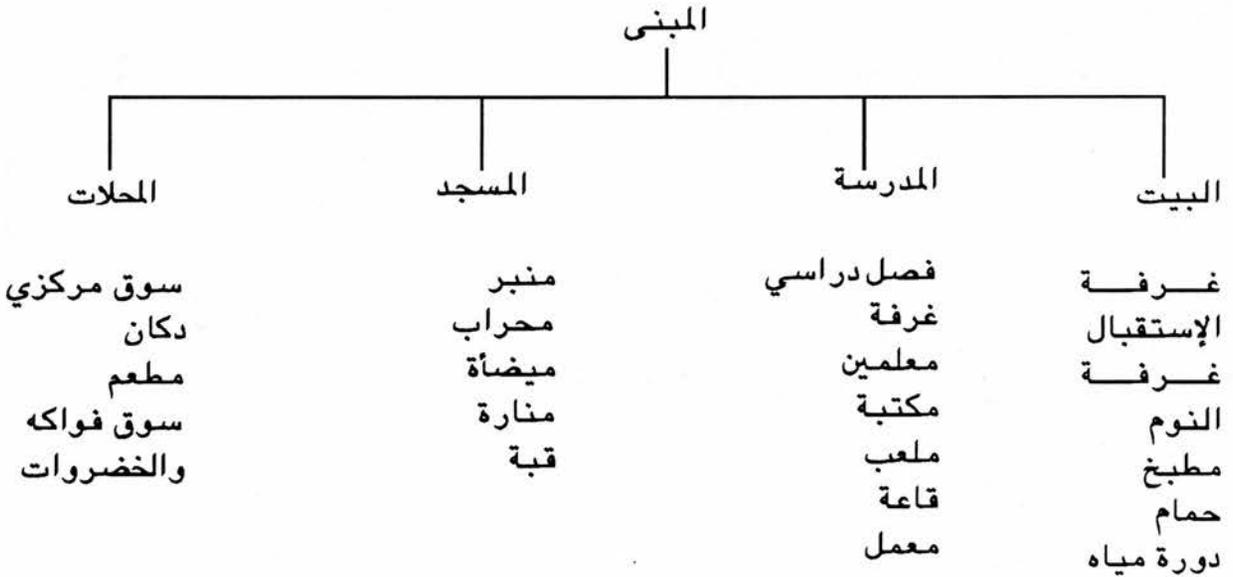


Figure one

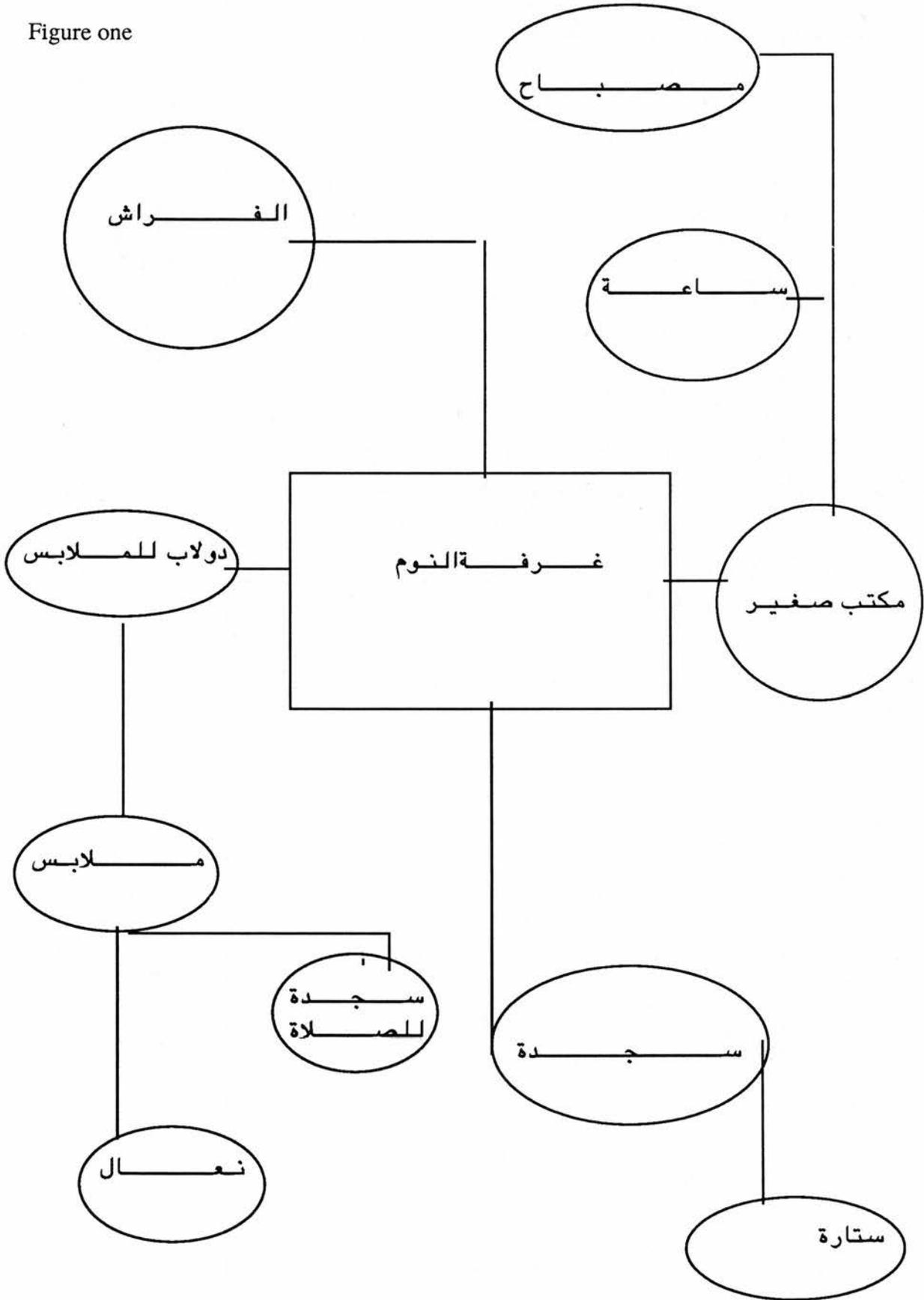
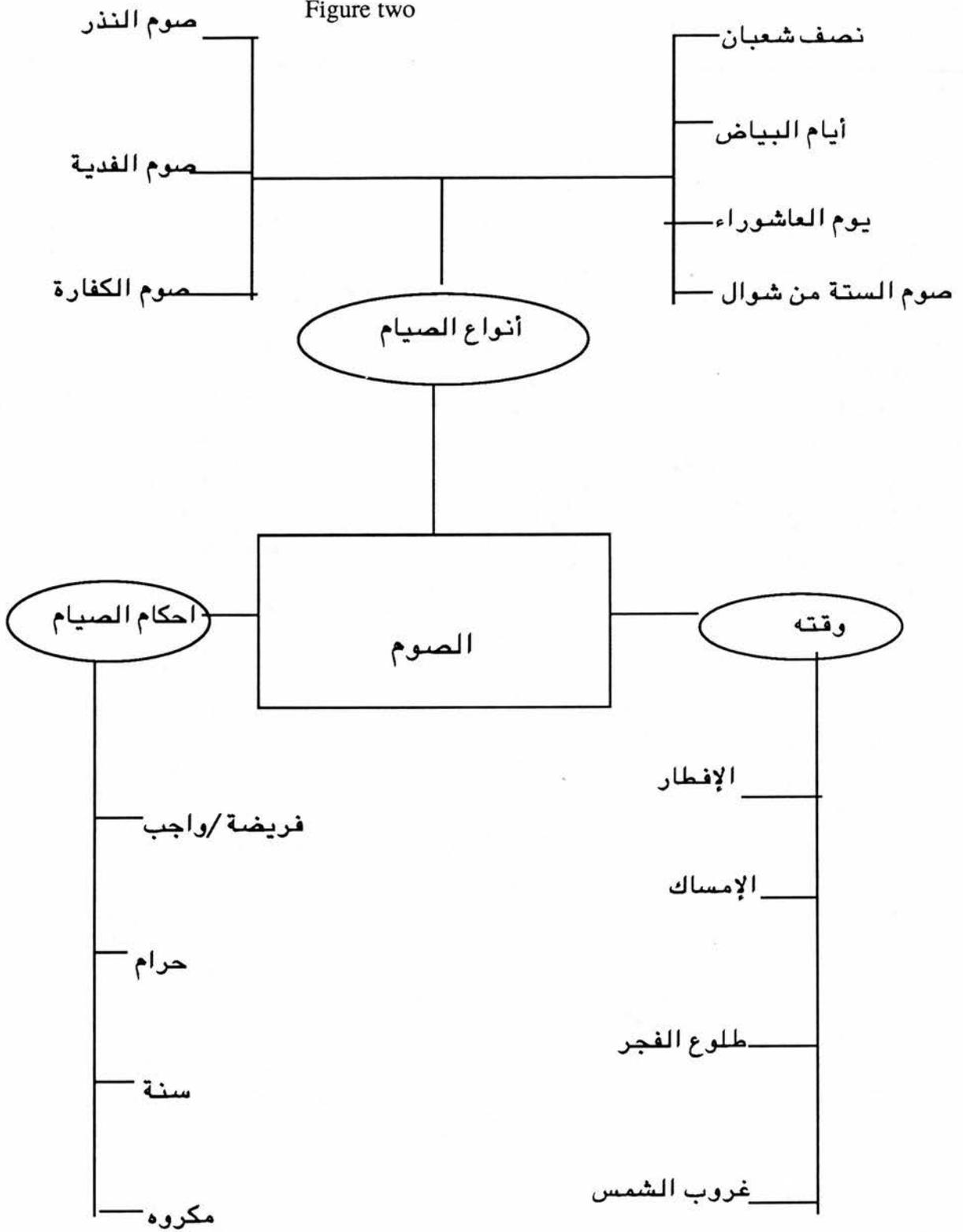


Figure two



b.Using a picture.

We can choose a picture containing vocabulary items we wish to teach the students. We tell them the subjects of the picture and ask them to predict which items of vocabulary they think are likely to arise. They might have difficulties in expressing the words in Arabic (and teachers should help them in this case), but they do not have difficulties in expressing the idea because they are thirteen years old at this stage. So the best way to teach it is by giving them activities which are familiar to them. We can also use this picture to revise the vocabulary which they have learned. Topics such as **حفلة عيد الفطر**, **حياة الزوج** might be useful for this purpose.

For Eid-l-Fitr, for example, the students might think about

لباس جديدة ، صلاة العيد ، زيارة الاصدقاء ، زيارة القبور ، اكل الحلويات ،

Then, when we show them a picture, there should be more items included than those the students predicted. In this way, we can teach them new vocabulary.

c. Cue Cards.

We can find or make a set of pictures of items of everyday objects (e.g. book, magazine, newspaper, mosque, etc.)

We can either teach new vocabulary or revise the vocabulary which has been learned before. Then, beginning with a picture which we show the class (e.g. mosque), we can practise a short dialogue on the following lines:

الطالب ا : إلى أين تذهب ؟

الطالب ب : أذهب إلى المسجد .

الطالب ا : لماذا ؟

الطالب ب : لأصلي جماعة

الطالب ا : مع من تذهب ؟

الطالب ب : أذهب مع أخي الكبير .

We can vary the activity by "giving each student a picture and ask the class to stand up and perform similar dialogues with each other. Tell them that once they have finished their conversation with a student, they should swap cards and find a new partner. ⁴⁰

d. Information Exchange Visuals.

This type of technique might be heavy for beginners. However, it is a very good exercise to develop speaking ability among them. Since Malay students are too shy to speak, this technique might be helpful to encourage them to speak. One of the procedures of this approach is by "giving them two pictures which are basically similar but have a certain number of differences between them. Put the students in pairs and ask them to sit facing each other. Show student A one picture and student B the other, and make it clear that they cannot look at their partner's picture. It is useful to demonstrate to the class with one example first. At the end, conduct a feedback session where you can clarify problems, deal with errors, etc." ⁴¹

The teacher should be creative in doing this activity by drawing two different pictures or by cutting photos or pictures from magazines. Many advertisements for products often have pictures which are similar but not identical. This activity is extremely useful to build up a library of these paired pictures on a variety of topic areas.

6. TRANSLATION.

Translation can be a very effective way of conveying meaning. "It can save valuable time that might otherwise be spent on a tortuous and largely unsuccessful explanation,(especially for beginners) and it can be a very quick way to dispose of low frequency items that may worry the students but do not warrant significant attention." ⁴²

Students are encouraged to start learning foreign languages with their native language. The reason behind it is that they can ask their teacher a difficult thing which they do not understand after the teacher has explained it and used all possible means such as synonyms, mime gesture and definition.

Translation is also related to the purposes of learning. If the purpose is for speaking, translation is not recommended because if students continue to use the mother tongue as a framework on which to attach second language items, they will not develop the necessary framework to take account of sense relations between different items in the new language. If we look at the purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia, it is clear that the purposes are mainly religious. Students are expected to understand the subjects they learn and to be able to express them in Arabic especially in writing and reading. This

means that we need translation in the process of learning Arabic in Malaysia.

However, to translate all words or all sentences from Arabic into Malay language is not the right way of using translation. This is happening in most Arabic learning in Malaysia. Teachers do not use other methods to make students acquire the target words. From the students' point of view, the teacher does not teach if he is not translating words and sentences into Malay. For these reasons, if we look at students' Arabic text books, we find that every word is translated into Malay.

To use translation in teaching Arabic to beginners, teachers should remember that this is the last approach to be taken after all other approaches have failed to make students understand the target word. The teacher should not translate whole sentences into Malay unless all of the words are difficult to understand and this should not happen because in teaching beginners teachers are not supposed to give them text with difficult words.

When the teacher uses translation in teaching vocabulary for beginners, he should relate it with the word roots if the words are not too complicated. For example, in lesson 8, from text book for National Islamic Secondary school, the text is as follows:

مدرستي

- ١ . مدرستي كبيرة
- ٢ . لها حجرات كثيرة وهي حجرة للمدير وحجرة للمعلمين وحجرة للإدارة وفصول و مكتبة .
- ٣ . أمام المدرسة ميدان واسع للرياضة .
- ٤ . وحول المدرسة حدائق جميلة منظمة للاستراحة في الصباح او في الفسحة .
- ٥ . وبجانبها مطعم لبيع المشروبات والاطعمة .

It might be important to translate (لها) here which means 'it has' or 'belong to', so that students can distinguish between this ل and the other ل which means 'for' like (لبيع للاستراحة ، للرياضة) المشروبات ،

It is better to translate حجرات rather than to give a synonym which is غرفات because this synonym is also not familiar to students. At the same time, the teacher needs to teach them the root of the word حجرات so that students can grasp easily the meaning of حجرة للمدير because they know the root of that word. However, it might be not a good idea to teach students the roots of الرياضة and

الحدائق which are ريض and حدق because this will not help them to understand the meaning of the words.

On the whole, we might say that translation is one of the necessary approaches in teaching beginners.

7. LEARNING WORDS IN LIST.

This is another way of using translation in teaching beginners. With this technique, words are given to students on cards with their translation in the students' mother tongue. According to Paul Nation, 43 learners can master well over thirty foreign-word mother-tongue word associations per hour. He added that experiment has shown that some learners are capable of rates of over one hundred associations per hour. He claimed that it is more efficient than learning vocabulary using synonym, antonym or definition.

To make this technique of learning attract students, teachers are encouraged to put or ask students to put each word form and its translation with the foreign word form on one side and the translation on the other. He said that this is much more efficient than setting the words out in lists in a book or on a sheet of paper. Firstly, the learner can look at the foreign word and make an effort to recall its translation without seeing the translation. Secondly, the learner can re-arrange the cards so that he is not using the sequence of the words in the list to help recall. Thirdly, he can put the words which give him most difficulty at the beginning of his pile of cards so that he can give them extra attention. Piles of cards are easily carried around and they can be studied whenever the learner has a free moment. 44

8. USING A DICTIONARY.

The dictionary is very important in language learning. This is because the dictionary itself describes the meaning of the word. One might argue about using a dictionary in teaching Arabic to beginners.

This argument is right if the teacher uses a very advanced dictionary like المعجم or لسان العرب

الوسيط

However, it is not if the teacher uses a basic dictionary for this purpose.

The teacher can use a dictionary for two major purposes:

- a. to describe the meaning.
- b. As an aid in teaching vocabulary.

For the first purpose, this could be a dictionary specially published for foreign students or a bilingual

dictionary. We might need to publish dictionaries such as noun dictionary, verb dictionary, sentences dictionary, phrases dictionary etc. We might not need to stress word roots at this stage. We do not need for example explain the meaning of مشتافی under شففى , but instead of that, we can categorise words based on groups like places, buildings, people, jobs, games and others.

As for the second purpose, a picture dictionary could be the best one to be used as an aid in teaching vocabulary. When we use pictures in the dictionary, we probably do not need a bilingual dictionary because pictures here already describe the meaning of the words. The example for this purpose can be taken from Oxford Photo Dictionary.⁴⁵ The topics in this dictionary are as follows:

The human body and physical description, Health, Clothes, Buildings, In town (market, shops etc.) Numbers, Time, Jobs, Daily routine, Schools, Offices and Laboratory, Vehicles, Holidays, Hobbies, Sports, Verbs and Adjectives.

The most important thing in learning vocabulary with an aid from the dictionary is to help students to build sentences or to express what is in mind. It is not to force students to memorise all words in the dictionary because memorising words without understanding how to use them is not the right approach in acquiring vocabulary. According to R. Carter, "knowing a word involves knowing how to use the word syntactically, semantically, and pragmatically or discursively."⁴⁶

Using dictionary in learning process should be encouraged from the beginning lesson. In other words, the teacher should alert students to the importance of the dictionary in the language learning process. If the teacher does not encourage his students to do so, it will make students remain ignorant in this particular aspect. For this reason, many students even in university level do not know how to use a dictionary as Dale and others said, "A surprisingly large number of students get as far as college without knowing how to use a dictionary to its fullest extent to increase their vocabulary."⁴⁷

It is important to consider certain advantages in the use of a dictionary in teaching vocabulary for beginners. " A learner who makes good use of a dictionary will be able to continue learning outside the classroom, and this will give him considerable autonomy about the decision he makes about his own learning. In the very early stages of learning, even an inadequate bilingual dictionary in a foreign country is better than nothing at all: it can provide important support and be a quick way of finding information. Another way in which the dictionary is a valuable support is as a back up to contextual

guesswork. It is not uncommon for an item in a particular context to appear ambiguous, and in such cases, the dictionary is an important resource to clarify the uncertainty. ⁴⁸

9. TESTING AS TEACHING.

A test is usually used to measure the students' ability in certain subjects. Without tests, students will not strive in their lesson. In other words, test or examination is part of the learning process. For this reason and others, we try to make the test one of the techniques in teaching vocabulary. The test here does not have any relation with the test or the examination conducted by the Examination Board in the Ministry of Education. This test is held by teachers as one part of the learning process. The main purpose of this technique is "to develop the learner's command of target language vocabulary, not simply to find out whether she/he knows a particular item of vocabulary or not." ⁴⁹ According to Dale and others, ⁵⁰ testing is a highly useful vocabulary technique because: 1. the student must pay close attention to complete the exercise correctly 2. the answers to the questions are clear-cut 3. the student is actively involved 4. the student senses the importance of the exercise, for his ability is being measured 5. the exercises are generally brief, and 6. the teacher has a quick measurement of the student's progress. They added that there were four main ways to test students' vocabulary: (1) Identification: the student responds orally or in writing by identifying a word according to its definition or use. (2) Multiple choice: the student selects the correct meaning of the tested word from three or four definitions. (3) Matching: the tested words are presented in one column and the matching definitions are presented out of order in another column. (4) Checking: the student checks the words he knows or does not know.

When we use tests as a teaching method, we not only assess the students' achievement, but we teach them new vocabulary and more important than that we make them alert to their lesson.

Below are some examples of teaching vocabulary by testing:

i. Self-Inventory Checklist ⁵¹

We give students a list of words and ask them to put (✓) for the words they know which to some extent, determines his word knowledge. Then the teacher asks them to compare the answers among them. They might use a dictionary to check how accurately they determined their knowledge of the

words they checked. The purpose of this technique is to alert the students to the state of their word knowledge. The teacher then, gives the meaning of the words so that the students can make sure that they did not misunderstand the meaning of the words they checked.

Many lists of words under certain topics can be chosen for this purpose especially the topics which have close relationship to the student's area of study or interest. For example, the teacher may present a list of religious terms such as the following:

الموضوع : الحج

() يزور	() يذبح
() يلبس	() العيد
() يصيد	() الفدية
() يحلق	() الرمي
() يسافر	() التحلل
() يعود	() طواف
() وداع	() السعي
() بيت الله	() الوقوف
() الحجر	() المبيت
() الحصة	() يعتمر

The other topics such as prayer, fasting or faith(الايمان) could be chosen for this purpose.

ii. Discriminative Self-Inventory Checklist⁵²

This test helps teachers to identify the words that the students know very well or never did know. The teacher can use certain symbols and ask students to put one of these symbols in front of the words they check. For example,

(✓) means I know it very well

(!) means I have seen it or heard of it

(✕) means I never heard of it(I do not know it)

The teacher can give list of words as in the number one which are related to the subjects that students are learning. For example. general words about students' daily life:

()	يفتسل	()	ينام	()	يقوم
()	يصلي	()	يجري	()	يتوضأ
()	يجيب	()	يحفظ	()	يستريح
()	يرد	()	يسلم	()	يدرس
()	يتغدى	()	يفطر	()	يجيء
()	يمزح	()	يلعب	()	يتعشى
()	يهدي	()	يرجع	()	يسمع
()	يستغفر	()	يدعو	()	يشكر
				()	يتوب

iii . Matching.

There are many kinds of words can be checked with this technique.

a. Matching words with their verbal noun. (المصدر) For example,

١. قرأ _____ (يقرأ ، قراء ، قراءة)
 ٢. كتب _____ (كتاب ، كتابة ، كتب)
 ٣. شرب _____ (يشرب ، أشرب ، شرب)

b. Matching perfect verbs with imperfect verbs. For example,

١. انكسر _____
 ٢. أكل _____
 ٣. طالع _____
 ٤. سافر _____

c. Matching feminine with masculine. For example,

١. ولد _____
 ٢. امرأة _____
 ٣. اخ _____
 ٤. طالب _____
 ٥. معلم _____

d. Matching words with their roots (eg. غسل = يفتسل).

١. يأكل _____
 ٢. يفرح _____
 ٣. يصلي _____
 ٤. يزور _____

e. Matching words with appropriate agents or couples. For example,

١ . تطير	_____	١ . السيارة
ب . ظلم	_____	٢ . الطائرة
ج . بطيئة	_____	٣ . السلحفاة
د . سريعة	_____	٤ . الطفل
هـ . صغير	_____	٥ . الليل

Many more can be created by teachers in this topic like imperative and perfect verb, singular and plural, adding appropriate pronoun to verb and so on.

iv. Finer Discrimination in word choice.

The multi- choice technique may be used to point up the distinctions between word meanings. For example,

- ١ . (صام ، أكل ، نام) محمد مع أبيه وأمه في شهر رمضان .
- ٢ . (صلت ، قرأت ، دعت) فاطمة القرآن أمام أستاذها .
- ٣ . (يذهب ، يجلس ، يرجع) عليّ من المدرسة في الساعة الثانية ظهرا .
- ٤ . (سأل ، أجب ، رأى) الأستاذ تلاميذه عن الدرس .
- ٥ . (أكلت ، طبخت ، كتبت) الأم الطعام لأولادها وبناتها .

The teacher can use pictures or drawings in this technique. There are many more topics which can be used for this purpose such as:

a. Opposites : verbs and adjectives. For example,

سعيد _____ صعب _____ حار _____ شيخ _____ غني _____
يجلس _____ ينام _____ يصوم _____ يجري _____ .

b. Preposition of place and time. For example,

فوق _____ أمام _____ صباحا _____ يمين _____ .

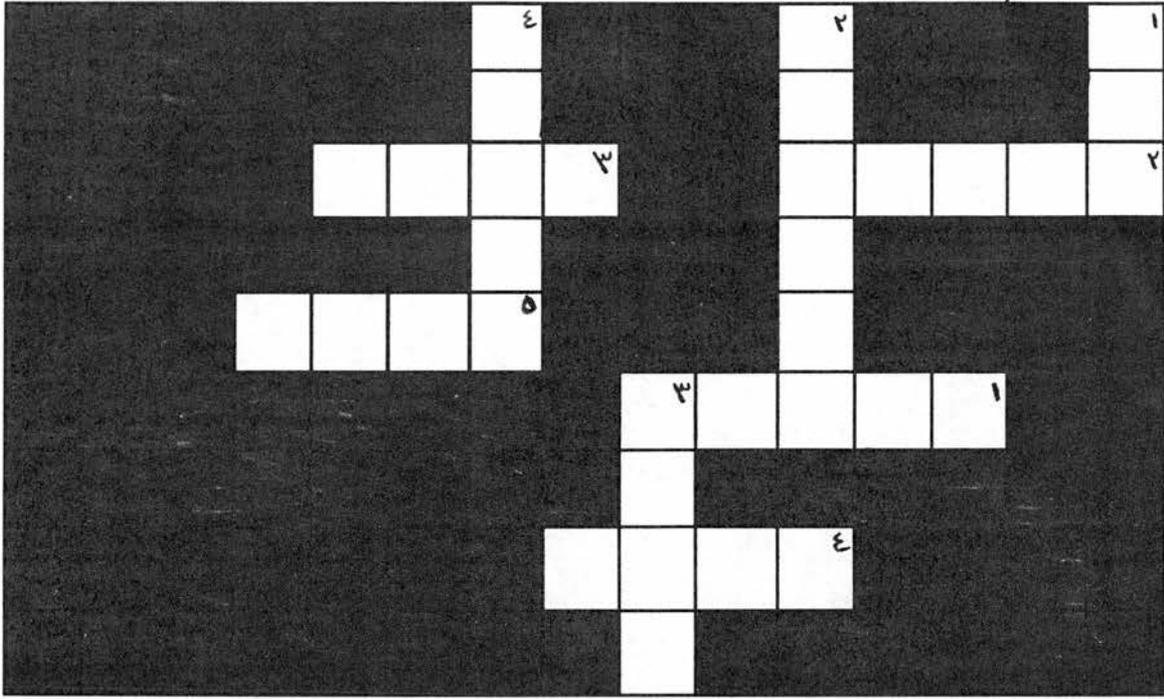
c. Jobs (We need pictures to illustrate these jobs). For example,

مهندس كهربائي ، ممرضة ، طبيب ، رجل البريد ، إمام ، أستاذ

d. Food and drink.

e. Places and buildings like garden, zoo, museum, mosque, house, shops, schools and so on.

f. Crosswords. For example,



نزولي :

- ١ . جمع مدينة
- ٢ . جمع سيارة
- ٣ . جمع رجل
- ٤ . جمع ورقة

أفقي :

- ١ . ضد مكشوف
- ٢ . جمع نية
- ٣ . نوع من الزهور
- ٤ . جمع امرأة
- ٥ . كتاب الله

10. STUDENT-CENTRED LEARNING.

This technique has no direct relation with the techniques of teaching vocabulary in the classroom conducted by teachers directly. However, it is part of vocabulary learning process. It was agreed among Arabic educationists in Malaysia that learning Arabic does not extend outside the classroom. There are no movies, magazines or newspapers in Arabic in town. So students learn Arabic only in the classroom and never use it again after class. Educationists, all over the world, have tried to find a way to encourage students to practise the language they have learned. In recent years, "there has been a trend to develop more self-access materials, and in the classroom a desire to shift the focus away from

the teacher and concentrate on more student-centred activities. This not only makes the student more responsible for his own learning but also permits greater attention to individual needs." 53

According to Gairns and Redmans, recent develop have emphasised the importance of equipping students with the necessary strategies for dealing with skill activities. In learning of vocabulary, this involves:

1. asking others.
2. using a dictionary.
3. making use of context to deduce meaning and guessing from the item itself.

In teaching beginners, we might use the first strategy i.e. asking others.

Asking Others.

The most obvious habit among Malay students is they are so shy, either to ask questions or to give the answer. With this technique, the teacher can train his students from the early stage to talk and discuss. He should tell them that learning language means practice. "A student can ask the teacher or another student to explain the meaning of an item which he has just encountered. Conversely, there are occasions when a student finds that he wants to use a particular item but does not know how to say it.." 54

There are many ways to start discussions:

1. Student might give a 'hint' at the word he is looking for. For example, giving incomplete sentence, using mime to clarify the target words and so on. He might say,

أنا جوعان أريد أن _____

(He might put his hand on his stomach in order to tell his friend that he is hungry or put his hand into his mouth to tell him that he wants to eat).

2. It would be helpful to equip the students with the expressions below which would help them to elicit the target items. For example,

هو الشخص الذي يذبح الحيوان (الذباج)

هو المكان الذي تأكل فيه (مطعم)

ماذا تقول لهذا \ لهذه باللغة العربية ؟

ما ضد (كبير مثلا)

There are many more clues which can be created by the teacher to make the student talk. It would be useful to teach the phrases like

(ما ، ماذا ، كيف ، لماذا ،)

to enable students to go on to ask each other about any of the items they do not know. "The teacher will need to monitor carefully to clarify meaning, check pronunciation and spelling and supply the correct answer where necessary, but otherwise the activity can be entirely student-centred. The teacher may well decide to have a final feed-back session with the class to ensure that the activity has been effective in supplying accurate information. This material lends itself to further practice activities, such as students testing each other, a discussion on the relative usefulness of gadgets, personalisation, etc. " 55

Using the Card as Word Bank.

The other activity in student-centred learning is using a card as a word bank. According to L. Sandosham, ⁵⁶ this can be a useful and stimulating aid to vocabulary learning. These cards would contain and would serve as a reference for the class. Students contribute to the word bank on a regular basis and the teacher sets exercises and also organises activities based on the selection of the words from the word Bank. In supplying words, students increase their own vocabulary and share their knowledge with others." She added that there are some points to consider in establishing a Word Bank for the classroom.

1. What Words to Collect.

To collect words needs a systematic approach. It would be useful, if teacher suggests some themes) (مواضيع to students and gets them to develop vocabulary related to these themes. Since the purposes of learning Arabic are academic and general, teacher can choose themes from these purposes. In a topic such as "Personal Identification" the teacher may ask a student to give information about himself, his family or even about others. The topics such as (الصدق ، الإخلاص ،) could be interesting in that students can build up their vocabulary.

2. What goes into the cards.

"The teacher must decide what information will be most useful to her students and how relevant it will be to vocabulary learning. It would be enough to have students explain the meanings of words and use these words in one or two sentences. A numbering system would help students and teacher alike in arranging and locating the cards as well as enabling the teacher to identify the frequent or infrequent card contributors. The cards should also indicate the theme or topic on which the vocabulary is being developed and the name or number of the student (or group) who contributes the card. " 57

A word card may looklike this

رقم الموضوع	١	١	رقم الطالب
رقم الموضوع الجزئي	ب	١	رقم المجموعة
<p>كلمة : احتفل</p> <p>المعنى : merayakan \ ابتهج</p> <p>مثال : احتفل المسلمون بأعياد كثيرة منها عيد الفطر وعيد الأضحى.</p>			

(N.B. The meaning of the word could be in Arabic if it is not too complicated to understand)

3. How to ensure that students are learning new words.

There are many ways to ensure that they are learning new words and not only piling them up and then storing them in the box or any where. One way of doing this is to use these words in exercises and to organize activities such as spelling, word quizzes, games and so on. The more repetitions are given to these words, the more students remember them. Writing tasks or sentences based on the topics derived from the themes will not only help students to use these words, but also encourage them to explore new vocabulary items. The activities and exercises should be planned in a systematic way because beginners need to be guided most of the time. To ensure that students participate in this activity,

points could be given to individual students or to groups who contribute the highest number of words in a month or in a term. The teacher can keep record sheets with her to check who has contributed to the Word Bank and who has not.

11. USING THE HOLY QUR'ĀN AND ARABIC LOAN-WORDS IN MALAY.

As mentioned in the beginning of this chapter the Holy Qur'ān and Arabic loan-words are two of the sources for teaching Arabic. The intention of this section is to discuss the techniques of teaching Arabic vocabulary using these two sources.

a. TEACHING QURANIC ARABIC VOCABULARY.

The purpose of teaching vocabulary using al-Qur'ān as a source is to develop the understanding of the meaning of al-Qur'ān among students who learn Arabic. There is no doubt that there are many ways to understand al-Qur'an and these have been understood since al-Qur'ān was revealed to the Messenger Muhammad s.a.w.(peace upon him). The question to be answered is that since one of the main purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia is to understand al-Qur'an which is written in Arabic and since this technique is not being introduced in teaching Arabic in Malaysia in general and in teaching Arabic vocabulary specifically, why do we not try to take this opportunity?

In teaching Arabic vocabulary to beginners using al-Qur'ān as a source, we can use many techniques based on certain criteria in al-Qur'ān.

1. Using Chapters in the Holy Qur'ān.

There are 114 surah(chapters) in the Holy Qur'ān. Some surahs are too long like al-Baqarah, al-Imran and most surahs in the beginning of al-Qur'ān. Some are short especially in last juz' (part) of al-Qur'ān. In Malaysia, children start to learn al-Qur'ān with the last juz' and then when they have completed this juz', they move to the first juz' and so on. The purpose is to master reciting because the most difficult words to pronounce are found in the last juz'. So when they have mastered pronunciation of words, they can read easily through al-Qur'an. In the University of St. Andrews, Quranic Arabic is learnt from the second surah i.e. al-Baqarah. Students not only learn to understand the meaning, but they analyse every word they learn. In other words, they learn it for academic purposes.

If we go back to teaching Arabic vocabulary using a surah in al-Qur'ān, we find that the problem is that some forms of the words in the surah are unknown to beginners. For example, if students start to

learn with short surah, when they come to surah (الكافرون) , they cannot distinguish between عابدون and تعبدون in verse

لا أعبد ما تعبدون ولا أنتم عابدون ما أعبد

simply because they have not learned the noun of agent (اسم الفاعل). The teacher might solve this problem by translating the meaning of words or ignoring them but too much ignoring will make students confused and then give up the lesson. So to practise this technique, the teacher needs to be careful in order to avoid too much complication.

2. Selection of Certain Words To Be Taught in the Classroom.

To do this, teachers need to select certain words from al-Qur'ān and then present these words to students. According to Dr. M. Surty,⁵⁸ vocabulary in al-Qur'ān is more easy than in other text books. He added that if students learn and understand 1,000 frequent words from al-Qur'ān, they can understand the meaning easily because the words in al-Qur'ān are always repeated in different situations. So teachers can either use the words together with their verses or use the words from al-Qur'ān and then teach them in the class isolated from their verses. With these words, teachers can extend the meaning of the words in sentences or through short writing tasks. Then the teacher can take some verses which contain these words in order to ensure that students have acquired the meaning of the words or the students could do it by themselves so that they can benefit from what they have learned. To select frequent words from al-Qur'ān is not an easy task. It cannot be done by a single person, but it must be done by a group of teachers. However, some teacher can do this himself if he collects these words from the dictionary of al-Qur'ān. There are two types of dictionary of al-Qur'ān which have been published so far. The first one was by J. Penrice (1873). The title of the Dictionary is "A Dictionary and Glossary of the Kor-an". There are more than 1000 words in this dictionary. Some of these words are difficult for the beginners either in meaning or in form. I have chosen some of these words (see appendix) and they might be useful for beginners to learn vocabulary from al-Qur'ān. The purpose is clear; to expose students to the vocabulary from al-Qur'ān. When they read or study al-Qur'ān they will grasp the meaning of the words easily because they have learned them. The other dictionary is (معجم الفهرس القرآن) (A concordance of al-Qur'ān) by M. Fu'ad 'Abdul Bāqi. Although the purpose of publishing this dictionary is for locating the verses in al-Qur'an, we can benefit from it.

This dictionary is better than the first one because it has all the words from al-Qur'ān (roots and their affixes) together with their verse and surah numbers. What teachers can do to use this dictionary is to choose certain words (frequent and familiar words), then use them in teaching vocabulary. Since the words in al-Qur'ān are always repeated, the teacher then has a great advantage in teaching the most repeated words to the class. The words like

يؤمن ، يعمل ، يكسب ، تبطل ، تنفق ، مغفرة ، حكم ، يضل ، يهدي ...

and many more are always repeated in al-Qur'ān.

3. Teaching Vocabulary Using the Stories in al-Qur'ān.

This technique is most probably the best way of teaching Quranic vocabulary because students enjoy stories very much. They can memorise vocabulary faster when they understand the story. There are a lot of stories in al-Qur'ān. I have checked these stories through al-Qur'ān. Some of them are repeated with some points added or left out in different surahs like the story of Moses and Pharaoh, the story of Mary, the story of Jesus and his people, the stories of apostles (e.g. Hūd, Lūṭ, Shu'aib) and their people. The detail of these stories are as follows (Stories are arranged according to surah):

1. *Sūrah al-Baqarah:*

a. The story about the people of Israel and their apostles after Moses (246__253).

2. *Sūrah al 'Imran:*

b. The story of 'Imran's wife (mother of Mary) (33__54).

3. *Sūrah al-Mā'idah:*

a. The story of the people of the Book and Christians (12__19). b. The story of Qabil and Ḥabil (sons of Adam) (27__36). c. The story of Abraham searching for his God (74__83).

4. *Sūrah al-A 'rāf:*

a. The story of Moses and Pharaoh (103__141). b. The story of Moses, his people, his brother, Aaron and God (142_171).

5. *Sūrah Hūd:*

a. The story of Noah and his people (25__49). b. The story of Hūd and 'Ād (50__60) c. The story of Ṣālih and Thamūd (61__68). d. The story of Shu'aib and Madyan (84__95).

6. *Sūrah Yūsuf* (Joseph):

a. The story of Joseph and his brothers (3__18). b. The story of Joseph and his finder, a rich man who bought him and his wife who seduced Joseph (19__29). c. The story of ladies in the city and the wife of the great (30__32). d. The story of Joseph the prisoner (33__42). e. The story of the King and and Joseph (43__57). f. The stories of Joseph, his brothers and his father (58__101).

7. *Sūrah Ibrāhīm* (Abraham):

a. The story of Moses and his people (6__14) b. The story of Abraham a.s. prays to God (35__41).

8. *Sūrah al-Kahfī*

a. The story of the companions of the cave (9__26). b. The story of two men (23__44). c. The story of Moses and Khidr (one of Allah's servants) (60__82). d. The story of Zul-qarnain (83__98).

9. *Sūrah Maryam* (Mary):

a. The story of Mary (16__40).

10. *Sūrah Tāha*:

a. The story of Moses and Pharaoh (49__79), Pharaoh and his people (including Samiri and Aaron (80__89).

11. *Sūrah al-Mu'minūn*:

a. The story of Noah and his people (23__30). b. The story of apostles (Hūd and Şālih) and their people (31__44).

12. *Sūrah al-Shu 'arā'*:

a. The story of Moses and his God (10__22). b. The story of Moses and Pharaoh (23__69). c. The story of Abraham and his people (70__104). d. The story of Noah (105__122). e. The story of Hūd and 'Ād (123__104). f. The story of Şalih and Thamūd (141__159). g. The story of Lūṭ and his people (160__175). h. The story of Shu'aib and the companion of the wood (176__191).

13. *Sūrah al-Naml*:

a. The story of Moses and his God (7__14). b. The stories of Sulaimān, ants, his army, and Balqis (the Queen of Sheba) (15__44). c. The story of Şāleh and Thamud (45__53). d. The story of Lūṭ and his people (54__58).

14. *Sūrah al-Qaṣaṣ*:

a. The stories of Moses, his mother, Pharaoh, and his promotion to be a Rasul (6__42). (included in

these are stories of his killing a man, his running away from Egypt, meeting two girls and getting married with one of them and how he goes against Pharaoh). b. The story of Qārūn (76__82).

15. *Sūrah al- 'Ankabūt*:

a. Short stories of apostles (Noah, Abraham and Lūṭ) (1__44).

16. *Sūrah Luqmān*: The story of Luqmān and his son (12__19).

17. *Sūrah al-Aḥzāb*: The story of Prophet Muhammad and his consorts (28__34).

18. *Sūrah Yāsīn* : The story of the companions of the city and their apostles (13__32).

19. *Sūrah al-Ṣāfāt*: The story of Abraham and his son, Ismā'il (100_113).

20. *Sūrah al-Zukhruf*: The story of Moses and Pharaoh (46__56).

21. *Sūrah al-Dukhān*: The story of people of Heaven and people of Hell (43__59).

22. *Sūrah al-Wāqī 'ah*:

a. The story of those foremost (10__26). b. The story of the companions of the right hand (27__38). c.

The story of the left hand (41__56).

23. *Sūrah Nūh* (Noah): The story of Noah (1__28).

We can benefit from these repeated stories in many ways:

a. Teachers can choose among these repeated stories the easiest one in which vocabulary and structures are easy for the beginners.

b. Teachers can choose one story from a certain surah to be taught in class. Then they can ask students to read the equivalent story in an other surah as home work and then ask them to tell the story in class. Although there are new words in every story, the students can understand it because they have acquired the main idea of the story.

c. Teachers can use one of these stories to test students in the examination. They do not need to create the same story in another way with new words.

On the whole, we can concede that teaching Quranic vocabulary using a story is very interesting. The teacher does not need to stretch his brain to create any story because al-Qur'ān is such a great source for him. Students can understand some of the texts in al-Qur'ān when they understand these stories.

Furthermore, these stories are not told merely as entertainment; the purpose of these stories is to

strengthen the Muslims' conviction (عقيدة). So by learning these stories, students can strengthen their conviction. Then, if we look at the words and structures in these stories, we find that they are told in easy words as well as easy structure. The verses are short and most of them are delivered in dialogue which allows students to use role-play in their learning.

4. Teaching Vocabulary Using Dialogues in al-Qur'ān.

Dialogue, as was mentioned above, is very familiar in al-Qur'ān and it itself was revealed to the prophet Muhammad s.a.w. by God through His angel by oration and some dialogue. Most of the stories in al-Qur'ān are related through dialogue. However, dialogue is wider because it sometimes involves stories and sometimes does not. There are dialogues between God and angels about Adam (al-Baqarah 29__38), between God and believers (al-Baqarah 130__143), between God and Iblis (satan) (al A 'rāf 11__18) and all of these dialogues are not the story. The details about dialogues in al-Qur'ān are as follows (dialogues here are arranged according to surah):

1. Sūrah al-Baqarah:

- a. Dialogue between God and angels about Adam (29__38).
- b. Dialogue between God and the people of Israel (39__50).
- c. Dialogue between Moses and his people (51__71).

2. Sūrah al-'Imrān: Dialogues between Zakaria and angels, Zakaria and Mary, Mary and angels, Jesus and God (33__62).

2. Sūrah al-Mā'idah:

- a. Dialogue between Moses and his people (20__26).
- b. Dialogue between God and Jesus and Jesus and his followers (110__120).

3. Sūrah al-A 'rāf:

- a. Dialogue between God and Iblis (Satan) (11__18).
- b. Dialogue between the companions of the Garden and the companions of the fire (44__53).
- c. Dialogue between Noah and his people (59__64).
- d. Dialogue between Hūd and the 'Ād people (65__72).
- e. Dialogue between Ṣālih and the Thamūd (73__79).
- f. Dialogue between Lūṭ and his people (80__84).

- g. Dialogue between Shu'aib and the Madyan (85__93).
- h. Dialogue between Moses, Pharaoh and the people of Israel (103_141).
5. *Sūrah Yūnus*: Dialogue between Moses and Pharaoh (75__92).
6. *Sūrah Hūd*: Dialogue between Noah and his people (25__49).
7. *Sūrah Yūsuf*: Dialogue between Joseph, his father and his brothers (3__18).
8. *Sūrah al-Ḥajar*: Dialogue between God and Iblis (33__44).
9. *Sūrah al-Kahfi*: Dialogue between Moses and Khidr (60__82).
10. *Sūrah Maryam* :
- a. Dialogue between Zakaria and his God through an angel (2__15)
- b. Dialogue between Abraham and his father (41__50).
11. *Sūrah Tāhā* : Dialogue between Moses and his God (9__48).
12. *Sūrah al-Anbiyā'*: Dialogue between Abraham and his people (about idols) (52__70).
13. *Sūrah al-Shu'arā'*:
- a. Dialogue between Moses and his God (10__22).
- b. Dialogue between Moses and Pharaoh (23__69).
- c. Dialogue between Abraham and his people (70__104).
- d. Dialogue between Noah and his people (105__122).
- e. Dialogue between Hūd and his people (123__140).
14. *Sūrah al-Zāriāt*: Dialogue between Abraham and honoured Guests (24__37).

When students learn these dialogues, they do not acquire vocabulary only, but they learn speaking and this is a very important activity for beginners. For example, the dialogue between God and Iblis in surah الأعراف (verse 12__18) :

قال ما منعك ألا تسجد إذ أمرتك
قال أنا خير منه خلقتني من نار وخلقته من طين
قال فاهبط منها فما يكون لك أن تتكبر فيها فاخرج إنك من الصاغرين
قال أنظرني إلى يوم يبعثون
قال إنك من المنظرين

قال فبما أغويتني لأقعدن لهم صراطك المستقيم ثم لآتينهم من بين أيديهم ومن خلفهم وعن

أيمانهم وعن شمائلهم ولا تجد أكثرهم شاكرين
قال اخرج منها مذؤما مدحورا لمن تبعك منهم لأملأن جهنم منكم أجمعين

Here students learn many words. In addition, they can learn how to order, how to make responses, how to deny and so on and these things are very important in their daily life when they want to talk to their friends or to argue with them. Some dialogues use vocative particles like (يا ، يا أيها ، اللهم) .

For example,

إذ قال الله يعيسى ابن مريم أذكر نعمتي عليك وعلى والدتك .. الآية (المائدة ١١٠)
قال عيسى ابن مريم اللهم ربنا أنزل علينا مائدة من السماء .. الآية (المائدة ١١٤)
قالوا يا أيها العزيز إن له أبا شيئا كبيرا فخذ أحدا مكانه ... الآية (يوسف ٧٨)

These vocatives are found in many dialogues in al-Qur'ān and they indeed help students to start talking among themselves.

To conclude, we can say that teaching vocabulary using the Holy Qur'ān as one of the main sources is a very enjoyable and useful method.

With these four techniques, teachers can choose one of them to be used in their class or they can use all of these techniques at the same time.

b. USING ARABIC LOAN-WORDS IN MALAY

As was mentioned in chapter two and in the beginning of this chapter, M.A. J. Beg said in his book "Arabic Loan-Words in Malay" that there are 2,000 Arabic words adopted into Malay. More than 300 Arabic words of these Arabic words are used for religious purposes.⁵⁹ According to the writer, this represents a large proportion in comparison to other Arabic loan-words in Malay for other purposes. This section intends to find out techniques to teach these words for religious purpose to the beginners. However, the process is not as easy as one might imagine. According to Dr. A. Raziq H. Muhammad⁶⁰ in his working paper "Arabic Loan-Words in Malay: How To Benefit Them In Teaching Arabic in Malaysia" (August 1990), he said that some of these words are not well known among most of the new generation. This, according to him, is probably because (1) these words (mentioned by M.A.J. Beg) are found only in the dictionary or classical books. They are not used in daily life. (2) they are probably being used by Islamic scholars or those who know Arabic only. (3) they might have been re-

moved when colonists came to the country. Then as some Malaysians were educated in the west, they do not use these words. (They changed Ilmu Alam to Geografi(now a Malay word) Iktisad to Ekonomi, Ilmu Hisab to Matematik). (4) these words could be similar to Malay words. They were used in the past, together with Malay words in Malay sentences. After a long time, they become Malay words and are no longer known as Arabic words. (There are many Arabic words which have become Malay words such as **زمان ، عالم ، حقيقة ، صحة**)

However, with these reasons which cause some of these words to disappear from the Malay tongue or to become Malay words, there are many more Arabic words which are well known, and could be used in writing a text book for students who learn Arabic because these words are easy and familiar.

⁶¹ To prove this claim, Dr A. R. Muhammad has chosen four topics to measure the percentage of Arabic loan-word in use among Malaysians. The topics were 1. **التعارف** (Introducing) 2. **المدرسة** (School) 3. **الأسرة** (Family) 4. **في المسجد** (In the Mosque). He tried to put as many Arabic loan-words as he could in his texts. Then he distributed these texts to Malay students. There were 89 Arabic loan-words in the Malays of those four texts. The result was as follows: 1. Words which are well known and used widely 58/89 (65.2%) 2. Words which are used rarely and have specific meaning 15/89 (16.8%) 3. Words which are never used by Malays or are used with other meanings: 16/89 (17.9%).⁶²

This shows that more than 50% of these Arabic loan-words are still familiar to Malay students.

To teach these words to beginners, the teacher has to:

1. Choose familiar words from those 300 words. To do this, a survey should be done as has been done by Dr. A. R. Muhammad. This is to make sure that students do not misunderstand the meaning or understand it but in a different meaning. We should not depend on the list published by M.A.J. Beg only.

2. After the teacher is satisfied with the words to be taught, he has to adjust the way of using these words among the students, especially in pronunciation and writing. Pronunciation is a big problem in teaching Arabic loan-words to beginners. As mentioned in teaching pronunciation in this chapter (technique number 4), students always change certain Arabic letters when they are pronounced in Malay. The examples below show us this problem: **سلطان** is pronounced sultan (with t and not ط) **عافية**

is pronounced aflat (with a and not ع and t and not ة during pause), قاضي is pronounced kadi (with k and not ق and with d and not ض) and many more Arabic words which have letters not found in Malay. Teachers should be aware of this pronunciation in order to prevent students from making mistakes when they pronounce or write them down.

The other thing that the teacher should give attention to when he teaches these words is when students want to use them in sentences. Almost all of these words are nouns and some of them are plural but used in Malay as singular like words فرائد ، ركعات ، أخلاق ، علماء ، معرفات ، ارواح and so on. When they make sentences, they might say,

أبي حج إلى ، أنا أسجد لله ، أنا أسجد لله ، أنا أصلي المغرب ، أنا صلاة المغرب instead of أبي حج إلى ، أنا أسجد لله ، أنا أسجد لله ، أنا أصلي المغرب ، أنا صلاة المغرب المدير ، هو يترجم كتابا instead of المدير ، هو يترجم كتابا ، أبي يحج إلى بيت الله instead of المدير ، هو يترجم كتابا ، أبي يحج إلى بيت الله ، أنا أدعو لروح أبي instead of أنا أدعو لأرواح أبي ، المدير يدبر مدرسة instead of المدير ، هو يدبر مدرسة ، ركعات instead of ركعات أول ، أخلاقه جيدة instead of أخلاقه جيد ، هو عالم instead of هو علماء وأولى and many more. These sentences which are wrong in Arabic are right if we translate into Malay.

The reasons are that some of these words (e.g. صلاة ، سجود ، ترجمة ، تدبير) are not transformed into verbs in Malay. The others (e.g. أخلاق ، ركعات ، علماء ، ارواح) are used as singular in Malay.

3. Teachers could trace the words which have disappeared. To do this, they can look at the list done by M.A.J. Beg or at the classical books. Although this job is not easy and its success is still doubtful, teachers could do that at least to make students conscious that these words were used before, so they could learn them in order to increase their Arabic vocabulary in the early stage.

To conclude, we can say that teaching Arabic vocabulary using Arabic loan-words in Malay is a very quick way to expose students to Arabic. They have acquired the words and what they need is to use these words in Arabic using the correct grammar and pronunciation (of some words).

END NOTES.

1. Allen, V.F., (1983), Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary, Oxford University Press, p.1.
2. Lord, R., (1974), Learning Vocabulary, International Review of Applied Linguistics, vol. no. 12, no. 3, p. 239.
3. Allen, V.F., op.cit. p. 2.
4. Latif, A.F.A., (1990), Teaching Arabic in Islamic Academy, First Arabic Journal, Language Centre, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur.
5. The writer's experience when he taught this syllabus to students in Islamic Academy, University of Malaya.
6. Allen, V.F., op.cit., p. 3.
7. Rauf, A.H.,(1990), Vocabulary Teaching Strategies, BATA Newsletter 3,i, p. 11.
8. Allen, V.F., op.cit., p. 5.
9. His book 'A General Service List of English Words' (1953) became a standard reference in developing teaching materials.
10. Richards, J.C. and T.S. Rodges, (1986), Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching, Cambridge University Press, p. 32.
11. Hijazi, M., op. cit., p. 6 and Ministry of Education (1982), The Syllabus for Arabic Language, p. 3.
12. Jeffery, G.B.,(1952), Foreword for 'General Service List of English Words' book by West,M., p. v.
13. Beg, M.A.J., (1983), Third revised edition, op.cit. pp. 143---52.
14. Allen, V.F., op.cit., p. 7.
15. Hijazi, M., op.cit., p. 2.
16. Wallace, M., (1982), Teaching Vocabulary, Heinemann Educational Books, Oxford, p.18.
17. Morgan, J. and M. Rinvoluceri, (1986), Vocabulary, Oxford University Press. p.6.
18. Dale, O'Rourke, Bamman, (1971), Techniques of Teaching Vocabulary, Field Educational Publi-

- cations, U.S.A., p. 8.
19. Ibid., p. 28.
 20. Ibid.
 21. Hittleman, D., (1978), Developmental Reading: A Psycholinguistic Perspective, Rand McNally College Publishing Company, U.S.A., p.302.
 22. Dale, O'Rourke, Bamman, Op.cit., p.28.
 23. Ibid., p. 29.
 24. The example adopted from Dale and Others' book, p. 30.
 25. Dale, O'Rourke, Bamman, Op.cit., p .51.
 26. Ibid., p. 52.
 27. Ibid.
 28. Ibid., p. 56.
 29. Ibid.
 30. Allen, V.F., op.cit., p. 39.
 31. Dale, O'Rourke, Bamman, Op.cit., p. 30.
 32. Ibid., p. 68.
 33. Ibid., p.135.
 34. See the syllabus for Remove Class for Arabic School.
 35. Dale, O'Rourke, Bamman, Op.cit., p.163.
 36. Ibid., p.164.
 37. Ibid., p.165.
 38. Gairns, R and Redman, S., (1986) Working With Words. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, p.73.
 39. Ibid.
 40. Ibid.
 41. Ibid., p.112.
 42. Ibid., p.75.
 43. Nation, P., (1980), Strategies for Receptive Vocabulary Learning, in Guidelines For Vocabulary

- Teaching, Regional Centre for English Language, Singapore, pp. 18__23.
44. Ibid.
45. University Press, (1981), Oxford Photo Dictionary, Walton Street, Oxford.
46. Carter, R., (1987), Vocabulary Applied Linguistic Perspectives, London, p.174.
47. Dale, O'Rourke, Bamman, Op.cit., p.277.
48. Gairns, R and S. Redman, (1986), Op.cit., p.80.
49. Wallace, M., (1982), Teaching Vocabulary, Heinemann Educational Books, Oxfords, p.65.
50. Dale, O'Rourke, Bamman, Op.cit., p.20.
51. Ibid.
52. Ibid., p.21.
53. Gairns and Redman, Op.cit., p.76.
54. Ibid., p.77
55. Ibid., p.79.
56. Sandosham, L., (1980), Using the Word Bank As Vocabulary Building Aid, Regional English Language Centre, Singapore, pp. 54__59.
57. Ibid.
58. Surty, M., (1991), Teaching Quranic Arabic, Working paper presented in the First International Conference in Teaching and Translating Arabic. SOAS, University of London, 12__14 December 1991.
59. See chapter Two p. 14 and chapter four p.5.
60. The writer is the lecturer in the Arabic Division, Language Centre, International Islamic University, Malaysia.
61. Muhammad. A.R.H., (1990), Arabic Loan-Words in Malay: How to Benefit Them in Teaching Arabic in Malaysia, Working paper presented in the seminar of Teaching Arabic, 25__28 August, 1990, p.34.
62. Ibid.

CHAPTER FIVE

TEACHING AIDS FOR TEACHING VOCABUALRY.

5.1. BLACKBOARD

5.2. THE TAPE-RECORDEROver 5 nashir

5.3. THE OVERHEAD PROJECTOR

5.4. VIDEO

5.5. SLIDES

5.6. COMPUTERS

TEACHING AIDS FOR TEACHING VOCABULARY.

Although teaching Arabic in Malaysia started years ago, the use of teaching aids such as cassettes, videos, films, slides etc. in Arabic schools has not been established yet. The most widely used teaching aid in this school is the blackboard, if we consider it as one of the teaching aids. This chapter then, tries to highlight appropriate teaching aids for teaching vocabulary for beginners.

Teaching aids, according to El-Araby ¹ can be defined as any material, programme, or machine used to help the teacher explain his lesson better...

Teaching aids, as agreed among all educationists can be divided into three types:

1. Visual aids (المعينات البصرية)
2. Audio aids (المعينات السمعية)
3. Audiovisual aids (المعينات السمعية البصرية)

The intention of this chapter however, is not to discuss the teaching aids themselves because they are a big topic to cover. This chapter attempts only to select some teaching aids to be used for teaching vocabulary to beginners.

5.1 . BLACKBOARD.

"The blackboard is perhaps the most useful of visual aids and the majority of teachers would feel hampered in a classroom which did not have one." ² Many teachers do not make full use of the blackboard when they teach students in the classroom. Some of them use it badly like leaving the blackboard full of things for the next teachers (and students as well), writing words on the blackboard in a jumbled fashion so that some spaces cannot be used, or using different coloured chalks where students cannot see it clearly. These things will not help teachers to make full use of the blackboard.

One of the best ways of using the blackboard is by planning blackboard work. The blackboard can be sectioned off into areas. It is up to the teacher to section the blackboard since he can make students comfortable and can avoid much chaotic and untidy work on it. "One way of dividing up the blackboard is the **H** model which effectively divides the blackboard into four. Thus part of the board can be kept for pictures, part for writing tables and for lists, or part can be kept for planned work and part for impromptu work." ³ By doing this, the teacher could have one permanent section for vocabulary

items. Students would probably benefit from having these words exposed on the blackboard. This is necessary so that students can memorise these vocabulary items spontaneously. Another way of using the blackboard is that the teacher can draw a picture or a diagram on it. By drawing a picture, the teacher can encourage students to talk about this picture. There are many topics which could be used in this activity such as: 1. Jobs: nurse, farmer, teacher, religious teacher (ustaz), schoolboy, schoolgirl, army etc. 2. Transport: bicycle, car, bus, train, plane, etc. 3 . Facial expressions: the teacher can draw on the blackboard the faces and then draw the adjectives beside these pictures like happy, sad, angry, tired, frightened, and so on. Then he asks the students to match them with the pictures. 4 . symbolic pictures like 'the clock rings' means he gets up, tooth brush means he brushes his teeth, prayer mat means he is doing his regular prayer, plate and cutlery means he has breakfast and so on. Here, the teacher can help students to build sentences and also a complete story.

Many teachers complain that they cannot draw so they are reluctant to try their hand at blackboard drawing. This is true if the teacher compares himself with an artist who can draw fine pictures. However, in teaching vocabulary, the picture is not the priority. As long as the picture can send the message of what the teacher is intending to say, this picture could be assumed to be a success. For this reason, Hubbard and others suggest "simple stick figures are not beyond even the most hopeless artists and, with a little practice, every teacher can learn enough to draw simple pictures for drills or picture compositions." ⁴ Furthermore, some theories said that the more strange it is, the more people like it. So the more funny the picture that the teacher draws, the more students remember it.

5.2. THE TAPE-RECORDER.

The tape-recorder is probably the cheapest of audio aids. It is easy to carry elsewhere for learning activities. Although many listening activities can be done in the classroom without a tape-recorder, it is still a valuable aid to the language learner and the teacher. The points below (some are listed by Hubbard and others), ⁵ show that a tape-recorder is essential to achieve the objectives of learning:

1. it allows the students to listen to a variety of different accents and varieties of Arabic.
2. it allows students to listen to conversations and dialogues involving two or more speakers.
3. it can improve students' reading ability by allowing them to read along while listening to a text.
4. it can help students to do pronunciation work because they can stop the tape to imitate a sound and

rehear again as many times as they want.

5. it can be taken outside e.g. home. This means that the process of learning continues, although the students are outside the class.

6. as beginners, students need to practise pronunciation. So it would be a good idea for them to follow what they are listening to on a tape-script.

Uses of the Tape-Recorder.

The tape-recorder can be used in teaching vocabulary for all the listening activities. Some of these activities are:

1. Sound effects:

The teacher can record a sequence of sounds which suggest something happening and then ask students to identify them. For example,

a. the sound of running water. The student responds:

هو يغتسل/هي تغتسل/الماء/هو في الحمام ...

b. the sound of plates being washed up. The student responds:

هي تغسل الصحون/هي في المطبخ .

c. the sound of people saying, لبيك اللهم لبيك The student responds:

هم في الحج/هم في مكة .

d. the sound of glasses being broken. The student responds

الزجاج سقط /هو يكسر الزجاج ..

Many more examples could be listed under this activity to build the students' vocabulary. If the students are still unable to build sentences, they might be required to identify the word only. For example, the sound of a plane or of azan (calling for prayer) or thunder etc. The student will respond with single word such as (طائرة ، رعد ، أذان ..) The teacher should not worry too much about selecting the sounds. However, he should be careful that the selected sounds can be beneficial to students.

There are some criteria⁶ for choosing taped material which could be useful to teachers:

1. taped material chosen for use in class should be of interest to students.

2. a disadvantage of taped material is that, unlike in real life, there is no non-aural context to aid comprehension.

3. taped material chosen for classroom use should be as natural as possible. It should include redundancies, as well as the 'imperfect' speech of real life. Hesitations, false start ect. must all be included.

4. It does not really matter if the quality of the tapes is not that clear, since, in the real world, students will have to listen with a lot of distracting background noise. (However, for beginners, a clear pronunciation from the tape is important if it is to aid their learning and not hinder it).

2. Jigsaw listening:

This activity needs more than one tape-recorder. "Students are divided into groups and each group listens to their tape and extract relevant information. The groups then exchange the information they have found out." ⁷ This activity could be useless unless the teacher has selected the appropriate materials for the beginners. The story with easy words and structure for example, could be the best material to use with the beginners in this kind of activity. At the end, to encourage competition among these groups, the teacher could ask some questions. They are able to solve the problem only by pooling all their information.

5.3. THE OVERHEAD PROJECTOR (OHP).

The overhead projector is one of the visual aids used in teaching. It projects horizontally-placed transparencies onto a screen. This screen is normally made of canvas or instead, a light coloured wall could be used. The use of the OHP is similar to the use of the blackboard. However, there are advantages in using this aid in teaching language:

1. Material can be prepared beforehand. Here the teacher can save much time when he teaches. Furthermore, preparing materials beforehand allows the teacher to make it of good quality and to make any adjustment if necessary before class.

2. The materials which are used for teaching can be kept for future use and then a library of these can also be built up.

3. For teaching language, to achieve a satisfactory result, the number of students should be less than twenty. This means that the teacher has to divide students into groups. He or she however will teach the same material to all of these groups. Here the role of the OHP arises again. It is not profitable for future teaching only, but it can be used for repeated teaching also. The teacher can save his time and his energy: he needs to prepare once only for four groups, for example rather than four times of prep-

aration.

4. Any material which is written using water-based pens on the OHP transparencies or an acetate squares, can be rubbed out when the teacher no longer requires it. These transparencies then, could be used for other written material.

5. Masking can be done with an OHP. The teacher simply needs to place a piece of paper over whatever he wants to obscure. This technique is very attractive. For example, the teacher wants to teach the beginners verbs and tenses or verbs and agents or feminine and masculine and so on. He obscures the second part of the taught materials and asks students to guess. Some will be right and others will be wrong. At the same time, students are tempted to know what is behind the mask. This technique could not be practised using any other teaching aid.

6. "Overlays can be used, where one transparency is placed over another, and so an increasingly complex picture can be built up." ⁸ To teach the names of the parts of the human body, the teacher might use one transparency over another so that in the end he comes to a complete body using the OHP as an aid.

5.4. VIDEO

The video is one of the most sophisticated audio visual aids for teaching language. It can transfer the real event or film over TV. What people need is a tv screen and video player only. If slides can offer static pictures without sound, the video can give us these two things together as we see and hear them in our real life. The most obvious activity for learning or teaching vocabulary using video is speaking. Although students can dictate what they watch and hear on video, it is very limited and always inefficient compared with speaking. It is precisely on this ground that teaching English by video focuses on speaking in order to develop students' vocabulary. The BBC teaching program has laid down nine techniques in its program called "Teaching English by Video" with the theme "speak easy." These techniques are: 1. silent viewing 2. prediction 3. description 4. reading their mind 5. understanding their feelings 6. freeze frame 7. topics 8. role playing 9. reviewing. Most of these techniques are very useful to build, memorise and develop students' vocabulary.

1. Silent Viewing.

With this technique, the teacher starts the video program without sound. Then, he repeats it again but

this time with the sound. When the student watches it the first time, he cannot discover a lot of things and he most probably does not understand what is happening. He might guess something and store it in his mind. Then when he watches it again and this time with the sound, he will certainly understand what the story is about. More than that, he can remove some of his incorrect guess and replace them with the appropriate ones. To put it differently, he has acquired another vocabulary.

2. Prediction:

This technique requires students to predict what happens next. Many examples can be taken for this technique. For example, the teacher could display a film to students. When it comes to the climax, he stops the video and asks students to predict what happens next. It is not an easy task and of course, the answers will be varied. In the BBC program, it shows how one tourist entered a place marked 'No Admission.' The police saw her and followed her. Then the policeman said, "Excuse me", and here the film was stopped. The student has to predict what happens next: she would be taken to the police station, she would say, "Sorry, I don't know." The police might say, "You are excused" or "This is the last warning for you" etc. To avoid the difficulties in expressing these things, the teacher should again choose stories or events which are suitable for beginners. In addition to the climax of the story or event, the teacher can also choose any normal events or situations or humorous stories that can build the students' vocabulary. For example, the teacher can display a film showing students studying hard. Then he shows them in the examination hall. After that he stops the video and asks students "What happens next?" Students might predict: **ينجحون في الإمتحان** and so on.

3. Description :

For this technique, students watch an event on the video. Then they are asked to describe what happens. This exercise really helps them to build sentences. The teacher will play a role to supply them with new vocabulary to help them to build sentences. As natural and spontaneous, the description will vary from one student to another. The more differences in describing the event, the better, since everyone of them will contribute different words.

It is obvious that the main purpose of these three techniques is to involve the student actively in what is happening on the screen. The teacher's main job is to ask students what they are watching and hearing.

4. Reading their mind:

Here, students watch the video the first time to understand the whole story. Then they watch it again and the teacher will ask them what the people are feeling. He might need to pause the movie sometimes. He writes on the board certain words to help students to build sentences. For example, the film is about the teacher and his student who is coming late to the class. These words might be useful to help students to build sentences :

(يخاف ، يفضض ، يعتذر ، ينصح ، يأذن له ، يعد ، يسجل ، يسمع له ، يتأخر ...)

5. Freeze Frame:

Here, the students watch the video at a certain time. Then the teacher freezes the frame and the students tell the story helped by the teacher. The teacher will ask them questions like;

من هم ؟ ما ذا يفعلون ؟ ما العلاقة فيما بينهم ؟ أين هم ؟ متى يقع هذا الحدث ؟

6. Topics:

Here the students watch sequences like means of transport: plane, cars, ships, bicycles, motorcycles, and so on. These means of transport should be found in the student's country. The underground train for example, is not a very suitable example for Malaysian students unless these students want to go to London or European countries.

Other techniques of teaching language by video such as role playing and reviewing seem to be difficult for beginners because they require students' initiative to start the exercises. In reviewing for example, students watch the program and express a critical view of the program. The students in the first level undoubtedly cannot take a critical view of the program.

To achieve a better result in learning vocabulary by video, the teacher could do some extra work. He could do some classwork before the students are shown the video such as asking students to repeat the dialogues, list some vocabulary and explain the meaning of the difficult words. Then he could do more work in class afterwards.

To conclude, without claiming to give complete support to using the video, I should like to say that using the video for teaching vocabulary is stimulating for both teachers and students. The teacher needs to choose the right materials only. With a high level of technology today, there is no big problem in finding sources for teaching.

5.5. SLIDES

Slides are one of the visual aids which can provide a very interesting aid to language teaching. They can be used to teach tense forms (grammar), vocabulary and basic language skills such as listing, sequencing and comprehension. Slides can help students to acquire a useful basic vocabulary because they directly expose students to real experience, to the social situations in which the vocabulary problems are likely to occur. There are various reasons why slides can be a very interesting aid to language teaching and learning. Some of these reasons are:

- a. "They are easy to use and can be made in about an hour from any kind of printed material (drawings, photographs, newspapers).
- b. They cost very little to make especially for black and white slides compared with the video or computers.
- c. They allow the teacher to bring into his classroom material that would otherwise be very difficult to use such as cartoons, advertisements, headlines, small articles and photographs.
- d. Students concentrate more closely on a slide than on a printed text."⁹

Below are a few examples of some of the ways we can use slides in teaching vocabulary:

1. USING SLIDES TO TEACH WORDS.

Although there are many ways to teach words to the students, using slides can be more fruitful. As mentioned above, the students concentrate more closely on slides than on printed matter, the teacher can use them to teach words (nouns, verbs, particles). He can teach many words using one slide only. For example, he can teach students the furniture in the house or equipment in the school, kitchen etc. by simply taking a picture of these things and then showing them in the classroom. The students will get two benefits: firstly they acquire the vocabulary and secondly, they can use them to build sentences. Let us take an example of this activity. The teacher wants to teach the students words from the mosque. He takes two pictures; outside and inside the mosque. Students will see from the first picture these things:

منارة ، قبة ، مسجد ، سلم ، ميضأة ، أبواب المسجد ، الهلال فوق المنارة ،

Here the students learn at least six new vocabulary items. The teacher may add other words such as سور and سياج if that mosque has them around it. In the second picture, they will learn words such

as

منبر ، محراب ، عصى ، سجدة ، عماد المسجد ، الإمام ،

After teaching these words to students, the teacher could ask them some question orally or by writing them on the blackboard like:

- اين يصلي المسلمون جماعة ؟
- لماذا تكون العمارة عالية ؟
- ماذا تفعل في الميضاة ؟
- متى يؤذن المؤذن للصلاة ؟
- اين يصلي الإمام ؟ أين يوضع المنبر ؟
- من يصلي خلف الإمام ؟
- لماذا تكون أبواب المسجد كثيرة ؟

Many more questions can be created by the teacher for this purpose. It is very interesting because students can participate in dialogue and can practise it since they go to the mosque every day. The same activity can be applied to other objects such house, school, garden, and library. The teacher can develop many activities here such as:

activity 1:

Naming: ¹⁰ The teacher displays the slides to the students and asks them to name what is in the slides. For instance,

- ما هذا ؟ أهذا بيت أم مسجد ؟
- أهذا المبنى مصنوع من الخشب أم من الخرسان ؟
- ما هذه ؟ أهي مكتبة أم مدرسة ؟

activity 2:

Counting : the teacher can show the slides to the students and then ask them to count. For instance,

- كم بابا لهذا المسجد ؟
- كم نافذة لهذا البيت ؟
- هل للمسجد منارة ؟ كم منارة له ؟
- هل للبيت عماد ؟ كم عماده ؟

Activity 3;

Colour: if the teacher uses colour pictures he can ask students to identify the colour. For example,

ما لون باب المسجد ؟

ما لون المنبر ؟

ما لون القبة ؟

2. SLIDE SEQUENCES

"A slide sequence is a collection of slides which illustrate a particular process or story. The slides are meant to be shown in a time sequence. They can be used to teach not only tense forms and vocabulary but also basic language skills such listing, sequencing and comprehension. The slide sequences can be used for description and narrative purposes and some can be used to practise specific language functions such as giving instructions. The slides can be made of subjects which are of academic or social interest of the learner." ¹¹ Many activities which happen in a time sequence can be done in this way.

For example, preparing to go to school, making tea or coffee, washing clothes using a washing machine, stories or events that happen in a time sequence and so on. Making tea or coffee for example, is a very popular activity and almost all people do it. This is because (a) "Tea is an almost universal drink (b) Each society has its own way of preparing tea (c) The rooms of a house and household objects occur early on in many course books." ¹²

Before the teacher shows his students how to make something, he should check that they know the meaning of certain words and can pronounce them correctly. For example, if the slides are about making tea, they should be introduced to these words before they are shown the slides:

غلاية ، سكر ، حليب ، ملعقة ، المفتاح الكهربائي ، شاي ، إبريق ، مطبخ ، صينية ، ...

In preparing the slides for the class, the teacher can make as many as he wants. However, he should be careful not to duplicate one slide with another. For example, to make tea, he does not need to show a slide of water being boiled if he has shown another picture showing that the boiling water is poured into the teapot. "The composition of each slide needs to be planned in advance, bearing in mind which colours will show up best, the positioning of the items, and whether you are going to take a close up or a long shot." ¹³ For this activity, the teacher might take a long shot picture to show someone in the kitchen preparing a cup of tea and to show someone in the dining hall drinking tea. The long shot picture is very helpful here because the teacher can show the students everything in the kitchen and in the

dining hall. However, a close up picture is needed to show that someone puts a teabag into the teapot and pours milk into cups which are on the tray because the students want to know about the utensils and ingredients used.

The activity does not stop here. The teacher can extend it by making an exercise to ensure that the students have properly acquired the new words. To do this, the teacher can make a set of flashcards to accompany the slides. "Each of these words should be printed clearly in large enough letters for the whole class to see." ¹⁴ For example,

صينية

Within this activity, there are several activities which the teacher could use:

(1) "Talk through the whole sequence describing the activity in each slide. e.g.

هي تملي الماء في الغلاية ..
تأخذ الملعقة من المطبخ

(2) Give the students chances to ask the teacher questions about each slide.

(3) The teacher asks them questions to check their vocabulary. For example, the teacher shows the slides showing that someone puts the kettle on the cooker. The teacher can ask:

م : ماذا ترى في هذه الصورة ؟
ت : جهاز للطبخ ، وغلاية وامرأة وأدوات للطبخ ...
م : ماذا تسمى هذه الغرفة ؟
ت : المطبخ .

The process continues until all slides have been shown. Here the teacher can identify words or prepositions that students use wrongly or do not know. The teacher can remedy these weaknesses by repeating and asking questions and so on. "Encouraging individuals to ask questions as well as answer them means that they have an opportunity to communicate with other learners in a meaningful way." ¹⁵

After having practised by speaking, the teacher can now write a script of this activity in chronological order. A. Ayton and M. Morgan in their book 'Photographic Slides in Language Teaching' stress "you could record the script of this and the other slide sequences. If possible, ask someone, preferably a native speaker, to record the script so that the learners have an opportunity to listen to another voice." ¹⁶

Making Written Exercise

When the students have mastered spoken exercises, the teacher can give them some written exercises. There are various exercises which could be given to the students. Fill in the blanks for example, is one of these exercises. The teacher can omit verbs or noun or connectives in this kind of exercise. Then he can give harder exercises such as asking students to put sentences in the right order. The teacher puts them in the wrong order and asks students to read each sentence. Then they put them in the right order as they learned before.

A. Ayton and M. Morgan write, "another written exercise which you can give to the learners consists of questions about their likes and dislikes together with a few general knowledge questions."¹⁷ The teacher can prepare questions as follows:

- هل تشرب الشاي ام القهوة ؟
- هل تشرب الشاي/ القهوة مع الحليب ؟
- كم مرة تشرب الشاي/ القهوة في اليوم ؟
- ما لون اوراق الشاي في المزرعة ؟
- أين تزرع الشاي ؟

If the teacher practises all of these techniques on any topic he chooses when he teaches vocabulary to his students, he will undoubtedly succeed. This aid (slides) has combined all techniques such as repetition, pronunciation, drill and writing to store vocabulary in students' minds.

MAKING A STORY USING COLOUR SLIDES

Another use of slide sequences is telling a story. "The most interesting series of transparencies is one that tells a story."¹⁸ To make this story become more interesting colour transparencies should be used. L.A. Hill¹⁹ finds that colour is a great help in seizing and holding the interest of a class. He adds that it is also much better than black and white for linguistic purposes: colours provide distinct contrasts, and give the teacher and the pupils more to talk about and ask questions e.g. we can distinguish between two boys by the colours of their shirts. For this activity the teacher can develop a series of stories or a single story. This story can be used with classes of different levels by "varying the difficulty of the vocabulary and structures one uses."²⁰ For instance, with lower classes the teacher can tell an easy structure like

ذهب الولد إلى المسجد ليصلي المغرب

while in a higher class it might be:

قام الولد بالذهاب إلى المسجد لصلاة المغرب .

The short sentences can be used with beginners, while in advanced levels, long sentences joined by prepositions or connectives could be used. The following story using slides, is an example of how the teacher uses a story for teaching vocabulary.

Picture 1 shows a boy going to the mosque with his father. He is very happy.

Picture 2 shows another boy (his brother) in different coloured clothes playing at home.

Picture 3 shows the father talking to the second boy who did not go to the mosque.

Picture 4 shows the second boy still playing and he has not gone to the mosque yet.

Picture 5 shows the father hitting the second boy with a rattan.

Picture 6 shows the two boys going to the mosque with their father. They look very happy (to encourage other children to go to the mosque).

Students can learn new vocabulary in every slide in this story. Apart from the story, the teacher can teach them the responsibility of going to the mosque for prayer. They should not leave prayer for any reason and the father has to hit them (for education) if they do not want to pray. The teacher might tell them the Hadith from the Prophet Mohammad who said,

مروا أولادكم بالصلاة إذا بلغوا سبعا واضربوهم عليها إذا بلغوا عشرة وفرقوا بينهم في المضاجع

(Order your children to pray when they are seven years old and hit them for it when they are ten years old and separate them in different bedrooms).

To make the learning successful, Hill suggests that a lesson or series of lessons based on such pictures could go as follows:

i. "The teacher shows the pictures one after the other, telling the story, with close reference to the pictures, as he goes along, and using vocabulary and structures which are either known to the students or clear from the context supplied by the pictures. In the case of new words and structures, he ensures that they recur often enough in what he says to give the students a chance to absorb them. If he wishes, he can write the new words and structures up on the blackboard at this stage. If he does not want to interrupt the story to do this, he should write them up after finishing.

ii. The teacher shows the pictures again, asking questions which stimulate the class to build up the story orally. He can ask either for general responses from all pupils in the class who have something to say, or for individual responses from named pupils.

iii. The teacher shows the pictures again, while the pupils tell the story without questions from the teacher. If necessary, they can be helped by having key-words and structures written on the blackboard. The aim at this stage is rapid, fluent talking, not slow, laborious searching for words and structures which have been imperfectly mastered.

iv. The pupils are asked to write the story told by the pictures as homework or in class. If the teacher thinks it advisable, he can prepare the pupils for this work by getting them to go through the story orally once more in class, while one of the pupils writes it on the blackboard. During this activity, the pupils should not be allowed to write anything down themselves. The advantage of this work is that it diminishes the mistakes that the pupils make in their own writing of the story: it is perfectly obvious that every time a student writes a mistake, he is fixing it more firmly in his unconscious, so the more we can do to give our pupils practice in writing, the more they would benefit." ²¹

3. USING SLIDES TO DEVELOP DIALOGUE (SPEAKING)

When the teacher uses slides for dialogue, he should not ask students to talk about the slides, but he will encourage them to talk with him. This means the slides will be used as a starting point to start dialogue. For this purpose, slide sequences at this stage will be divided into two parts: part one for establishing the situation and part two for involving the dialogue among students. So the main focus here is on part two. According to A. Ayton and M. Morgan, ²² there are three types of dialogue which can be developed using slides as an aid:

1. Functional Dialogues

2. Situational Dialogue

3. Improvised Dialogue

The focus however, will be on the functional since it is recommended for the beginners and some of the activities in the situational dialogue are suitable for them while the third one is not recommended because it focuses more on the advanced level.

1. Functional Dialogue.

Using slides here is based on a particular language function like greeting (ترحيب) introducing (إقناع) apologising (اعتذار) complaining (شكوى) persuading (إقناع) congratulating (تهنئة) warning (إنذار) admiring (تعجب) explaining (شرح) asking (طلب) etc.

"These are just a few of the functions for which language is used in real life, and sometimes it is useful to use one of them as the starting point when planning the language content of a class. It can help the learner to see how the language structures that he or she is learning can be applied to real life situations." ²³ Slide sets can be used to establish authentic situations in which the particular language function which is needed to be practised would be likely to occur. Introducing each other (التعارف) could be used as an example for this section. Then some suggestions for ways of exploiting these slide sequences in the classroom can be discussed.

1.1 Introducing (التعارف)

The environment is in the classroom.

Slide 1. Students entering the classroom at 7.40 a.m.

Slide 2. The teacher entering the classroom.

Slide 3. The teacher talking to the class.

Slide 4. The teacher talking to a student.

Slide 5. A group of students asking and answering each other.

To use this sequence, some possible methods that could be used:

a. show the slides with an accompanying tape which provides the narrative for slides 1 and 2, and the mini-dialogue involved in slides 3 to 5. The tapescript could be as follows:

Slide 1:

يدخل التلاميذ في الساعة السابعة والاربعين صباحا

Slide 2:

يدخل المعلم بعد التلاميذ .

Slide 3 :

يقول المعلم : اليوم نتعارف فيما بيننا. فهذه هي الأسئلة : ما اسمك ؟ من أين أنت ؟ كم أخاك ؟ أين تدرس ؟ كيف تذهب إلى المدرسة ؟ وهذه هي الإجابة : اسمي أنا من عندي إخوة و أخوات . أذهب إلى المدرسة ماشيا/راكبا الدراجة/راكبا الباص .

Slide 4 : THE teacher asks one of his students the above questions. The other students listen carefully.

Slide 5: The students ask each other the dialogue mentioned and recorded in the tape.

The teacher "could of course just read the script if he has not got a tape recorder, but the dialogue is more lively if there can be native speakers and not the voice the class is used to hearing all the time."

24

b. The teacher can ask simple comprehension questions to check students' understanding of the slides:

ماذا تدرس اليوم ؟

كيف تجيب إذا سئلت : ما اسمك ؟

and so on.

c. The class can practise the mini-dialogue. To do this activity, the teacher can record the conversation between two students and let others hear it. Then he lets them to practise it among themselves.

d. Extending the situation and question. The teacher can use other slides or pictures to illustrate these situations. For instance, he can add questions such as:

ما اسم أبوك ؟ ما اسم أمك ؟ ما اسم أخيك ؟

أين تذهب ؟ أذهب إلى الملعب/المكتبة/المدينة ...

مع من تسكن ؟ أسكن مع أبي وأمي/مع جدتي/مع أختي ...

مع من تذهب إلى المدرسة ؟ أذهب مع زميلي/أبي/

2. Situational Dialogue.

Although beginners do not acquire much vocabulary at this stage, they need certain words and expressions because they face them in their daily life. For example, they go to the shop for shopping. They go to the cafe to buy food and drink or go on a journey and they need to know how to ask to buy a ticket, and how to ask people the way they want to go etc. The teacher can teach them these expressions using slides as an aid to start with or to improve the dialogue. The example below shows how to teach students to ask or to answer questions in that situation.

A student wants to see the Principal.

Slide 1: The student in the Principal's secretary room:

ت : السلام عليكم ؟

س : وعليكم السلام . ماذا تريد ؟

ت : المدير طلب مني أن أقابله .
س : ما اسمك ؟
ت : اسمي حسن .
س : انتظر دقيقة تفضل
ت : شكرا جزيلا
س : عفوا .

Slide 2: The student in the Principal's room:

ت : السلام عليكم
م : وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله . أأنت حسن ؟
ت : نعم يا سعادة المدير .
م : اجلس
ت : شكرا جزيلا

Here the teacher can select a situation to be learnt or he can ask students what they want to say.

Whatever the starting point the teacher takes when planning his slide sets, he can use the procedures described in the Functional dialogue to practise the dialogue in the classroom.

To conclude, we can say that slides might be important to help a student to acquire vocabulary. Moreover, they can help him to establish vocabulary items in a proper linguistic and social context and they also seem to foster both student interest and student participation.

5.6. COMPUTERS.

The idea of using computers as an aid is due to two factors: 1. the computer is the latest technology which should be exploited in the teaching languages, 2. the use of computers in Malaysian schools is well-established nowadays. For example, computers have been used as an aid in learning programs for all secondary and primary schools in Malaysia since 1985. The effort has moved forward because some private pre-schools (kindergarten) have started using computers in their learning program.²⁵

The use of computers is very interesting and "learning can be so much fun these days when we have computers to mess around with."²⁶ "It allows the individual student to work according to his or her own speed, thus relieving the learner from working under pressure. It allows the student to practise the material as much as needed; it test the student's knowledge and may assess the student's progress."²⁷

Here we could say that the computer is an important aid in teaching language and it will undoubtedly be a valuable asset to develop language learning.

The idea of this topic however, is not to discuss the use of computers in detail. This is simply because computers are not yet used in teaching Arabic in Malaysia and the writer himself does not have personal experience in using computers in teaching. The intention then is to highlight this idea so that the effort could be made to start using computers in the near future.

Using computers for teaching vocabulary.

The computer like other media can be used as an aid for teaching vocabulary. It is a visual aid, but some programmers can put sound on it, so that it could become an audio-visual aid. It is however, different from other media in two main respects. It can allow the user to :

1. "carry out tasks which are impossible in other media (such as automatically providing feedback on certain kinds of exercise);
2. carry out tasks much more conveniently than in other media (such as editing a piece of writing by deleting, moving and inserting text)." ²⁸

The main effect that these features have on methodology is that students can:

3. "work through some exercises on their own and have them marked automatically by the computer (multiple-choice and total-deletion program)
4. carry out exploratory work which is not assessed by the computer, but which allows them to see the result of their decisions (word-processing, spreadsheet and simulation programs)" ²⁹

There are various activities which can be done on the computer. The 'Computer-Based Arabic Vocabulary Program' by V.C. Abboud from University of Austin, Texas and 'Arabic by Computer (Abc)' and the latest one 'Arabcard' both by Prof. Brockett and others are some of a few examples of using computers in teaching vocabulary. The program helps students to acquire a basic vocabulary of 500 items through a series of activities and lessons such as introduction of new lexical items through translation into Arabic, reading passages for comprehension, and guessing the meaning of new lexical items on the basis of cues provided and of context, exercises such as filling in the blanks, matching, question/answer, etc. Below are some examples of exercises designed for beginners by computer programmers in the University of Durham. ³⁰

1. Supply The Verb.

In this activity, students have to choose the right verb to complete the sentences. For instance, the incomplete sentence displayed on the screen such as:

المدرس المدرس في السبورة .

The verbs appear under this incomplete sentence as follows,

1. يكتب	2. يأكل	3. يأخذ
---------	---------	---------

What the student needs to do to complete the sentences is to type the correct number (e.g. no. 1 in this question). Some questions do not ask students to choose the right word only, but they have to check the grammar also. For example,

الأم الطعام لأبنائها في المطبخ .

1. تأكل	2. يطبخ	3. تطبخ
---------	---------	---------

Here, although the no. 2 answer has the right meaning, it does not give the right answer because the word (يطبخ) is for masculine while the word (الأم) is feminine. What is interesting in this and other activities is that the computer will tell students immediately whether they have given the correct answer or not. The teacher may therefore stand behind the machine to observe his students or leave them alone with the computer. He might need to find out whether extra revision is still needed by a certain student, and whether the students are ready for the next topic.

2. Vocabulary Test.

This activity uses a translation method. The word will appear in the students' native language and then the students are required to choose the correct translation for that word. For example, the word

WATCH appears on the screen. Under it, four words in Arabic:

1. بستان	2. ساعة
3. مرسم	4. كتاب

The students will not try to find out the correct answer for the word watch only, but will recognise the meaning of these four words. If there are twenty questions to be answered, then they will learn or revise at least 40 words (half of the number of words supplied on the screen).

3. Jumbled Sentences.

In this technique, sentences appear in the wrong order with a number on every word. For instance,

1 الصبح	2 ثلاث	3 وصلاة	4 ركعات	5 صلاة	6 ركعتان	7 المغرب
---------	--------	---------	---------	--------	----------	----------

What students need to do is rearrange the number: which word should come before the other. In this sentence for example, the answer should be as follows, 5 7 2 4 3 1 6. It is quite difficult, but students can work it out through trial. Another activity is called jumbled translation. As mentioned before (in chapter 4) the translation is one of the techniques used to teach beginners, and so it follows that we can use it with the computer. For example, the sentence appears on the screen as follows,

البيت الجديد جميل

Under this sentence is the translation of the sentence in the students' native language but not in the right order.

- A. house
- B. new
- C. the
- D. is
- E. beautiful

The students need to rearrange the letters to give the right answer.

4. Extract The Roots.

Teaching roots as mentioned in chapter 4 is one of the techniques of teaching vocabulary for the beginners. The single word appears on the screen e.g.

نجاهد

Then the white sign will appear on every letter one by one. If the student thinks the letter on which the

white sign appears is one of the roots of that word, he types on (Y) meaning (yes). If he thinks it is not, he then types on (N) meaning (no).

5. Fill In The Blank.

This exercise is similar to 'supply the verb' because students are required to fill a correct verb in the blank. The difference however is this exercise is harder than supplying the verb. This is simply because students are required to fill the word in the blank spaces in a short paragraph: story or article.

The exercise will appear as follows:

Instruction: Click on any word at the bottom of the screen. Then click on its gap in the text. The 'fill-in-the-blank-card' appears as follows:

يقع مسجد السلطان صلاح الدين _____ مدينة شاه عالم . وهو _____ من بيت
أحمد ، طالب في المدرسة الثانوية . يصلي أحمد _____ المغرب مع أبيه في
هذا المسجد _____ يوم . درس تفسير _____ الكريم بعد صلاة المغرب كل
السبت . و _____ في حلقة لتلاوة القرآن بعد صلاة الصبح كل يوم . بعد كل
صلاة _____ أحمد وطلب من _____ المغفرة له ولأبويه وللمسلمين أجمعين .

كل	القرآن	في	دعا	اشترك
	الله		قريب	صلاة

Here a student can click on any tile he chooses, then click the gap where it goes. If he makes a mistake, the word at the bottom of the screen will not move and he has to choose another word. What is interesting is that this exercise will reward the users if they do it quickly and correctly. The award is the gold bricks which appear on the screen. If he clicks the words fast enough, gold bricks start to appear. A student can get up to three gold bricks. If he could not achieve even one gold brick, he should realise that his achievement is still weak.

6. Build Text.

This exercise attempts to revise students' vocabulary rather than to test students' achievement of the

vocabulary. Before doing this exercise they usually have learned the text in the classroom. In some cases, they are provided with the text in their native language, so that they can translate the Arabic words from or into their native language to help them to find a correct answer. The test will let them build up the chosen text word-by-word. At each stage a choice of three words is shown at the bottom of the screen. The first word is usually shown to start the students off. The screen for this exercise would look like:

ذبح المسلمون		
الشجرة	البقر	السكين

This exercise will award a student as it did in the above exercise. If the student clicks on the wrong word twice, the computer will help them automatically to give the correct answer.

These are a few examples of using computers for teaching vocabulary to the beginners. The teacher can expand the activity and exercise as much as he likes. The above examples are taken from the ready made program and some alterations have been made to the examples to match them with the purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia. The advantage here is if the teacher knows about the computer programming, he or she can create his or her own program called 'self-study packages.'

END NOTES

1. El-Araby, S.A., (1974), Audio-visual aids for teaching English: An introduction to materials and methods, Longman Group Ltd., London, p.1.
2. Hubbard, P., H. Jones, B. Thornton, R. Wheeler, (1983), A Training Course for TEFL, Oxford: Oxford University Press, p. 105.
3. Ibid., p. 106-7.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid., p. 123.
6. Ibid., p. 124.
7. Ibid., p. 125.
8. Ibid., p. 128.
9. Grellet, C. and J. Journet, Using Slides in language teaching - Part One, Modern English Teacher, (1977), vol. 5, no. 1 and 2, pp.5__7.
10. Ibid., p. 35.
11. Ayton, A. and M. Morgan, (1981), Photographic Slides in Language Teaching, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London, p. 14.
12. Ibid., p. 16.
13. Ibid.
14. Ibid.
15. Ibid., p. 18.
16. Ibid., p. 19.
17. Ibid., p. 24.
18. Hill, L.A., (1961), Colour Slides in Language Teaching, English Language Teaching Journal, vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 164__67.
19. Ibid., p. 164.
20. Ibid., p. 165.
21. Ibid.
22. Ayton, A. and M. Morgan, op.cit., p. 47.

23. Ibid.

24. Ibid., p. 50.

25. Sidhu, S., (1991), High-tech learnings aids for pre-schoolers, New Straits Times, October 22, 1991, City extra, p. 5.

26. Shivtiel, A., (1986), Introduction: Teaching Arabic with the computer, Proceedings of the First Symposium held at the University of Leeds between 21__22 July 1986, p. 4.

27. Hardisty, D. and S. Windeatt, (1989), CALL, Oxford University Press, Oxford, p. 8.

28. Ibid.

29. The team consists Prof. A. Brockett, Ian A. Clark, and Owen B. Taylor from the Centre for Middle Eastern and Islamic studies, University of Durham.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

6.1. CONCLUSION

6.2. SUGGESTIONS

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS.

6.1. CONCLUSIONS.

The main purpose of this dissertation is to deal with the problem of how to teach Arabic vocabulary actively to beginners in the secondary school. The intention is not merely to focus on methods and techniques, but to stress the importance of teaching vocabulary. The process of teaching vocabulary does not stand by itself; it has a relation with the syllabus, the material and of course the purposes of learning Arabic itself. This dissertation therefore, is intended as a starting point toward this aim. It is precisely on these grounds that the syllabus designer, programme developers and teachers should be aware of the importance of teaching vocabulary. Since this work is a starting point, there are many more efforts which could be made in this field. This will be discussed further in the suggestions in the next section.

Let us now see what we have done in order to add to our knowledge of teaching vocabulary. Chapter One introduces the teaching and learning institutions in Malaysia. It is a very brief study to give a general idea about learning institutions which have a relation with Arabic language. Through this brief study, it is hoped that it becomes easier to discuss the next chapters written to find out the method of teaching Arabic which has been used in each type of institution. Thus this chapter does not focus on the institution itself but rather on the relation between the institution and Arabic language teaching in that institution.

Chapter two outlines the teaching of Arabic in secondary schools, i.e. the purposes, the syllabus, text books, the teachers and the students. It starts with information on the present syllabus used for teaching Arabic in secondary school in the country. It narrows, leaving aside the other institutions (primary school and higher institutions). This is simply because the focus of this disserta-

tion is on teaching vocabulary in secondary schools. It is clear to us that highlighting the teaching of Arabic, followed by highlighting the problems is helpful so that the next chapter, on whether it agrees with the syllabus, purposes etc., could not go beyond this topic or if it finds the present method is not suitable, it could suggest a new method for teaching vocabulary.

The discussion of the principles of teaching and learning vocabulary in Chapter Three provides us with an important guide to the purpose of teaching vocabulary. It outlines the general principles in teaching and learning vocabulary, the points of view of some scholars about frequency lists, grading vocabulary and presenting it. Any teacher who teaches a language should know the principles of teaching vocabulary before he or she goes further in his/her work. It is clear that most of the ideas in this chapter come from the idea of teaching English as a second or foreign language. We adopt this idea since the evidence in the literature on foreign language acquisition indicates that the learning processes that an individual learner goes through are practically the same in all languages.

The major idea of this dissertation is discussed in Chapter Four. This chapter represents an analysis of the methods and techniques of teaching vocabulary to beginners. The conclusion is that the main motive for learning Arabic in Malaysia is for religious purposes, called academic purpose. However, for the beginners, general Arabic vocabulary should be taught to attract them to this language. The first part of the chapter also discusses the sources for teaching vocabulary. The intention is to make sure that all examples used when we discuss the techniques are related to these sources.

In Chapter Five, we discuss teaching aids. They seem to support the ideas of chapter four. As mentioned in that chapter, the intention is not to talk about the teaching aids themselves but to en-

courage teachers to use some of these teaching aids to help them to teach vocabulary.

On the whole, this dissertation has highlighted several things to be considered in teaching vocabulary:

1. The conclusion is that the best way to develop the teaching of Arabic in Malaysia is by focusing on the religious purposes. Thus we have highlighted the importance of teaching Arabic vocabulary using the Holy Qur'ān and Arabic loan-words in Malay as a source in chapter four. We have proposed four ways to teach Arabic vocabulary using al-Qur'ān: (a) using chapters (sūrah) in al-Qur'ān, (b) selection of certain words from al-Qur'ān, (c) using stories in al-Qur'ān, (d) using dialogues in al-Qur'ān. Within this method, teachers and students will use al-Qur'ān as a source and not as a reference only. If the teacher takes anyone of the above techniques, he needs in any case to refer to al-Qur'ān. If he teaches students using selection of certain words from al-Qur'ān, he needs to refer to it to find out which word is suitable for the beginners and so on. It is hoped that students' exposure to al-Qur'ān will become better than before.

2. Other techniques such as context clues, roots, translation etc. in the same chapter are not new techniques in teaching vocabulary. However, we focus on these techniques for two reasons: (a) They are very suitable in our point of view to teach vocabulary to beginners, (b) many Arabic teachers have not used these techniques when they teach vocabulary to beginners. Thus the purpose is to encourage teachers to use these techniques when they teach vocabulary to beginners.

3. As for Arabic loan-words, since the focus of teaching Arabic in Malaysia is for religious purposes, we suggest words which are used for religious purposes be taught to beginners. The research mentioned in chapter four shows that more than 50% of these words are still familiar to Malay students. It is a very effective way since students have acquired these words in their daily

life. What they need is to use these words in Arabic using the correct grammar and pronunciation (of some words).

4. The importance of using teaching aids has been highlighted also in this dissertation. The slides and computers for instance are very essential since almost all Arabic teaching programmes in Malaysia have not used this latest modern technology.

6.2. SUGGESTIONS

Many research areas which are connected to teaching vocabulary have been identified throughout this dissertation. However, some suggestions could be made in this chapter since the above chapters cannot list all the things which are necessary in teaching vocabulary. The focus, however, is not on teaching vocabulary solely, since it is not a separate subject. It is part of teaching Arabic language itself and has a close relation with the purposes and the syllabus. In other words, to develop teaching vocabulary, we should develop teaching Arabic generally. Thus these suggestions focus on three major factors below:

1. The purposes and syllabus.
2. Exploiting the use of the latest modern technology.
3. Initiatives to develop teaching Arabic.

1. The purposes of learning Arabic and the syllabus.

It is observed that the syllabus used in secondary schools does not fulfil the requirements in the purposes of learning Arabic. The syllabus in Arabic schools, for instance, focuses on learning grammar rather than learning language skill. Thus the syllabus is no different from the syllabus used to teach Arabic to native speakers. This phenomenon is related to the students' weaknesses

in learning vocabulary. Since the hours provided to teach Arabic are very limited and most of this time is spent on teaching grammar, how can we expect students to have acquired good Arabic when they finish their study. The syllabus designers should also use traditional sources such as the Holy Qur'ān, Ḥadīth and classical books as a major source when they design the syllabus. By doing this, they can ensure that the syllabus has fulfilled the requirements for the purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia. An individual teacher cannot use his or her own initiative to alter the syllabus by adding or taking away anything from the syllabus since the examination system always follow the syllabus itself. Hence the way out is through altering the present syllabus.

In teaching vocabulary, we need word lists. Word lists, as mentioned in chapter four, are essential to guide teachers to teach vocabulary. It is highly considered as a key to vocabulary teaching. The Ministry of Education should provide funds for this project. Otherwise, it will not be successful because it needs effort and time to deal with. Although there are word lists for teaching English and Arabic, teachers in Malaysia cannot use them since the purpose is not the same and the needs of the vocabulary are different.

As for teaching aids, the use of computers and slides as teaching aids should start now so that teaching Arabic is not left behind. The cooperation between the Ministry of Education, syllabus designers (including teachers) and programmers in providing funds, materials and setting programs can solve this problem.

2. Exploiting the use of the latest modern technology and techniques.

The latest modern technology can be described as techniques, methods and teaching aids. The effort to use these new high technology aids should be made now. The programmers alongside the syllabus designers and teachers should work together to promote teaching Arabic using new

methods and teaching aids. Teaching other languages has proved that methods and techniques play an important role in language learning. The English teaching programmers for example, change from one method to another because they find that the new method give students a wider opportunity to acquire what they learn. In order to move to the same standard of teaching as in other languages, the responsible people in Arabic teaching should not isolate themselves, but need to open their eyes to the world. They can develop Arabic teaching either by adopting what has been done in other languages or by creating their own methods and techniques based on the environment around them. On the other hand, since all of us agree that learning language means practising it and it is not as learning other subjects such as history, geography etc., teaching aids should be used in this particular subject. It is very sad to hear that Arabic learning in Malaysia (and probably in other places also) does not use teaching aids effectively to support the learning process.

3. Initiatives To Develop Teaching Arabic in Malaysia.

The teaching and learning of Arabic has not generally taken root in the heart of Muslims in Malaysia. They still assume it is a 'stranger' although their holy book, al-Qur'ān is in this language. To remove this feeling, action should be taken. There are many bodies who can work to remove this feeling such as teachers, parents, and the government. However, the government plays a very important role in this initiative since it is a policy maker. The roles of teachers and parents could not have a significant impact without the effort of the government. Let us see what the government has done to improve the standard of teaching and learning English to prove that the government plays an important role. When some people complained about the weaknesses of English language among Malay students in 1989, the Prime Minister expressed his willingness to see this

situation changed. Then the government, through the Minister of Education, asked the English Division in the ministry to reassess the English teaching programme: syllabus, teacher, student, text books and anything which has a relation to English teaching. Many seminars were held by the Ministry and the Departments of English teaching in the universities. Consultants in the country and abroad were invited to solve this problem. Some steps have been taken to ensure that teaching English does not get left behind. The Ministry of Education has signed a contract with colleges and higher institutions in Britain to train English teachers from Malaysia. Early in 1991, the Deputy Director in the Ministry of Education paid a visit to the United Kingdom for this purpose. Then, in October 1991, the Minister of Education himself, paid a comparable visit to the same place for the same purpose. This effort by the government and those who are responsible in the ministry will undoubtedly give good results in the teaching of English. The intention of mentioning this point is not to comment on what the government has done to develop teaching English in the country. Everyone of us realises the importance of English language in this modern life and in the advanced technology. The intention is to look at what the government itself or through the Ministry of Education has done to promote teaching Arabic in Malaysia. A small budget for the Arabic teaching division and the lack of qualified officers (as mentioned in chapter two) and many more problems need a quick solution by the government. The government should be sensitive to the students' weaknesses in Arabic, the small number of Arabic schools which means many parents cannot send their children to this kind of school and many more similar problems with other schools.

The Ministry of Education should not put all responsibilities to develop religious schools on the Department of Islamic Education only. Adding to the number of schools and the budget should

be handled by the Ministry itself so that the process will be much faster and effective.

One of the best ways to let students acquire good Arabic especially in vocabulary is by sending them to Arab countries. Almost all universities in the United Kingdom and other western countries do this since it is an effective way to help students to learn foreign languages. Hence the Ministry should send students for certain periods to Arab countries as part of the requirements in learning Arabic.

The responsible people in the Departments of Arabic teaching together with the teachers should work and try to find some solutions to develop Arabic teaching. If the present syllabus, to some extent, cannot ensure the success of learning Arabic in Malaysia, a way out should be found. The students' weaknesses in acquiring vocabulary for example happens because the syllabus focuses too much on grammar. The students do not understand al-Qur'ān, Ḥadīth and other religious books because these sources are not among the texts or reference books in school. In other words, the syllabus has failed to fulfil some of the purposes of learning Arabic in Malaysia (see the purposes no. 1, 2, and 5 in chapter two).

To conclude, we should be realistic and rational in this matter. We should realise that we cannot expect people or students in Malaysia to speak Arabic as they speak their native language or as they speak English. However, we need them at least to understand what they read from the Holy Qur'ān, the Ḥadīth and any reference book about Islam.

تم والحمد لله والله أعلم بالصواب

Appendix

Words adopted from 'A Dictionary and Glossary of the Kor-an' by John Penrice.

باب الألف (أ) :

أتى ، أثم (إثم ، أثم) ، أحد ، أخذ (اتخذ ، أخذ) ، آخر ، أمن ،

باب الباء (ب) :

بحر ، باع ، بخل ، بدأ ، بذر ، برك (تبارك) ، بطل ، بعث ، بلس (إبليس) .

باب التاء (ت) :

تجر ، تاب .

باب الثاء (ث) :

ثبت ، ثنى ، ثاب (ثواب ، مثابة)

باب الجيم (ج) :

جبل ، جبهة ، جلس ، جمع ، جن (جنّ ، جنة) ، جناح ، جند ، جهد ، جهنم ، جهل .

باب الحاء (ح) :

حبس ، حبط ، حدث ، حرث ، حرم ، حزب (حزب ، أحزاب) ، حزن ، حسب ، حشر ، حصد ، حضر ، حفظ ، حكم ، حمد ، حمل .

باب الخاء (خ) :

خدع ، خرج ، خسر ، خشع ، خطأ ، خاض ، خاف .

باب الدال (د) :

دخل ، درج (درجة ، درجات) ، درس ، دعا ، دفع .

باب الذال (ذ) :

ذبح ، ذكر ، ذهب .

باب الراء (ر) :

رأى ، ربح ، ربط ، رجع ، رحل ، رحم ، رزق ، رسل (رسول) ، رغب ، ركب .

باب الزاي (ز) :

زرع ، زكى (زكاة) ، زنى ، زهد ، زار .

باب السين (س) :

سأل ، سبح ، سجد ، سجن ، سلم ، سمو (سماء) .

باب الشين (ش):
شبه ، شجر ، شد ، شر ، شرب ، شرح ، شرع ، شرق ، شرك ، شرى ، شفع ، شك ، شكر ، شمل ، شهد .

باب الصاد (ص):
صبح ، صبر ، صحب ، صدق ، صراط ، صدف ، صلح (صالح ، صالحات) ، صلى ، صمت ، صنع .
باب الضاد (ض):
ضحك ، ضرب ، ضعف ، ضل ، ضاق .

باب الطاء (ط):
طرح ، طرد ، طعم ، طعن ، طلب ، طلع ، طهر ، طار ، طاع ، طاف .

باب الظاء (ظ):
ظلم ، ظن ، ظهر .

باب العين (ع):
عبد ، عجب ، عجز ، عدل ، عذب ، عرف ، عكف ، علم ، عظم ، عمل ، عهد ، عاد ، عاش .

باب الغيم (غ):
غرب ، غسل ، غضب ، غفر ، غفل ، غاب .

باب الفاء (ف):
فتح ، فتن ، فرح ، فرض ، فسد ، فقد ، فهم ، فاز .

باب القاف (ق):
قتل ، قرب ، قسم ، قطع ، قعد ، قال ، قام ، قوى .

باب الكاف (ك):
كبر ، كتب ، كتم ، كثر ، كذب ، كرم ، كسب ، كشف ، كفر ، كفى ، كلم .

باب اللام (ل):
لبث ، لبس ، لحق ، لعن ، لقي .

باب الميم (م):
مثل ، مد ، مر ، مرض ، مس ، مسح ، مسك ، مشى ، مكث ، مكر ، ملك ، منع ، مات .

باب النون (ن):
نبا ، نبت ، نجى ، ندم ، نزع ، نزل ، نشأ ، نشر ، نصح ، نصر ، نطق ، نظر ، نكح ، نهى ، نال .

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abbreviation:

BATA: British Association of Teachers of Arabic

CALL : Computers assisted language learning

edit. : edited

ELT : English Language Teaching

ERIC: Educational Resources Information Center

IRAL : International Review of Applied Linguistics.

n.d. : no date

OUP : Oxford University Press

SOAS: School of Oriental and African Studies

TEFL : Teaching English as a Foreign Language

trans. : translation

U.S.A. : United States of America

vol. : volume

Ali, A. Y., (1977), The Holy Qur'an, Translation and Commentary, 2nd. ed., American Trust Publication, U.S.A.

Allen, V.F., (1983), Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary, Oxford University Press (OUP), Oxford.

Ayton, A. and M. Morgan, (1981), Photographic Slides in Language Teaching, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London.

Beg, M.A.J., (1983), Arabic Loan-Words in Malay: A Comparative Study, survey of Arabic and Islamic influence upon the languages of mankind, the University of Malaya Press, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

Belyayev, V., (1963), The Psychology of Teaching Foreign Language, trans. R. F. Higley, Pergamon, Oxford.

Bousfield, W.A., (1957), Cultural Norms for Verbal Items in 43 categories, (Technical Report N. 22), University of Connecticut, Storrs.

_____, (1961), The Connecticut Free Associational Norms, (Technical Report N. 35), University of Connecticut, Storrs.

Brooks, N., (1964), Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice, 2nd. ed., Harcourt, New York.

Carmichael, J., (n.d.), Using Slides in Language Teaching, Modern English Teacher, vol. 6, no. 5.

Carter, R., (1987), Vocabulary Applied Linguistic Perspectives, Allen and Unwin (Publisher) Ltd. 40, Museum Street, London.

- Dale, O'Rourke, Bamman, (1971), Techniques of Teaching Vocabulary, Field Educational Publications, U.S.A.
- Deighton, C., (1959), Vocabulary Development in the Classroom, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
- El-Araby, S.A., (1974), Audio-visual aids for teaching English: An introduction to materials and methods, Longman Group Ltd., London.
- Evans, P., (1979), Slide-tape production as a medium for language development, Visual Education, 1979, January.
- Fries, C.C. and A.E. Traver, (1940), English word list, American Council on Education, Washington.
- Gairns, R. and S. Redman, (1986), Working With Words: A Guide to Teaching and Learning Vocabulary, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Grellet, C. and J. Journet, (1977), Using Slides in Language Teaching-Part one, Modern English Teacher, 1977, vol. 5, no. 1 and 2.
- Hardisty, D and S. Windeatt, (1989), CALL, OUP, Oxford.
- Hill, L.A., (1961), Colour Slides in Language Teaching, English Language Teaching Journal, vol. 15, no. 4.
- Hittleman, D., (1978), Developmental Reading: A Psycholinguistic Perspective, Rand Mc.Nally college Publishing company, Chicago.
- Hubbard, P., H. Jones, B. Thornton, R. Wheeler, (1983), A Training Course for TEFL, OUP, Oxford.
- Lado, R., (1964), Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach, McGraw Hill, New York.
- Locke, J., (1970), The Value of Repetition in Articulation Learning, IRAL, vol. viii, (1970).
- Lord, R., (1974), Learning Vocabulary, IRAL, vol.12, no. 3.
- Mackey, W., (1964), Language Teaching Analysis, Indiana University Press, Bloomington.
- Meara, P., (1980), Vocabulary Acquisition: A Neglected Aspect of Language Learning, Language Teaching and Linguistic: Abstracts, 1980, vol. 13, no.4.
- Miche'a, R., (1964), Basic Vocabularies: New Research and Techniques for the Benefit of Modern Language Teaching, Council for Cultural Cooperation, Strasbourg.
- Michel, J. and P. Patin, (1972), Some Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary, ERIC reports on the teaching of foreign languages, no. 27, American council on the teaching of foreign languages, New York.
- Morgan, J. and M. Rinvoluceri, (1986), Vocabulary, OUP.
- Nation, P., (1980), Strategies for Receptive Vocabulary Learning in Guidelines for Vocabulary Teaching, Regional Centre for English Language, Singapore.
- Pittman, G., (1963), Teaching Structural English, Jacarands, Brisbane.
- Rauf, A.H., (1990), Vocabulary Teaching Strategies, BATA Newsletter, 3, i.

Richards, J.C., (n.d.), A Psycholinguistic Measure of Vocabulary Selection, IRAL, Volume viii, 1970.

_____ and T.S. Rodges, (1986), Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching, Cambridge University Press.

Rivers, W., (1964), The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher, University of Chicago.
Rock, I., (1975), The Role of Repetition in Associative Learning, American Journal of Psychology, 1975, 70.

Salt, M.J., (1976), Vocabulary Acquisition with the Help of Photographic Transparencies, ELT Journal, 30/4.

Sandosham, L., (1980), Using the Word Bank as Vocabulary Building Aid, Regional English Language Centre, Singapore.

Shivtiel, A., (1986), Introduction: Teaching Arabic with the computer, Proceedings of the First Symposium held at the University of Leeds between 21-22 July, 1986.

Sidhu, S., (1991), High-tech learning aids for pre-schoolers, New Straits Times, October 22, 1991.

Surty, M., (1991), Teaching Quranic Arabic, paper presented in the First International Conference in Teaching and Translation Arabic, SOAS, University of London, 12-14 December, 1991.

University Press, (1981), Oxford Photo Dictionary, Walton Street, Oxford.

Valdman, A., (1966), Trends in Language Teaching, McGraw Hill, New York.

Wallace, M., (1982), Teaching Vocabulary, Heinemann Educational Books, Oxford.

West, M., (1953), A General Service List of English Words, Longman.

المراجع العربية

إدارة الشؤون الدينية الاسلامية لحكومة بهانج دار المعمور ، (١٩٨٦) ، المناهج الدراسية المقررة للمدارس الثانوية التابعة لولاية بهانج دار المعمور .

حجازي ، محمود فهمي ، (١٩٩٠) ، كتب اللغة العربية للمدارس الحكومية في ماليزيا ، ورقة عمل قدمت في ندوة تطوير تعليم اللغة العربية في ماليزيا في الفترة من ٤ - ٧ صفر ١٤١١ هـ ، ٢٥ - ٢٧ أغسطس ١٩٩٠ م .

الحديدي ، علي ، (١٩٦٦) ، مشكلة تعليم اللغة العربية لغير العرب ، دار الكاتب العربي للطباعة وانشز ، القاهرة .

عبد القادر ، زين العابدين ، (١٩٩٠) ، تعليم اللغة العربية في مدارس وزارة التربية بماليزيا ، ورقة عمل قدمت في ندوة تطوير تعليم اللغة العربية في ماليزيا في الفترة من ٤ - ٧ صفر ١٤١١ هـ ، ٢٥ - ٢٧ أغسطس ١٩٩٠ م .

عيسوي ، محمود مرغني ، (١٩٩٠) ، الوسائل التعليمية وأهميتها في تعليم اللغة العربية لغير الناطقين بها ، ورقة عمل أقيمت في ندوة تطوير تعليم اللغة العربية في ماليزيا في الفترة من ٤ - ٧ صفر ١٤١١ هـ ، ٢٥ - ٢٧ أغسطس ١٩٩٠ م .

محمد ، عبد الرازق حسن ، (١٩٩٠) ، الألفاظ الماليزية المقترضة من اللغة العربية وكيفية الاستفادة منها في برنامج تعليم اللغة العربية في ماليزيا ، ورقة عمل قدمت في ندوة تطوير تعليم اللغة العربية في ماليزيا في الفترة من ٤ - ٧ صفر ١٤١١ هـ ، ٢٥ - ٢٧ أغسطس ١٩٩٠ م .

نخبة من المؤلفين ، (١٩٨٧) ، الجديد في اللغة العربية للسنة الأولى الإعدادية ، مطبعة أدابي فرسياران زأبا ، تامن تون دقتور إسماعيل ، كولا لمبور .

وزارة التربية الماليزية ، (١٩٩٠) ، المنهج الإضافي للغة العربية - المستوى الثانوي ، مركز

تطوير المناهج بوزارة التربية الماليزية .

_____ ، (١٩٨٢) ، المنهج الدراسي للغة العربية في المراحل المتوسطة والثانوية ، قسم التربية الإسلامية بوزارة التربية الماليزية ، كوالا لمبور .

_____ ، (١٩٩١) ، المنهج الدراسي للغة العربية في المدارس الثانوية ، مركز تطوير المناهج بوزارة التربية الماليزية .

DICTIONARIES

Ba'albaki, M., AL-MAWRID, A modern English-Arabic Dictionary, 17th. ed. (1983), Dār el-Ilm lil-malayin, Beirut, Lebanon.

Davidson, G. and A. Seaton, (1988), Chambers Pocket Dictionary, W & R Chambers Ltd. and Cambridge University Press, 1988.

Hava, J.G., (1982), al-farā'id arabic-english dictionary, Dar el-mashreq, Beirut.

Penrice, J., (1873), A Dictionary and Glossary of the Kor-ān, with copious Grammatical References and Explanations of the Text, Arabic-English, Lebanon Bookshop, Bliss Street, Beirut.

Wehr, H., A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic, edit. by J. Milton Cowan, 1980, Librairie Du Liban, Beirut.

Yusop, A.R., (1988), Malay Dictionary: Malay-English, English-Malay, Collins Sons & Co. Ltd., Great Britain.