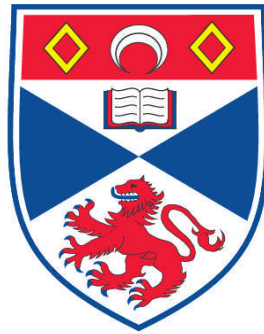


**TEACHING OF ARABIC AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (TAFL) : A
STUDY OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH IN RELATION TO
ARABIC**

Ayoob Y. Jadwat

**A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of PhD
at the
University of St. Andrews**



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TEACHING OF ARABIC AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (TAFL):
A STUDY OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH
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ARABIC

BY

AYOOB Y. JADWAT

Thesis submitted to the University of St. Andrews for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
St. Andrews

June 1987.



ABSTRACT

The study is concerned with the problem of how to improve the teaching of Arabic as a foreign or a second language. It lays down some of the essential foundation-work necessary for bringing about systematic and constructive improvements in the teaching of Arabic as a foreign language (TAFLL) by investigating the contributions of modern linguistic sciences (such as applied linguistics, educational linguistics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics) to the development of foreign language (FL) teaching and learning. A survey of the literature indicates that a 'revolution' is currently taking place in FL teaching and that a new approach, known as the Communicative Approach (CA), has begun to emerge and influence the teaching of FLs in general, over the last decade or so. Since the CA is currently being adopted to the teaching of most major FLs and since this revolution has not yet had much impact on TAFLL, the study explores the possibility of the application of the CA to the teaching of Arabic as a living language.

The thesis is divided into 7 chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the importance of viewing the nature of language and FL teaching from a multidimensional point of view. Chapter 2 outlines the general nature and importance of the subject matter (i.e. the Arabic language) in a wide context. In order to understand what has directly or indirectly influenced the teaching practices of TAFLL, Chapter 3 provides an overview of the development of views of FL teaching approaches and methods in recent times, from formalism (teacher-centred learning) to functionalism (student-centred

learning). Chapter 4 concentrates on providing an interpretation of the current 'state of the art' of TAFL in Britain. A theoretical outline of the CA is presented in Chapter 5. This chapter provides a working hypothesis of a proposed integrative model for communicative competence that can be used as a practical reference tool in the relevant areas of communicative language development in TAFL. Chapter 6 focuses on one of these areas; communicative syllabus design, in which the stages in Arabic language programme development and types of communicative syllabuses are discussed. The last chapter concludes with a suggestion of specific further research needs in TAFL: communicative teaching methodology, communicative materials development, communicative testing techniques and communicative teacher training.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis, in general, to all Arabic language programme developers, syllabus designers, teachers and to those concerned with the teaching of Arabic as a living language. I also dedicate this thesis, in particular, to the Muslim community of South Africa who are concerned with the promotion, teaching and learning of the Arabic language.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I wish to offer my sincere appreciation and gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. J. Burton, for his academic assistance, valuable suggestions, and thoughtful attention during the years which I spent under his guidance. I would also like to thank him for his generosity with his time, for his encouragement, and for providing me with an opportunity to pursue study in this relatively little explored and much needed area of research.

Acknowledgements are due to many others for providing valuable information in the form of literature, important reference sources, interviews and observed teaching practice, throughout the writing of this thesis. These range from educationists, linguists, applied linguists and Arabic language teachers. Some of these who need to be thanked here are: Peter Abboud of Austin, J.A. Allan and R.C. Ostle of SOAS, Adrian Brockett of Leeds, John Clark of the Scottish Curriculum Development Service (Edinburgh Centre), Salah El- Ghobashy of PCL, Gerald Groffman and John Harding (UKAS) of the Schools' Arabic Project, Adrian Gully of Exeter, Derek

Hopwood of BRISMES, Ros Mitchell of Stirling, Hassan Mustapha of Salford, Rex Smith of Durham, Muḥammad Sulaiman, Richard Kimber and Sam Taylor of St. Andrews, John Trim of CILT, Janice Yalden of Carleton and others. I must also thank the staff of the main library, all my friends and colleagues in St. Andrews and abroad who have helped me directly or indirectly in preparing this thesis, and the Scottish people for making my stay in Scotland a memorable one. I thank Mrs. Kerr for typing this thesis and for helping me put it together and bring it to life.

Finally, I am deeply indebted to the Jadwat family for their continuous and unfailing moral support and generous financial assistance throughout my study abroad, without which this thesis would not have been completed. I appreciate the patience of my dear parents, especially my mother who has waited so long for my return (قل رب ارحمهما كما ربياني صغيرا). A special note of thanks goes to my brother, Farouk, for ensuring my comfortable stay abroad and to my cousin, Ibrahim, for making it possible for me to study in Libya for six years, which provided me with a good foundation in the Arabic language. Lastly, but not least, I owe a special debt of appreciation and gratitude to my wife, Zakira and her family whose constant encouragement, support and patience proved invaluable for my study and to our son, Waseem, who has been a source of strength and love to us both.

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DECLARATIONS

- (a) I AYOUB Y. JADWAT..... hereby certify that this thesis which is approximately 100,000 words in length has been written by me, that it is the record of work carried out by me and that it has not been submitted in any previous application for a higher degree.

Date 11 JUNE 1987..... Signature of Candidate

- (b) I was admitted as a research student under Ordinance No. 12 on 7 OCTOBER 1981..... and as a candidate for the degree of Ph.D...... on 29 APRIL 1982; the higher study for which this is a record was carried out in the University of St. Andrews between 1982..... and 1987..... .

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CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that the candidate has fulfilled the conditions of the Resolution and Regulations appropriate to the degree of Ph.D. of the University of St. Andrews and he is qualified to submit this thesis in application for the degree.

Date 11/vi/87..... Signature of Supervisor

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ABBREVIATIONS

AL	:	Arabic Language
A-LM	:	Audio-Lingual Method
A-VM	:	Audio-Visual Method
CA(s)	:	Communicative Approach(es)
CC	:	Communicative Competence
CSD	:	Communicative Syllabus Design
DC	:	Discourse or Rhetorical Competence
DM	:	Direct Method
FL(s)	:	Foreign Language(s)
G-TM	:	Grammar-Translation Method
L1	:	First Language or Mother-Tongue
L2	:	Second or Foreign Language
LC	:	Linguistic or Grammatical Competence
MT	:	Mother-Tongue
NL	:	Native or First Language of Learners
RM	:	Reading Method
SC	:	Strategic Competence (Communication Strategies)
SLC	:	Sociolinguistic Competence
TAFL	:	Teaching of (or Teach) Arabic as a Foreign Language
TL	:	Target Language to be learnt, i.e. the FL

TRANSLITERATION

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

Short vowels

ا	a
و	u
ي	i

Long vowels

ا	ā
آ	'ā
و	ū
ي	ī

Diphthongs

او	au
اي	ai

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

بِسْمِ اللّٰهِ الرَّحْمٰنِ الرَّحِیْمِ

1.1. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is an attempt to improve, upgrade and update the TAFL or as a L2 by investigating recent developments in FL teaching and learning. The teaching of Arabic has remained for too long in the clutches of classical tradition which implies that it is a "dead" language on a par with Latin and Greek, which are no longer used for communication. On the contrary, the Arabic language today is a living language, a modern language and also an international language, with a contemporary literature and culture (as well as its past literature and culture). As such, it should not be taught passively but actively as other modern languages.

The FL or modern language teaching-profession is undergoing a "revolution" owing to the emergence and research findings of new disciplines over the last two decades, which are directly related to FL teaching and learning. These new disciplines, to name the most important, are applied linguistics, educational linguistics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

Interesting and exciting work on theory, research and practice in these areas from both sides of the Atlantic over the last decade has steadily gained momentum, producing an enormous amount of literature. How to cope with this literature and thus, how to keep abreast professionally are questions Arabic teachers cannot ignore but which require urgent attention, particularly if they are eager to improve the teaching and learning of Arabic at all levels. In this sense, this thesis is an attempt to bridge the widening gap that exists between the recent successful trends in teaching FLs and the current unsatisfactory "state of the art"

in TAFL, caused mainly by the traditional methods being employed in most Arabic textbooks and language courses. However, explorations into the literature suggest that controversies concerning the best method concept is becoming a side issue and that a new approach in teaching FLs has begun to emerge over the last decade known as the Communicative Approach (CA), the topic of this thesis. The CA is thus considered as an umbrella concept for the various recent developments in FL teaching and practice. As a result of these developments, there has been a major shift in the view of language and its functions. Learning to master the grammatical structure of a FL is regarded as only one part in the whole language teaching and learning process which is no longer a single-discipline approach, but a multifactor and multidisciplinary approach.

The main purpose of this study, therefore, is to outline, discuss and highlight the main elements of the CA that are most relevant to the TAFL and to suggest ways and means of applying them to Arabic. Since no previous research work has considered the feasibility of the CA as a whole to the teaching of Arabic, this study lays down a general broad basis of the CA thus indicating the specific areas that need to be developed for Arabic in future research projects.

1.2. Nature of Language

There are many forms of communication among the inhabitants of our planet, be they human or otherwise. For human beings, language is certainly the most important form of communication, although not the only form. It is a gift from God to the human race and yet it is taken for granted because it is so central to our natures as human beings. Consider, for instance, how our faculty of speech functions through the vocal-aural apparatus. The mouth, nose, throat, tongue, etc., (used for breathing, eating and drinking) are ingeniously adapted to produce speech. And this is, besides the other forms of productive and receptive skills used by human beings to communicate such as writing (using the hand productively), reading (using the eyes productively in oral reading and receptively in silent reading), listening (using the ears in a receptive aural activity) and finally the use of the brain for the mental processes that are required to perform each one of these skills properly. What then, is meant by language for human beings? Brown (1980:5) provides a comprehensive definition of language by suggesting that it is an essentially human form of behaviour which makes use of a system of communication consisting of arbitrary symbols, both vocal and visual, which have been assigned meaning by a speech community.

It has been said that one of the best ways of understanding the nature of language is by trying to teach or learn a language (Stern 1983:122). In discussing what principles should be followed in the teaching of foreign languages (FLs), we need to examine the nature of language itself and the

nature of language learning because ultimately the decisions one takes when teaching FLs are consciously or unconsciously influenced by the views one holds about the nature of language. Language may be generally described as a means of communication or as knowledge, skill, behaviour, habit, object, tool, system or as Brumfit (1984:27) describes it, as a dynamic, not a static system. But, what are the innate qualities of language that leads one to these views? We agree with Mackey (1965:3) that modern theories of language are more concerned with how language works than with why it exists. Since language is a social phenomenon, one person's perception of language may be quite different from or even contrary to another's. This is so, because the science of modern linguistics is a relatively new field of study and its branches such as applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, etc. are even newer still and thus they are too recent to be a unified science. The serious interest in the structure and use of languages which goes back more than 2,000 years (such as in Indian, Greek, Latin and Arabic works) is not meant here; what is meant is the scientific attempts to understand the phenomenon of language by examining objectively how human beings communicate and think. Concerning this McArthur (1983:5) states that:

Linguistics is currently at a stage similar to early physics or biology, a time in which a variety of more or less competing hypotheses and systems of description have not yet given way to one agreed view.

This is why when one asks generally: What is language? one would get a large number of different answers to this simple question. Mackey

(1965:3) observes that to the philosopher, language may be an instrument of thought; to the sociologist, a form of behaviour; to the psychologist, a cloudy window through which one glimpses the workings of the mind; to the logician, it may be a calculus; to the engineer, a series of physical events; to the statistician, a selection by choice and chance; to the linguist, a system of arbitrary signs and so on. In discussing this question, Corder concludes very aptly by admitting that language is such a complex phenomenon that no one view-point can see it as a whole. "The question we really need to ask is not which view is 'right', but which view is useful, which view is relevant to language teaching" (Corder 1973:21).

Since we are concerned here with the nature of language and more specifically the nature of human language and how it is learned, we cannot ignore the contributions of those involved in the study of language from the sociological and psychological points of view (i.e. sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics) besides the linguistic point of view. Although sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics are both fields of enquiry which are still in their infancy, they do provide us with some useful insights into the nature of language and language learning. Sociolinguistics is contributing towards the questions of: how does language work in society? and what are the functions of language? and therefore, adopting a functional view of language. Whereas, psycholinguistics is concerned with the processes involved in learning since it considers language learning as a psychological process that an individual goes through and, therefore, psycholinguistics is proposing the skills and activities necessary

for effective language learning. On the other hand, the linguistic view of language provides us with the description of language which may be the best means available for characterizing what we teach, but it does not provide us with the means of determining what to teach and how to teach (Corder, *Ibid*:86). What, then, is the description of language provided by linguistics? In describing language, linguists have divided it into many levels or components, ⁽¹⁾ but only four components have been generally recognized as the essential parts of language: phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Bakalla (1975:xvii) describes these four components of Arabic in the following manner: "the phonological component of the language consists of the sounds and their interrelationships; the morphological component concerns the structure of the words and the relations within the word level; the syntactic component pertains to the structure of the sentence and sentence patterns; the semantic component is used to study the meanings within the preceding components and the relationship between the linguistic structure and the extra-linguistic world." However, traditional linguists have normally ignored semantics as an essential component of language and they concentrate on just three components and call them: phonology, vocabulary and grammar.

(1) Mackey (1965:37) observes that the division of language maintained by linguists varies anywhere from two (phonology and morphology) to fourteen levels. This is done by reducing the traditional three levels (phonology, lexis and syntax) or by subdivision or additions. See comparative table of these levels in Mackey (*Ibid*:38-9).

The important contribution of this linguistic view of language is that it provides us with a limited number of linguistic rules to cope with, however detailed the component parts of language may be. The linguistic rules of language may be limited but the number of potential sentences and utterances that a native speaker possesses through his or her linguistic creativity is unlimited. In other words, in our everyday use of language we continually express ourselves in an infinite number of ways, but the rules we use to do this are finite (Wilkins 1974:3).

Wilkins (*ibid.*) states that just as life itself places us in situations that are never twice the same, so language allows us continually to express novel propositions through finite means. In this way, the nature of language can be distinguished as something that is finite (rules) and something that is infinite (linguistic creativity). Thus, both these aspects of language are included when Mackey (1965:80) states that "learning to speak a FL is the acquiring of an ability to express oneself in different sounds and different words through the use of a different grammar" from the native language (NL) of the learner.

1.3. Nature of Language Teaching

Applied linguistics⁽¹⁾ does not look at language in the same way that descriptive linguistics views it. Applied linguistics looks at language from the teaching point of view and tries to provide us with the means of

(1) Applied linguistics is the application of linguistic knowledge to some object in language teaching which is a field of study barely forty years old (see Corder 1973:11).

determining what to teach, how to teach, and also solutions to some of the problems which arise in the course of planning, organizing and carrying out a language teaching programme, both inside and outside the classroom. Corder (1973:11) refers to these questions and problems as not just aspects of language teaching, but within the context of the 'total language-teaching operation' which includes all planning and decision-making at different levels. To make this point clearer, he (Ibid:13) summarizes the hierarchy of planning functions in the 'total language-teaching operation' in the following table:

Level 1	Political	Government	Whether, what language, whom to teach?
Level 2	Linguistic, Sociolinguistic	Applied Linguist	What to teach, when to teach, how much to teach?
Level 3	Psycholinguistic, Pedagogic	Classroom teacher	How to teach?

Table 1: Hierarchy of planning functions in the total language-teaching operation (after Corder 1973:13)

If language itself is considered to be such a complex phenomenon, what about language teaching? It could prove to be even more complicated. Stern (1983:32) has attempted to define a theory of language teaching by suggesting some criteria for characterizing a good language teaching theory. He states that:

A good language teaching theory will strive to provide a conceptual framework devised for identifying all factors relevant in the teaching of languages and the relationships

between them and for giving effective direction to the practice of language teaching, supported by the necessary research and enquiry.

Stern (Ibid), however admits that good theory development is an ongoing process and that the criteria mentioned above provide only guidelines for clear and more productive thinking. In order to provide language teaching with a clearer picture of what is involved in a conceptual framework of the type mentioned above by Stern, various models or schemes of language teaching and learning have been proposed in recent times. The most well known ones are those by Campbell (1980), Ingram (1980), Mackey (1970), Roulet (1975), Spolsky (1980), Stern (1983) and Strevens (1976, 1977). Two of these tentative models will be discussed here to show how other disciplines impinge on language teaching. The models of Spolsky and Stern are most suitable for this purpose, although they are just guides to make us aware of the enormous complexity of language teaching today.

Spolsky (1980:72) provides an educational linguistics model in the following figure:

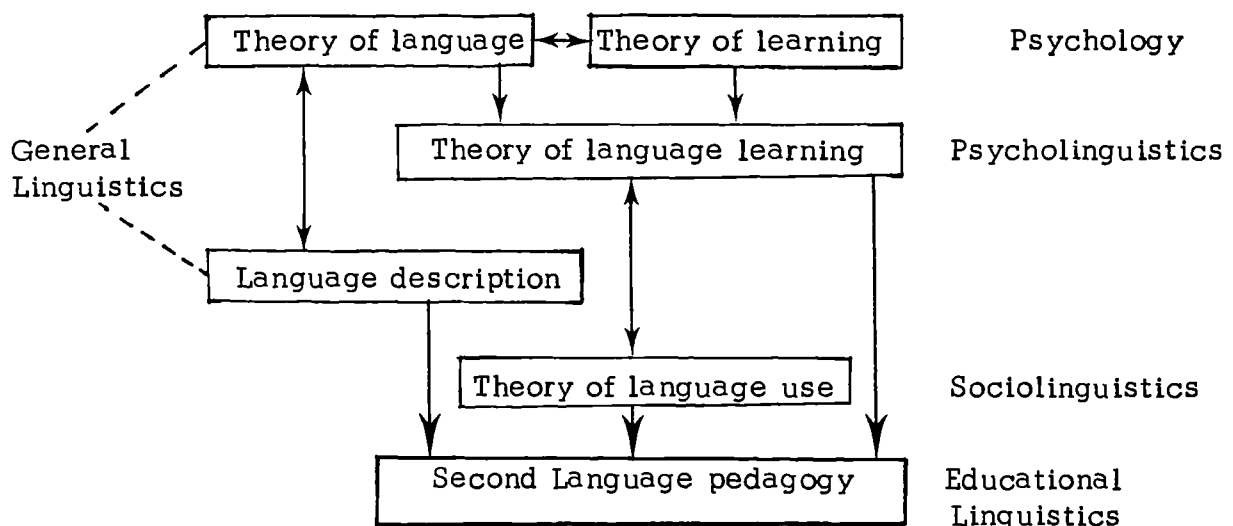


Fig. 1: Spolsky's Educational Linguistic Model

In this model, Spolsky shows that linguistics alone, and even psychology, is not sufficient as a basis for language teaching. The bidirectional arrows indicate interactive processes. *Second language pedagogy* is shown to have three main sources in this model: language description a theory of language learning and a theory of language use. Accordingly, language description is obtained from a theory of language but, a theory of language learning is derived from both a theory of language and also a theory of learning. From this model, it can be seen that Spolsky includes four disciplines that impinge on language teaching by providing the necessary theoretical foundations and the data underlying language teaching. These are psychology for the theory of learning, psycholinguistics for the theory of language learning, sociolinguistics for a theory of language use in society and general linguistics for a theory of language and language description. Concerning this model Stern (1983:37) states that "these four disciplines come together in dealing with the problem of language education and thus constitute a problem-oriented discipline which Spolsky calls educational linguistics, and which others have called applied linguistics." Although Spolsky's model distinguishes clearly the main components of a language teaching theory and the specific role that each discipline performs in relation to these components, Stern (Ibid:39) finds that this model leaves out the practical aspects and the pressures of the world in which language education takes place, also the methodology of language teaching and other matters constituting the substance of pedagogy. Stern, thus, proposes his own model mainly because none of the previous models on language teaching and learning provide an entirely satisfactory

framework as outlined in his definition of a theory of language teaching as quoted above (p.9-10). His model incorporates many aspects of previous models and it is intended to be a 'metatheory' or a general conceptual framework for language teaching which is given on page 13.

This model could serve as a tentative map to guide language teachers along the path of good language practice. According to Stern (Ibid:45), the object of the model is:

1. to serve as a conceptual framework for theory development,
2. to provide categories and criteria for the interpretation and evaluation of existing theories,
3. to provide essential conceptualizations for planning and practice, and
4. to give directions to research.

Stern characterizes the model as being general since it attempts to offer a basis for an unbiased examination of relevant factors in language pedagogy, including controversial aspects. But, Stern hopes that on the basis of this analytical and detached approach, one can arrive at certain criteria which will make it possible to make more informed judgements, to define more clearly areas of knowledge and ignorance, to make better policy decisions, and to guide practice more effectively (Ibid:46). The bidirectional arrows used by Spolsky to indicate interactive processes are also used here by Stern to show the major relationships and the interdependence of the components of the model. This principle of interaction is interpreted by Stern as complementary co-operation among individuals fulfilling different roles in the total scheme. By dividing the diagram into three levels, he

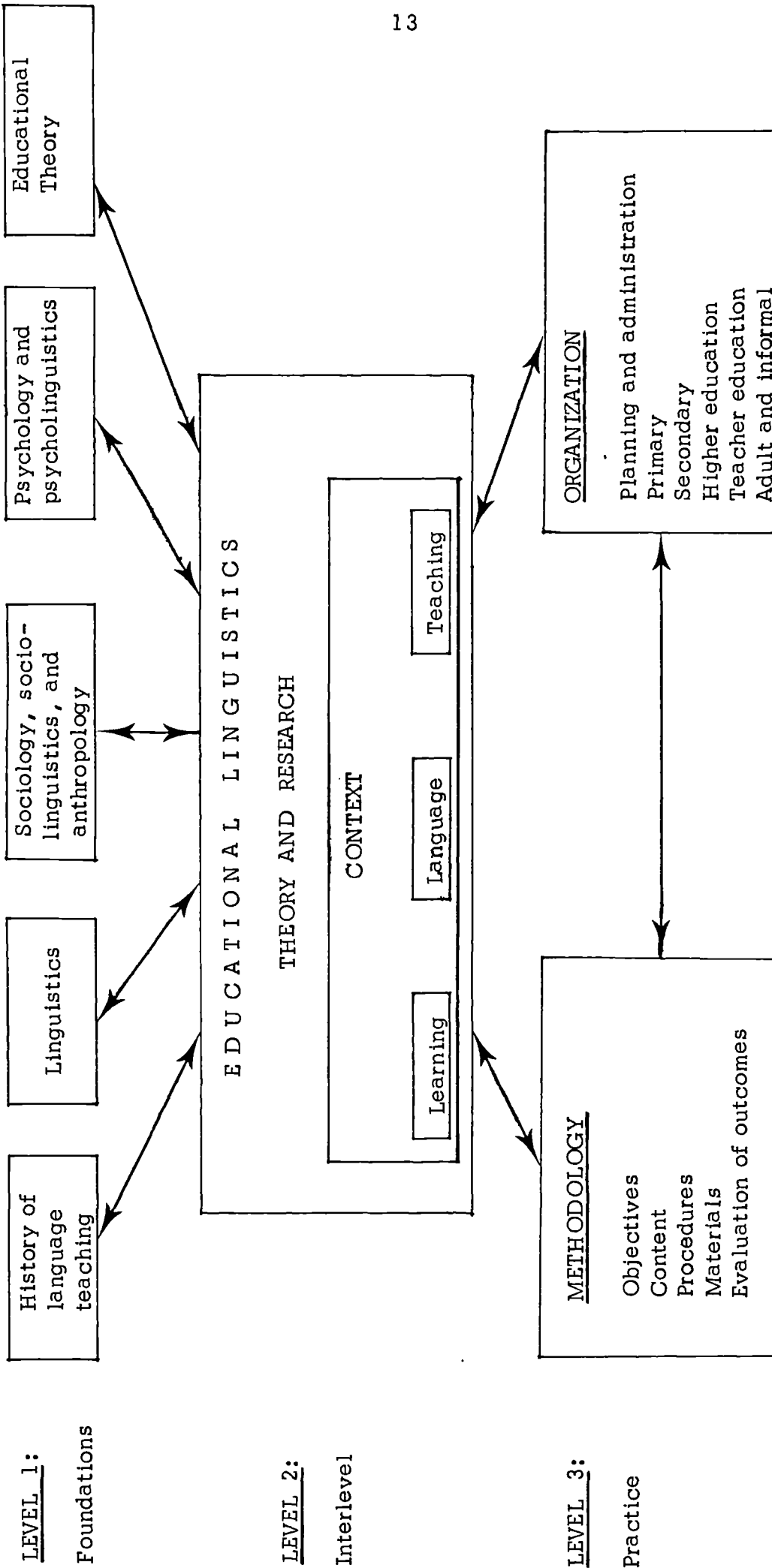


Fig. 2: A General Model for L2 Teaching (after Stern 1983:44)

suggests these different roles. At the foundation level of theory development (level 1), the roles of specialists are visualized in the relevant disciplines such as linguists, psycholinguists, sociolinguists, and so on. At the mediating interdisciplinary level (level 2), the roles of language teaching theorists, research workers, or applied linguists are implied. And finally at the practical level of language teaching (level 3), practitioners, teachers, testers, administrators, and curriculum workers are considered. Stern notes that this division into levels represents differences in functions, but not necessarily a separation in terms of persons. These three levels are also considered as levels of abstraction with level 1 as the most abstract and level 3 as the most concrete of the representations of language teaching theory. The overall design of his model "is the flow of thought from theoretical disciplines to practice and from practice to theory" (Ibid:47) which is the central issue of his book (Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching) and, in fact, his whole book focuses mainly on levels 1 and 2 only of the model.

Since Stern intends his model to be used as a visual aid to the sequence of argument, he states that the point of view represented by the model is that in language teaching we have to operate with four key concepts: language, learning, teaching and context (level 2). These four concepts can be considered as the basis for language teaching theory. Accordingly he observes that "any particular language teaching theory, . . . , whether it is a formulated expression of thought (for e.g. a 'method' or 'approach') or an unformulated theory or set of principles implicit in the organization or activities of language teaching practice can be regarded as an expression

of these four key concepts" (Ibid:48) and that we can begin to formulate, probe, interpret, or evaluate a language teaching theory by asking a few questions about each one of these concepts, as discussed below:

1. Language: By adopting the concept of language, Stern refers to the view and nature of language represented in a particular language teaching theory. To understand this concept, we need linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and the study of particular languages.

2. Learning: For this concept, he refers to the views needed of the learner and the nature of language learning. The disciplines needed for learning are psychology, particularly educational psychology, and psycholinguistics for language learning and language use.

3. Teaching: The views of the language teacher and language teaching are needed for the concept of teaching. The study of education is most directly related to teaching.

4. Context: Since all language teaching occurs in a given context, the fourth and last concept described by Stern (Ibid:48-9) is context. He observes that language, learning and teaching must always be viewed in a given context, setting or background and, therefore, three sets of questions need to be answered: What is the language context? What is the educational setting? and What is the language teaching background?

Concerning the first question about 'the language context', for Stern it has a bearing on language teaching since the learner's first language (L1) and the target language (TL) manifest themselves in certain social,

cultural and political contexts. Thus, questions about the place of languages and language learning in a particular society and the sociolinguistic context in which a certain language is to be taught are considered. In Stern's view, the social sciences enable us to study these questions such as sociology, sociolinguistics, social psychology and cultural anthropology. For 'the educational setting', he poses the question of the place of languages in this setting and how can L2 teaching fit into the specific educational context. For this, educational and sociolinguistic analyses are required. For the third and last question concerning 'the language teaching background', he refers to the historical and contemporary background of language teaching itself, since in his view language teaching has evolved against a background of existing and past developments in language pedagogy. For this analysis, studies on the history of language teaching, educational theory, and the interpretation of the current 'state of the art' are required.

All the relevant disciplines mentioned under each one of the four key concepts above (i.e. language, learning, teaching and context) have been derived from level 1 which serves as a foundation for theory development. Stern (Ibid:50) observes that these four key concepts constitute the key abstractions of educational linguistics.

Finally, level 3 of the model which represents the level of language teaching practice is self-explanatory. Stern (Ibid:52,n10) calls this level the study of 'language education', 'language pedagogy' or 'language didactics' (a term introduced by Mackey, 1965). Stern (Ibid:520) states

in his conclusion that while educational linguistics (level 2) is mainly 'discipline-oriented' the study of language education (level 3) is 'practice- and problem-oriented', and on the basis of educational linguistics, the study of language education will examine the methodology of language teaching and its institutional organization. Since language teaching theory manifests itself through both methodology and organization, thus under methodology the following topics are considered: objectives (of teaching the FL and the course), content (of the FL), teaching procedures (strategies and techniques), teaching materials and the evaluation of outcomes of the whole methodological process. Under organization, the institutional arrangements made for language are analysed, such as governmental planning and administration and the different stages of the educational system, including teacher training and adult and informal education. In this model, methodology is relevant and important at each stage of organization.

It is clear from the above discussion that the study of language today is no longer a single-factor or a single-discipline approach; on the contrary, it is a multifactor, multidisciplinary and multilevel approach that is needed to confront the enormous problems present in current FL teaching. Although a fully comprehensive theory of language teaching and learning is not yet developed, the five fields of study identified by Stern in his tentative model above could prove to be essential for the development of a satisfactory theory of language teaching. These five fields of study are the history of language pedagogy, the language sciences, the social sciences, psychology and educational theory.

1.4. Values and Objectives of FL Study

Communities and nations world-wide are becoming more and more cosmopolitan and multicultural in this modern age, owing to rapid and efficient means of transport and communications. In this context, knowing a L2 or a FL or even several languages is extremely valuable and not impossible to aim at, as McArthur (1983:10) observes: "all normal human beings, under normal conditions, are born with the capacity to acquire at least one language, and probably more than one". Indeed, this is the situation in many parts of the world, where out of necessity to function in society, people speak at least two languages and sometimes three or four. Statistics show that more than a billion people in the world speak more than one language fluently. On the other hand, if this bilingual or multilingual trend is not encouraged but reversed to only monolingual communities and nations, then this would be a recipe for disaster for it would lead to the creation of linguistic barriers between nations (as is the case between the Superpowers today) and people, which would consequently lead to isolation and misunderstanding. Instead of the Superpowers spending such enormous sums of money on horrific lethal weapons that could not only wipe themselves off the face of the earth but also all the people in it, they should be spending this money more usefully and practically by teaching people the languages and cultures of other nations so that people can understand the values and attitudes of

other people and thus, increase their sympathy and tolerance for persons of other cultures and languages. Perhaps, in this way conditions for world peace can be created and maybe the world can understand and solve the Middle East problem or the crisis it faces (the Palestinian Question). The words of Erasmus should be heeded: "It is through ignorance of language that the world of learning fell on evil days and even came close to extinction." The value of learning FLs, therefore, can be attributed to the basic survival of the human race.

Through recent findings in neurolinguistic and psycholinguistic studies, Krashen et al (1982:9-10) state that expanding mental abilities may be reason enough to learn a L2. For instance, they observe that neurolinguistic research is beginning to suggest that people who know more than one language make use of more of the brain than monolinguals do. ⁽¹⁾ On the other hand, psycholinguistic research is indicating that people who control more than one language are verbally more skilful, they have better auditory memory, they are better at intuiting meaning from unknown words, etc., than monolinguals (Ibid.). The two most important objectives of the advocates of classical languages (such as Latin and Greek) had been and still is the development of the student's

(1) After a series of post-mortem studies on polyglot brains (i.e. brains of people who spoke from 3 to 26 languages), neurolinguists have found that certain parts of these brains were especially well developed and markedly furrowed (Ibid.). It seems that God has provided human beings with the ability to function in more than one language, that is why this part of the brain remains underdeveloped in monolinguals.

intellectual powers and teaching another language as the key to a great literature and civilization (Rivers 1981:8-10). The first aim of the classicist or traditionalist would appear to be the same aim put forward by Krashen et al above, but they are not. By Krashen et al's aim of expanding mental abilities is meant that learners of a FL have become effective communicators through the acquisition of the four basic linguistic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Whereas in the view of the traditionalist, the student's intellectual powers are developed through training the mind by the abstract analysis of the FL grammar, with a great deal of memorization of complicated rules and paradigms, and also the application of these rules in translation exercises. This resulted in making learners proficient in only the reading ability and perhaps in writing, but with no fluency in speaking. This was so because utility or practical and functional uses of the FL were not considered as legitimate aims by traditionalists. Intellectual development is no doubt a legitimate aim of all education, but are the techniques proposed by the traditionalists appropriate for today's learners who have wide-ranging attitudes and interests, coupled with the pressures of society. ⁽¹⁾

Concerning learners' interests Alexander and van Ek (1984:116) observe that "even the most naive learners start a FL course with the expectation

(1) In discussing the roles of objectives of FL study van Ek (1984:77) states that in principle, educational systems are designed to provide society with the attitudes, knowledge and skills required for its existence and to provide the individual members of society with opportunities to fulfil their own potential.

that it will enable them to do things in the FL, particularly to do things which they feel they may want to do when in contact with FL speakers." Thus, student needs are becoming more and more important in the formulation of FL objectives.

Confronted with this problem of FL objectives, Rivers (1983:189-92) made an interesting world-wide survey in 1978 of FL learners' goals in 50 countries all over the world and also the 50 states of the USA. Although the response from teachers to this survey was diverse, there are a few objectives that were given more priority over others. Two of these were the most highly rated: oral communication and cultural and international understanding (which includes understanding the values and viewpoints of others; seeing the world from a different perspective; combating chauvinism; feeling of belonging to an international community, etc.). These two aims were given top priority mainly in the highly developed countries of the world, together with the aim of knowing a FL for career purposes but to a lesser degree. However, the lesser developed countries' main aims were knowing a FL for career purposes,⁽¹⁾ reading of technical literature for the development of science and technology, and also oral communication. Knowing a FL for travel purposes, broadening opportunities (including mass media), and the educational experience of another mode of learning were the less

(1) Economic futurists predict that knowledge of a FL will be among the most sought after skills for business people from the 1980's on into the 21st century (Krashen et al, 1982:9).

important aims expressed by most of the countries in the survey. The most common aim of FL learners' goals in most of the countries that participated in this survey indicates some aspect of oral fluency or communication for career purposes or otherwise. This fact, therefore, cannot be ignored in designing FL courses for specific purposes, as well as in general education.

The importance of language teaching objectives has already been mentioned above in Stern's model of L2 teaching (p.13). Stern assigns to it the first position in any methodological proposal at the practical level of teaching FLs (level 3). Although learning goals are always present, usually in the form of more or less specified learning aims or objectives in organized learning (such as university or school syllabuses), these need to be made explicit (van Ek 1984:76). As van Ek (Ibid.) observes, clear objectives give meaningful direction to the organization of learning and "in the absence of such explicitly adopted and consciously planned objectives, teachers will often resort to those course materials which happen to be available, if not actually prescribed, and then the acquisition of the content of a course book may, intentionally or unintentionally, become the objective". If, for instance, the objective of a course is the ability to read and speak Arabic, then much reading and speaking practice will need to be provided through a conscious selection of certain learning experiences and activities that would lead to the desired result. Van Ek (Ibid:77) also distinguishes objectives into two types: terminal and intermediate. Terminal objectives are those that

describe the intended end-result of the learning process and they are regarded as a powerful source of motivation, if they are chosen by the learners themselves. Intermediate objectives are the objectives of each successive stage in the learning process (e.g. the mastering of certain skills by a certain period of time) which leads to the desired result (i.e. the terminal objectives). Van Ek (Ibid.) notes that the intermediate objectives may also be a source of motivation especially if they are clearly related towards the terminal objectives; they enable learners to monitor their own progress by providing them with the satisfaction that meaningful progress is being made. Finally, he observes that if organized learning is to be optimally effective, carefully planned objectives are indispensable.

As a conclusion to this section, a comprehensive general framework of objectives for FL learning is provided. This framework has been adapted from the report of a working party of the British National Congress on Languages in Education by Trim (1984:123-28). In this framework, Trim divides the educational aims of modern language or FL learning into two parts. The first part deals with general educational aims for the cognitive (intellectual) and affective (emotional and moral) development of the learner. The second part is concerned with ten specific aims of modern language learning, which will be listed below. As Trim (Ibid:128) observes, this list provides an overall framework within which detailed operationally-defined objectives (terminal and intermediate objectives) can be situated and courses leading to them can be evaluated.

Specific Aims of Modern Language or FL Learning

1. to extend the learner's horizon of communication beyond that of his own linguistic community;
2. to enable him/her to communicate in face-to-face situations with speakers of another language;
3. to enable him/her to search for, discover and understand information relevant to his/her needs and interests through the medium of a FL;
4. to enable him/her to realize the validity of other ways of organizing, categorizing and expressing experience, and other ways of managing personal interactions;
5. to raise his general level of language awareness, i.e. the characteristic properties and make-up of his own language in relation to those of another language, and of the uses to which language is put in everyday life;
6. to develop his/her confidence, through a limited but successful experience of learning and using a FL, in his/her ability to meet the challenges posed by living in a foreign environment;
7. to enable him/her to mediate between monolingual members of the two language communities concerned;
8. to enable him/her imaginatively to extend the repertory of roles he/she can construct and play within contexts in which the FL can be used, such that he/she:
 - a. engages purposively and appropriately in those contexts,
 - b. reflects on the processes of language and of social interaction involved,

- c. develops his understanding of the complexities of personal interaction in social contexts;
9. to enable him/her to develop the study skills necessary to the effective, self-directed study of other languages (or the same language to a higher level or for specific purposes) in later life;
 10. to give him/her (using language as a paradigm) insight into and experience of working within human institutions with their combination of partial systematicity and historically determined arbitrariness.

CHAPTER TWO

NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE ARABIC LANGUAGE

2.1. Preview

Chapter One outlines mainly the enormous complexities involved in teaching FLs today by examining the nature of language and language teaching and the values and objectives of FL study. This outline is intended as an overview of what is required in planning and designing TAFL programmes. Arising from the discussion on the nature of language teaching above (1.3.), Spolsky's Educational Linguistic model (Fig. 1) and Stern's General Model for L2 Teaching (Fig. 2) have several implications. Spolsky's (1980) model indicates that L2 pedagogy has three main sources: language description, a theory of language learning, and a theory of language use. Whereas, Stern's (1983) model stresses that in FL teaching, we need to operate with four key concepts: language, learning, teaching, and context. This chapter is devoted mainly to the 'language description' part of Spolsky's model and the 'concept of language' (linguistics) part of Stern's model in relation to Arabic. The other aspects of both these models are discussed in the subsequent chapters of the thesis.

Although this thesis is concerned about TAFL, we need first to describe the nature and importance of the subject matter at hand before exploring the means of determining what to teach and how to teach it. This chapter, therefore, looks at the nature of the Arabic language and its importance in a wide context. The nature of Arabic can be distinguished as something that is finite and something that is infinite, as discussed above (1.2.). Since the linguistic view of language provides us with the finite rules of Arabic, which may be the best means available of describing what to teach because they are static, these rules are also broadly described here mainly from the linguistic point of view.

2.2. Nature of the Arabic Language

If linguists accept the definition of Romance languages as the linguistic consequence of the Roman Empire, they need also to accept a parallel definition of the Arabic language as the linguistic consequence of the Islamic Civilization, through the direct result of Muḥammad's successful mission as the Prophet of Islam (Semaan 1968:335). The only difference is that in the case of the former, Latin divided into various European languages such as Italian, French, Spanish, etc. Whereas in the latter case, the different dialects of Arabic present in Arabia at the beginning of Islam gave way to the language of the Qur'ān⁽¹⁾ which served as a great unifying and spiritual force as the lingua franca for the Arabs at

(1) There is a great deal of controversy in the literature concerning what is meant by the 'language of the Qur'ān' and the origin of this language. See, for instance, Chejne (1969), and "Kur'ān" and "Arabiyya" in Encyclopaedia of Islam (New ed.). Most early Arab schools believed that the Qur'ān was revealed in the dialect of the Quraish (since the Qur'ān was standardised in this dialect at the command of the third Khalīfah 'Uthmān) which was also the language of 'Classical Arabic' poetry of that time. On the other hand, most Western Arabists agree that the language of the Qur'ān stands somewhere between the 'poetical standard koinē' and the Ḥijāzi dialect. It is widely accepted now that in the late 6th century A.D., the 'poetical standard koinē' was a purely literary dialect, distinct from all spoken idioms, super-tribal and practically uniform throughout Arabia. Finally, Chejne (1969:9) states that "diverse as these theories may appear, none of the theorists, whatever their school, would dismiss lightly, even today, the divine endowment of the language which is evident in the clear Arabic of the Qur'ān."

first, and then in the Arab-Muslim Empires and thereafter to the present day as the national and official language of all the Arab states of North Africa and the Middle East. This linguistic unification of the Arabic language was achieved only because of the incalculable influence on the Muslims of the Qur'ān, with its sacred and elevated status, and the remarkable achievement of linguistic standardisation and codification made by the early Muslim scholars of Baṣra and Kūfa.⁽¹⁾ This movement preserved the intrinsic nature of the Arabic language because it has had a continuous and uninterrupted existence from that time until the present and it has also prevented the Arabic dialects from becoming separate languages. Although hundreds of spoken Arabic dialects that developed from the Arabic language have come and gone throughout the ages none of them, not even the dialects of today have been accorded the status of a fully independent written language worthy of being recorded and preserved for future generations, except, perhaps Maltese which is

(1) The Arabic language was systematically standardised in these two great philological centres, since the 3rd and 4th H. centuries.

The basic sources used for this work were:

1. The text of the Holy Qur'ān,
2. Pre-Islamic and early Islamic poetry,
3. The Traditions, epistles and speeches of the Prophet, and
4. The sayings and speeches of the Khulafā' and the famous orators of the early Islamic period.

This resulted in the grammar, syntax, vocabulary and the literary usages of the language being clearly defined after laborious research. For more details see 'Arabiyya' in Encyclopaedia of Islam (1960:567, new ed.).

regarded as a hybrid mixture of Arabic and Italian. Stetkevych (1970:1) has called Arabic a 'privileged' language and he makes the following interesting observation about it:

It has lived for one millennium and a half essentially unchanged, usually gaining, never completely losing. Venus-like it was born in a perfect state of beauty, and it has preserved that beauty in spite of all the hazards of history and all the corrosive forces of time It has known austerity, holy ecstasy and voluptuousness, bloom and decadence. It exuberated in times of splendour and persisted through times of adversity in a state of near-hibernation. But when it awoke again, it was the same language.

Concerning the nature of the language itself, McLoughlin (1986:3) states that "there is a direct line of descent from Classical Arabic, the language of the Qur'ān to modern Arabic so that across 1400 years (in the Islamic calendar) the script is recognizably the same, the grammar has changed remarkably little (by comparison with, for e.g., German or English) and even the vocabulary has shown an astonishing integrity and consistency." The change has been even less than, for instance, the change from Chaucer's English to modern English. Semaan (1968:335-37) expresses a similar view but adds that 'Arabic' as a term is quite adequate for describing the literary-scientific form, since it encompasses in its meaning the bewildering variety of adjectives now currently in vogue in describing it, for e.g. 'Classical', 'Formal', 'Inter', 'Modern', 'Literary', 'Standard', 'Written', 'Newspaper', 'Modern Classical', 'Modern Literary', 'Modern Standard', etc. In comparison to English, Semaan

(in Bakalla 1975:X) states that Arabic has developed very much the way English has, from Old English to modern English. He illustrates these developments in the following comparison:

<u>Old English</u>	<u>Old Arabic</u> ⁽¹⁾
Anglo-Saxon: Mid-5th to 12th century A.D.	Pre-Hegra: c. 959 B.C. to c. 267 B.C.
<u>Middle English</u>	<u>Middle Arabic</u>
Northumbrian-Mercian- West Saxon: c. 1150-1400	Hegra-Namāra-Jebel Ramm; Zabad Harran: to c. 500 A.D.
<u>Modern English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
from early 15th century to the present	Muhammad and Jahiliya recorded speech: c. 600 A.D. to the present

Semān observes in this comparison that while English continued to adjust to the spoken form, Arabic remained aloof of its own spoken forms. "Here, Arabic shows a uniqueness unparalleled in linguistic history, a dualism where only the 'higher' form of the language is acknowledged as viable for preservation" (Ibid.). This indicates that the 'higher' form of the language (الفصحى) is still basically one and the same language from the time of Muḥammad to the present and it continues to be a living language since as a medium of communication for all the Arabs, it is universal and it transcends the widely diverse local dialects.⁽²⁾ Consequently, it cannot be called 'Middle' or 'Old Arabic' or even 'Classical Arabic' but

(1) It is interesting to note what Bakalla (1981:11) mentions about 'Old Arabic'. He states that 'Old Arabic' can be understood even by people with a minimum of education (i.e. Arabic education). The same cannot be said about 'Old English'.

(2) For a discussion of 'what form of Arabic to teach', see Chapter Four (4.4.5).

just Arabic, in the same way that 'English' is not called 'Modern English' but just English.

Most descriptions of Arabic begin by stating that it is a Semitic language. What does this really mean? 'Semitic' is a word derived from the biblical name Shem or Sam, who was one of the sons of Prophet Noah. The term 'Semitic Languages' was first used around 1781 by a German scholar called Schlozer (Bakalla 1981:4). Linguists divide the languages of the world into a number of groupings or families based on their relationships with each other (mainly structural) such as Indo-European, Semitic, Sino-Tibetan, etc. Yuskmanov (1961:1) divides the Semitic languages into two main branches as shown below:

A. Northern Branch

1. Eastern Division:
Assyro-Babylonian
2. Western Division:
Hebrew-Phoenician
Aramaic

B. Southern Branch

1. Northern Division:
Arabic
2. Southern Division:
South-Arabian
Ethiopic

Each division is subdivided into many more languages but only the most important ones are noted above. The southern branch (B) is also known as South-West Semitic. The northern division of this branch is subdivided in Lihyanite, Thamudic, Safaitic and Arabic as we know it today. Bakalla (1981:3) states that linguists have established a theory through intensive research and comparative studies which assumes the existence of a parent language for all the Semitic languages and they call this 'Proto-Semitic', the mother of all the extinct and extant Semitic

languages.⁽¹⁾ He further observes that no one knows exactly where it started but the majority of linguists seem to consider Arabia as the home of Proto-Semitic from where the various migrations began.

However, Nicholson (1976:XIV) and others consider Arabic as the youngest of all Semitic languages (or is it the oldest?) which bears closer resemblance to the original archetype, 'Ursemitisch' or 'Proto-Semitic', than any of the older Semitic languages.

If Arabic is regarded as bearing the closest resemblance to 'Proto-Semitic', then it is difficult to refute the claim put forward recently by Fadil (1965:4) that the Akkadian and Babylonian⁽²⁾ languages, the oldest Semitic languages, were in fact the Arabic of that time and place, that is the ancient Arabic of more than 5,500 years ago.⁽³⁾

(1) Bakalla (1984:4) notes that Ibn Ḥazm of Muslim Spain pointed out more than a thousand years ago that Syriac or Aramaic, Hebrew and Arabic stem from one and the same language.

(2) Fadil (Ibid.) has found that the word 'Babylon' itself is Arabic in origin since in Babylonian it is "bab ilu" which in Arabic is باب and اله , i.e. باب الله - God's Door.

(3) In fact, Fadil (Ibid:9) goes back to about 11,000 years ago by considering the linguistic consequences of a well known historical fact that the Arabian peninsula was a very fertile region with thick jungles and many rivers, like those of Africa and India. The end of the Ice Age resulted in the transformation of Arabia into a desert which eventually resulted in the migration of the Arabs and the Arabic language in all directions. Thus, according to him, this is the way Arabic influenced the development of other languages. This is not surprising in Muslim belief since God says in the Holy Qur'ān (1:31): وَعَلَّمَ آدَمَ الْأَسْمَاءَ كُلَّهَا and he taught Adam the names and natures of all things.

Through extensive linguistic research into many dead languages (such as Akkadian, Babylonian, Phoenician, Aramaic, Ancient Persian, Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, etc.) as well as living languages (such as Arabic, Italian, French and English), he finds that Arabic is not only the mother of all Semitic languages but he goes a step further and states that it is also the mother of the Aryan languages (Indo-European) including Sanskrit, the ancient Indian language. He indicates this by showing the strong resemblance between the roots of the primitive words in Arabic (which were, most probably, in their biconsonantal stage) and the Aryan languages and that these common words can be traced only in Arabic. This led him to the conclusion, through numerous examples, that these languages borrowed from Arabic and not the contrary. For instance, the important word like "pen", he states that the Latin form of this word is "Calamus" which was borrowed from the Greek "Kalamos" which in turn was borrowed from the ancient Arabic قلم - Qalam. Another common example quoted by him is the Arabic word ادأ - adaa (to pay) from the verb أَدَى - adda, in Persian it is داد - dad (gave); in Latin it is "addo, datio, dono"; in Italian "dato ..."; in French "donner, donation" with other forms; and finally these French forms are also used in English. Through examples such as these and many others, he concludes that Sanskrit should be called an "Arab-Indian" and the Indo-European languages should be renamed, according to historical (linguistic) facts, the "Arab-Indo-European" languages.

After considering the place of Arabic among the Semitic and other languages, what are then the most common features between Arabic and

the Semitic languages? Like Arabic, all Semitic languages are distinguished by the typical trilateral root system, derivation of verbal nouns from simple verbs, while most of them are written from right to left. Even the Arabic script shares some similarities with a few Semitic languages. It has been suggested by Bakalla (1981:108) and Hitti (1953:70) that the basic Arabic script was derived from the Aramaic via the Nabataean cursive and angular scripts, although the finer subtleties and refinements to the system of writing Arabic such as the dots and the diacritical marks started to be used after the advent of Islam.

2.2.1. Arabic Phonology and Graphology

In describing the structure of Arabic, the phonology and graphology of the language will be discussed at first, i.e. the sound and the writing system. The Arabic alphabet consists of 29 letters, 6 vowels,⁽¹⁾ 2 diphthongs and 5 orthographic signs. All of the 29 letters are consonants, except the first. It is said that phonologically, Arabic is a guttural language with its high tone which may seem a little rough and emotional to the foreign ear. But, Arabic is an extremely phonetic language, words are spelt as they are heard,⁽²⁾ unlike English which has enormous phonetic problems especially for foreign learners trying to speak, read or write English. Compare, for example, the pronunciation

(1) Or only 3 vowels, if the 3 long vowels are taken as a phonological extension of the 3 short vowels.

(2) Nasr (1978:104) notes a high degree of correlation between Arabic letters and their sounds.

of "g" in the following English words: God, gem, though and rough. Most of the sounds of Arabic are the same as in English, except a few which will be pointed out later. In the following chart, the letters of the alphabet are shown with their symbols, phonetic values and pronunciation:⁽¹⁾

<u>Name of letter</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Phonetic value and Pronunciation</u>
الف alif	ا	The alif is a voiceless or an unvoiced glottal stop, ⁽²⁾ It is a semi-vowel and generally, it is a long low front vowel as "a" in apple or a long low back vowel (ā).

-
- (1) The works consulted for this chart are: Abboud et al (1975), Abdul-Rauf (1977), Cowan (1964), Al-Khuli (1982), MECAS Grammar (1965), Nasr (1978 and 1978a), Wright (1967) and Ziadeh and Winder (1957). For a more detailed analysis, see W.H.T. Gairdner, The Phonetics of Arabic (London:OUP, 1925); S. Al-Ani, Arabic Phonology (The Hague: Mouton, 1970); and E. McCarus and R. Rammany, A Programmed Course in Modern Literary Arabic Phonology and Script (Ann Arbor; Michigan: University of Michigan, 1970).
- (2) This and all other alphabets below begin with a purely phonetic description. An unvoiced sound is produced when the vocal cords are relaxed as "f" in "fat" or a continuous "f" sound in ffff. If, for example, you place your hand on your throat and say ffff, you can feel no vibration on the throat because it is a smooth sound, thus, it is called an unvoiced sound. A (glottal) stop is caused when the vocal cords are suddenly opened to release a slight explosion of air as in the sounds of "p" in papa.

<u>Name of letter</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Phonetic value and Pronunciation</u>
باءَ bā'	ب	Bā' is a voiced ⁽¹⁾ bilabial stop. It represents the same sound in English, e.g. as "b" in bit.
تاءَ tā'	ت	A voiceless dental stop. It is the same sound as "t" in tea, but with the tongue not on the gum above the upper teeth but on the upper teeth themselves.
ثاءَ thā'	ث	A voiceless interdental fricative. ⁽²⁾ It is the same as "th" in thin of English.
جيمَ jīm	ج	A voiced alveopalatal fricative. The same sound as "j" in English (e.g. "j" in jam).
حاءَ ha'	ح	A voiceless pharyngeal fricative with no equivalent sound in English. The back of the tongue is depressed as far back as possible, just as when a doctor examines the throat. The sound produced is a strong and smooth sustained explosion of breath (as when sighing deeply) caused by tension in the pharynx without any velar (or soft palatal) vibration as in خ below.

(1) A voiced sound, contrary to an unvoiced sound, is produced when the vocal cords release a vibrating and humming sound as "z" in blizzard or a continuous "z" sound in zzzz. One can feel the vibration of this sound if the hand is placed on the throat and thus, it is known as a voiced sound.

(2) Speech is produced by releasing air from the lungs through the windpipe, the throat and eventually through the mouth or the nasal passage. But it is by the movement of the tongue and the lips which control the released air that human beings are able to produce very fine distinctions in sound. A fricative sound is produced when this air stream is partly blocked off resulting in some air passing through but with friction and thus, it is called a fricative sound.

<u>Name of letter</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Phonetic value and Pronunciation</u>
خا' khā'	خ	A voiceless velar fricative caused by the vibration of the velum or soft palate as in Scottish "ch" in loch or German "ch" in ach.
دال dāl	د	A voiced dental stop, the same as English "d" in did.
ذال dhāl	ذ	A voiced interdental fricative, the same as English "th" in this.
راء' rā'	ر	A voiced alveolar flap or trill caused by a rapid succession of taps by the tip of the tongue on the teeth ridge. It is like "r" in row of English when single, but when doubled it is like the rolled "r" in Scottish or Spanish.
زاي' zā' or زاي zāy	ز	A voiced alveolar fricative, the same as English "z" in zoo.
سين sīn	س	A voiceless alveolar non-emphatic fricative, the same as "s" in sister.
شين shīn	ش	A voiceless palatal fricative, the same as "sh" in shell.
صاد ṣād	ص	A voiceless alveolar velarized or emphatic fricative and it is the emphatic correlative of sīn (س). Pronounced by pressing the tip of the tongue against the lower teeth and raising the back of the tongue toward the palate.
ضاد ḍād	ض	A voiced dental emphatic stop and it is the emphatic correlative of dāl (د). Pronounced by pressing the tongue against the edge of the upper teeth with the tip protruding.
طاء' tā'	ط	A voiceless dental emphatic stop and it is the emphatic correlative of tā' (ت). Pronounced in the same way as ḍād (ض).
ظاء' zā'	ظ	A voiced interdental emphatic fricative and it is the emphatic correlative of dhāl (ذ). Pronounced in the same way as ṣād (ص).

<u>Name of letter</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Phonetic value and Pronunciation</u>
عين cāyn	ع	A voiced pharyngeal fricative which seems to be undoubtedly the most difficult sound for English speakers. Pronounced in a similar way as ḥā' (ح) but it is voiced and produced by an increased tension in the pharynx with the larynx being compressed, thus the sound is produced from the throat.
غين ghayn	غ	A voiced velar fricative, almost a voiced correlative of khā' (خ) but not exactly. A gargling sound is more exact, hence the Arabic word - غرغر (to gargle).
فاء fā	ف	A voiceless labio-dental fricative, the same as "f" in English, e.g. fool.
قاف qāf	ق	A voiceless uvular stop. The back of the tongue is placed against the uvula (i.e. the point beyond the soft palate) and the sound is produced from the back of the throat.
كاف kāf	ك	A voiceless velar stop, the same as "k" in English, e.g. sky or kodak.
لام lām	ل	A voiced alveolar lateral, the same as "l" in luck in English. But it is emphatic in the word الله.
ميم mīm	م	A voiced bilabial nasal, the same as "m" in English, e.g. moon.
نون nūn	ن	A voiced alveolar nasal, the same as "n" in noon in English.
هاء ḥā'	ه	A voiceless glottal fricative, the same as "h" in English, e.g. house.
واو wāw	و	A voiced bilabial (semi) vowel, the same as "w" in wet in English.
ياء yā'	ي	A voiced palatal (semi) vowel, the same as "y" in yet in English.
همزة hamza	ء	A glottal stop, pronounced by completely closing the vocal cords and then opening them suddenly. It usually occurs in English at the beginning of a word with a vowel or before a vowel, or as in the Scottish "t" in bottle.

Concerning the هاء (ه) consonant, when it has the two dots of the تاء (ت) consonant above it, it becomes a تاء مريوطة ("a tied t") and it is either written as ة alone as in حياة or when joined to a preceding letter, as ة in مكتبة . This form (تاء مريوطة) occurs only at the end of Arabic nouns and, grammatically, it usually indicates the feminine gender. It is pronounced as تاء (ت) except at a pause (end of sentence), when it is either pronounced as هاء as in فتاة - fataah or not pronounced at all as in مدرسة - madrasa. This brings us to the general flexibility of the Arabic language which allows words to be either pronounced in their contextual form or in their pausal form, where the final short vowel is not pronounced but joined to a preceding letter, as in speech.

Twenty of the twenty-nine letters of the alphabet mentioned in the chart above are fairly similar or identical to their counterparts found in English, and thus they are simple for English speakers to master. According to two research projects in this area done by Kara (1976) and Khoury (1961), the most difficult consonant phonemes for English speakers to pronounce seem to be just five which have no equivalents in English. These are: ح , خ , ع , غ and ق . Two of these ع and ح are more difficult than the others and they take the longest time to master. The remaining four consonant phonemes also present pronunciation difficulties for English speakers because they are often confused with their lighter counterparts. These are called 'emphatics' or 'velarized consonants' and are represented with dots under the letters in their transliterated form

/s/ ص , /d/ ض , /t/ ط and /z/ ظ .⁽¹⁾ They are 'emphatic' because they are distinguished by a heaviness in pronunciation that is not associated with their lighter counterparts which are respectively: /s/ س , /d/ د , /t/ ت , /dh/ ذ or /z/ ز . Hanna (1964) thus finds that Arabic sounds are not necessarily more difficult in pronunciation than those sounds which are familiar to most of us, they merely involve such muscular adjustments of the speech organs as one never habituated oneself. But Fadil (1965:11) finds that these difficult consonants or sounds are natural because children of all nations pronounce them instinctively (as in babbling and gurgling sounds). For instance, a baby automatically produces the sound ح (āḥ) to clear its throat and the sounds غا غا غا غا (ghā, ghā, ghā, ghā) or لغ لغ لغ لغ (lagh, lagh, lagh, lagh), when it is happy and wants to sing.

The vowel system in Arabic is not as complicated as that in English which has about 17 vowels (Kara 1976:181). Only 6 vowels are recognised in Arabic: 3 short and 3 long. The 3 short vowels do not appear in the alphabet but are essential for pronunciation. They are marked sometimes in printed texts and always in the Qur'ān. These short vowels are the fatha (a) represented by a slanted stroke above a letter as in بَ , the damma (u) represented by a small comma above a letter as in بُ , and the kasra (i) represented by a slanted stroke

(1) More detailed work on velarization, length or gemination (duration of time in which a sound is produced), Arabic stress and intonation patterns are discussed in Nasr (1978 and 1978a). Arabic stress rules are also discussed in Abboud et al (1975:6-9).

below a letter as in ب . When the 3 short vowels are elongated, they become the 3 long vowels which are all found in the alphabet: the alif pronounced as ا or ā; the wāw pronounced as و or ū; and the yā pronounced as ي or ī . The two diphthongs are: aw (اَؤ) and ay (اَي). The five orthographic signs are: sukūn (◌◌◌); shadda (◌◌◌◌); waṣla (◌◌◌◌), madda (◌◌◌◌) and tanwīn (◌◌◌◌ an, ◌◌◌◌ in, and ◌◌◌◌ or ◌◌◌◌ or ◌◌◌◌-un). The sukūn represents a 'rest' or 'stop' in pronunciation and it usually appears above consonants that have no vowel following as in ت . The shadda denotes a 'stress' or 'strengthening' when identical consonants are doubled or geminated with no vowel to separate them and only one consonant is written with the shadda above it as in ت . The waṣla is used at the beginning of a word when the vowels of the hamza (أ , إ , ئ) are joined to the final vowel of the preceding word and this sign is written above the alif as آ , and thus the waṣla represents an 'elision' or 'join' for words that need to be joined in their pronunciation. The madda represents a 'lengthening' or 'extension' in pronunciation: when two alifs are brought together, only one is written with this sign as آ . The tanwīn or 'nunation' is indicated when the three short vowel signs are doubled at the end of a word to represent an n sound. They also represent the three grammatical case endings (◌◌◌◌ for nominative, ◌◌◌◌ for accusative, and ◌◌◌◌ for genitive) of a fully declined indefinite noun (also of nouns used adjectivally).

The Arabic writing system may seem to be a major point of criticism and frustration for foreign learners whose mother-tongue (MT) is English or

any other European language because Arabic is, contrary to these languages, written from right to left. But, if learners are made to understand that physiologically it is natural and easier for the hand to move from outside the body to the inside of the body (i.e. for right handed writers) than in the opposite direction, this should not pose a major problem since there is more freedom of movement writing from right to left and also in turning pages from right to left (الحدیدی: ۱۹۶۷).

The opposite will be true for left handed writers who are in any case a very small minority.⁽¹⁾ Another interesting point to remember about writing Arabic is that the script when in the motion of writing generally moves in a clockwise direction except for the consonants ^cayn (ع), ghayn (غ) and perhaps jīm (ج), hā' (ح) and khā' (خ) in their final forms. Thus, if the hand is trained to do this kind of clockwise, top to bottom, zig-zag and cursive motion before learners are taught to actually write the script itself, then the process of writing Arabic should become easier and faster for beginners. Concerning the writing of the script itself, each one of the 29 letters of the alphabet has 4 forms: initial, medial, final and separate (as for e.g. the هـ هـ هـ هـ). This means that each of the letters can be found at the beginning of a word, within a word, at the end of a word or alone. Thus, as in هـ above, the first three forms can be joined together in writing, but there are 6 letters in the alphabet which cannot be joined to a following letter. These 6 letters which may be joined only to a preceding letter are:

ا د ذ ر ز and و .

(1) A point to note here is that the numerals in Arabic are written and read in the opposite direction, left to right, for e.g. ١٤٠٨ هـ .

2.2.2. Arabic Morphology

The next unit of description in Arabic after the alphabet is the word level. Since morphology is the study of the internal structure of the forms and patterns of words found in a language, the main morphological features of the structure of Arabic words and their relationships within the word level will be discussed here in brief. Essentially, the morphological structure of Arabic is quite simple in its broad outlines. An indication of this can be traced back to the very first description of the Arabic language. Imām ^CAli said to Abū al-Aswad al-Du'alī that the Arabic language is three things:⁽¹⁾

الكلام كله اسم وفعل وحرف ، وانح هذا النحو

The language is made up of nouns, verbs and particles, so proceed along this path.

Incidentally, this is how the word النحو eventually came to mean Arabic grammar. To go into the history of Arabic grammar would be beside the point here but we need to mention that Arabic grammarians throughout history, from the time of Abū al-Aswad al-Du'alī until the present time, have maintained these three divisions of word - classes or parts of speech in Arabic.⁽²⁾

(1) See: (١٩٧١:٧) هلال and McLoughlin (1986:26).

(2) Whereas in English for instance, linguists have divided the parts of speech ranging anywhere from two to fourteen with no agreement between them as to what they are and how many there are (Mackey 1965:65).

The most important characteristic of the Arabic language is its creative morphological system based on the tri-consonantal root system. Most of the words in Arabic are derived or built up from a fixed root pattern made up of three original radicals or consonants, but there are also many roots which consist of two, four, or very rarely even more consonants. This makes Arabic a root-inflectional type of language, not only like the Semitic languages but also like German, Latin and Greek. The inflectional aspect operates in two ways. Firstly in nouns, their syntactic relationship is indicated by case endings (إعراب) or declension. Secondly in verbs, they are inflected or conjugated by means of prefixes, infixes, and suffixes to indicate the various persons, numbers, genders, derived forms, moods, and tenses. For instance, it is theoretically possible to derive from a root pattern or simple verb such as سَلِمَ or كَتَبَ (which is normally found in the 3rd person perfect tense) as many as fourteen new verbs (only 10 forms are normally used) and scores of nouns. In this way, even new words in Arabic can be coined by derivation or by imposing certain vowel patterns on the radicals of the root. The meaning of each of these derived forms bears a specific semantic relationship to the root pattern but in some cases it may deviate considerably. The conjugation of each derived verb is distinguished by the three persons (1st, 2nd and 3rd person) and the three numbers in Arabic (singular, dual and plural). Arabic verbs have two genders (masculine and feminine) and two tenses (or aspects) known as perfect (expressing a finished act) and imperfect (expressing an unfinished act) or past and non-past. The perfect tense is formed by adding only suffixes to the root which indicate the pronoun subject, the

number and the gender of the speaker as in **كتبتم** (2nd person masculine plural - you wrote) from **كتب**. Whereas the imperfect tense is formed by adding both prefixes and suffixes as in **يكتبون** (3rd person masculine plural - they are writing) which also indicate 'person', number, gender and 'mood' of the subject. The verbs also generally have 'moods' which are the indicative, subjunctive and jussive in both the active and passive voices, in addition to the imperative which is found only in the active voice.

The noun (**إسم**) comprises the largest group of word-classes in Arabic simply because what are considered as proper nouns, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs in English are all classified as nouns in Arabic. (1) Thus, the concept of a verb in Arabic as described above may be similar to English (both convey a concept implicit of time), but the concept of a noun in Arabic is quite different from that in English. In Arabic, a noun can be defined "as a word indicating, describing, referring to or explaining the condition of a person, an animal or a thing" (Abdul-Rauf 1977-261). This definition includes all types of nouns, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns. Generally, Arab grammarians divide all these types of nouns into two major categories: expressed nouns and (pro)nouns. The expressed nouns (**الاسماء الظاهرة**) include all types of nouns

(1) (**الخولي** ١٩٨٠: ١٩١) has proved statistically from a large selection of material chosen from Arabic educational and literary books, newspapers and magazines that over 50% of words sampled in the material were nouns. In fact, the statistics show that 58.3% were nouns, 10.1% were verbs and 31.6% were particles.

(including adjectives and adverbs) except the (pro)nouns, and they are made up of three distinct types:

1. Primary Nouns: These are not derived from verbs and are irreducible such as - جمل and تفاحة, اخ .

2. Nouns derived from verbs: These represent the most frequently encountered nouns which are of seven types:

- (i) infinitives or verbal nouns - e.g. ضَرَبَ (beating) from ضَرَبَ ;
- (ii) active participles - كاتب (writer) from كتب ;
- (iii) passive participles - مفهوم (understood) from فهِم ;
- (iv) nouns of place - ملعب (a playground) from لعب ;
- (v) nouns of time - مغرب (dusk) from غرب ;
- (vi) nouns of instrument - مفتاح (a key) from فتح ; and
- (vii) nouns of quality - كريم (generous) from كرم and جوعان (hungry) from جاع .

3. Nouns derived from other nouns: These are of two types:

- (i) diminutive nouns - رجيل (a small man) from رجل .
- (ii) relative nouns - مصري (Egyptian) from مصر .

There are four characteristic features which determine whether a noun is an expressed noun or not and these are:

1. the definite article prefix ال as in الولد (the boy);⁽¹⁾
2. the tanwīn or nunation as in فاكهة (fruit);

(1) While on the topic of ال, its pronunciation with the noun that always joins it needs to be mentioned. If a noun begins with any of the following consonants which are called Moon Letters (الحروف القمرية), then the ل in ال is pronounced:

3. the first noun of the construct phrase showing possession such as عميد الكلية (the Dean of the College); and
 4. the declension of expressed nouns is represented by the three grammatical case endings which are the nominative (damma vowel ending for the subject), the accusative (fatha vowel ending for the object), and the genitive (kasra vowel ending as in the second noun of a construct phrase in the above example or if a noun is prefixed by a preposition). This is the basic situation although several classes of nouns exist which show a diminishing range of inflection. The other major category of nouns, besides the expressed nouns, are the (pro)nouns (الضمائر) which may be divided into five basic types:
 1. Independent personal (pro)nouns: أنا , هي , هم , etc.; (Nom.)
 2. Dependent personal (pro)nouns: these are of five kinds:
 - (i) nominative case (past) as suffixes: تُ in اكلتُ , etc.,
 - (ii) nominative case (present) as prefixes: نَ in نَشربَ , etc.,
 - (iii) accusative case as suffixes: هَ in ضرتَه , etc.
 - (iv) genitive case suffixed to nouns: ي in كتابي , etc. and
 - (v) genitive case suffixed to particles: مني , etc.
 3. Demonstrative (pro)nouns: هَذَا , ذاك , اولئك , etc.;
 4. Relative (pro)nouns: التي , اللذان , الذين , etc.;
 5. Interrogative (pro)nouns: من , ماذا , كيف , etc.
-

. ي and و , هـ , م , ك , ق , ف , غ , ع , خ , ح , ج , ب , ا

If the noun begins with any of the following consonants which are called Sun Letters (الحروف الشمسية), then the ل is not pronounced but is assimilated to these consonants which must have a shadda (ّ) :

. ن , ل , ظ , ط , ض , ص , ش , س , ز , ر , ذ , د , ث , ت

Considering the nouns from the point of view of declension (معرب) and indeclension (مبني), most expressed nouns are said to be declinable (as mentioned above) but the different types of (pro)nouns are said to be indeclinable, since each (pro)noun assumes an unchangeable or eternal ending form just as the particles in Arabic.

An important point to remember concerning the morphology of Arabic is that there are only ten letters known as the 'letters of increase' which are joined to the original radicals of root words to form new verbs or nouns (as in the examples above). These ten 'letters of increase' can be grouped together to form a simple mnemonic formula such as " سألتُمُونيها ". Although each one of these letters may also be found in an original root pattern, this formula is still a handy tool to have when teaching beginners how to use Arabic dictionaries.

The third part of speech in Arabic is the particle (حرف). The particles in Arabic do not convey a sense of meaning on their own but they generally serve a specific grammatical function and, thus, they are sometimes referred to as 'function words and syllables'. What are known as prepositions, conjunctions and interjections are all classified as particles in Arabic. Arabic has a great wealth of particles, for instance, Nasr (1978:52-64) divides them into 22 different types. From these, there are two types which are the most common and which have the greatest grammatical responsibility and these are the prepositions and conjunctions:

1. Prepositions: In Arabic, they always appear before nouns which they govern by putting them in the genitive case (for e.g. - الى المدينة).

They are of two types:

- (i) independent prepositions such as *فِي* and *عَلَى* , and
- (ii) dependent prepositional syllables such as *بِـ* , and *كـ* .

2. Conjunctions: Conjunctions may appear before nouns, verbs and even particles themselves but they usually cause the words which follow them to assume the same grammatical case as the words before them

(for e.g. *شَايٍ أَوْ قَهْوَةٍ*). Conjunctions are also of two types:

- (i) independent conjunctions such as *بَلْ* and *ثُمَّ* .
- (ii) dependent conjunction syllables such as *وَ* and *فَ* .

Other common types of particles are: interrogative (for e.g. *هَلْ* and *لِمَاذَا*); negative (such as *لَمْ* and *لَنْ*); vocative or interjective (for e.g. *يَا* and *أَيُّهَا*); conditional (such as *إِنْ* and *لَوْ*); exceptive (for e.g. *إِلَّا* and *غَيْرُ*); adverbial (such as *بَعْدَ* and *تَحْتَ*); for answering (for e.g. *نَعَمْ* and *لا*); for futurity (such as *سَوْفَ* and *سَـ*); etc.

2.2.3. Arabic Syntax

After morphology, the next level of analysis is the syntax of Arabic which is the study of the structure of sentences and their various patterns. The syntax of Arabic is not necessarily complicated providing that one is generally aware of the syntactic features of the language, such as word order of nouns, verbs and particles and their functional changes in a sentence, and also the role of number, gender and case endings (*إعراب*). These syntactic features are interdependent in Arabic and they may be

regarded as the 'traffic rules' of the language whereby clearer understanding is provided. Compared to English, Arabic syntax is very much more flexible in that the word-order of the sentence in Arabic has more freedom to change its position without changing the meaning of the whole sentence. (1)

Basically, Arabic sentences have been traditionally divided into two types: verbal and nominal sentences. (2) Verbal sentences have been considered by Arab grammarians as the most common or preferred type. (3) A verbal sentence usually begins with a verb (except perhaps when an interrogative, negative or conditional particle is used before the verb) which should be singular and it should also agree with the subject in gender but not in number as in the example below:

قرأت البنات الكتابَ — The girls read the book.

A plural verb may be used if a plural subject (human) has been mentioned in a previous sentence. Thus, a simple sentence like this begins with a verb (V), followed by a subject (S) and then by an object (O), i.e. VSO. But, because of the flexibility of Arabic syntax, this basic word-order

(1) See Al-Kāsimī (1982:12) and Al-Waer (1982:57-8).

(2) Abboud et al (1983) in their Elementary Modern Standard Arabic have divided Arabic sentences into four types: verbal, comment, equational and conditional.

(3) In the statistical research of (الخليفي ١٩٨٠:١٩٨) (as noted earlier on p.46; n.1), he has found that 61.81% of the sentences he sampled were verbal and 38.19% were nominal thus, indicating clearly that the majority of sentences in the Arabic language are verbal.

can be juggled about to at least three other variations, providing that the case endings remain the same such as SVO, VOS and OVS. It is the use of the case endings (إعراب) that gives the Arabic sentence the freedom to move words from the beginning to the middle or to the end of a sentence. If there are four or more words in a sentence, the number of variations can theoretically be increased to much more than in the previous example. This is clear from the following example:

اللهُ عليكم الصيامَ	}	كتب
اللهُ الصيامَ عليكم		
عليكم اللهُ الصيامَ		
عليكم الصيامَ اللهُ		
الصيامَ اللهُ عليكم		
الصيامَ عليكم اللهُ		

This example shows that if the sentence begins with **كتب**, then six variations are possible. This is also the case if the sentence begins with **الله** or **الصيام** or even **عليكم**, resulting in 24 variations.⁽¹⁾ The variations in word-order represent changes in style or emphasis which can be used for different rhetorical purposes. This flexible freedom of using the elements of the Arabic sentence in different ways led to the development of the science of rhetoric (علم البلاغة) among early Arab scholars. English syntax, on the other hand, can be described as a SVO type of language because very little deviation from this typical word-order is permitted. By the same token, Arabic is generally a VSO type of language because of its preference for verbal sentences, although many variations are possible.

(1) See Ahmad (1983:39) for more details.

Turning now to nominal sentences, they begin with a noun or a pronoun which is regarded as the subject and whatever comes after the subject is regarded as the predicate (which may contain a verb). But, in the simplest nominal sentence no verb is necessary as in the example below:

محمد كريم — Muhammad is generous.

(الحدیدی ۱۹۶۷) observes that this type of mental relationship between the subject and the predicate in a nominal sentence where there is no need to use a verb "to be" is one of the unique characteristics of the Arabic language.⁽¹⁾ Another important characteristic of the Arabic language is that, contrary to English, adjectives are always placed after the nouns they modify (as in كريم above) and they also agree with the nouns they qualify in number, gender, case and definition. If the predicate in an expanded nominal sentence contains a verb, then the verb should agree with the subject in gender and also in number as in the following example:

الطالب المجتهد درس في كلية اللغة العربية

"The hard working student studied at the College of Arabic Language"

Note that the word "of" in Arabic is indicated by the use of the genitive case endings (kasra) in the construct phrase of the predicate. The ability to convey meanings such as "of" (as above or for e.g.

وزارة التربية - Ministry of Education) and the verb "to be" (as in

(1) Other unique characteristics of the Arabic language described by (الحدیدی : ۶۰-۶۹) are: writing and reading from right to left, verbal sentences and case endings (إعراب).

previous example - محمد كَرِيم) without using words shows that the Arabic language displays a remarkable degree of economy, whereby more meanings can be conveyed with fewer words than in other languages. Even an individual word such as رَأَيْتَهُ (I saw him), can stand for a complete sentence. There are, of course, many more complex sentences in Arabic than the examples given above but they still are basically of the verbal and nominal type which can be expanded greatly by the addition of clauses, phrases, etc.

The discussion of the above three components of the Arabic language (i.e. phonology and graphology, morphology, and syntax) has not been exhaustive. Many points and details have been omitted which, in any case, can be obtained from any of the well-known teaching manuals. However, what has been intended here is not a detailed description of the structure of the language, but a broad outline of the general nature of the Arabic language. These three components are regarded by linguists as the linguistic structure of the language. In summing up these three sub-sections, Stetkevych's (1970:12, n.5) very apt and concise description of the Arabic language is quoted below:

The perfect system of the three radical consonants, the derived forms with their basic meanings, the precise formation of the verbal noun, of the participles - everything is clarity, logic, system, and abstraction. The language is like a mathematical formula. This is, of course, a first notion but it is also the ultimate truth. In between there lies the great body of the language: rich and various, with its pitfalls and puzzles, but what impresses itself upon the mind is the abstract idea.

2.2.4. Arabic Semantics

Arabic phonology (and graphology), morphology and syntax are considered as the linguistic structure of the language. But, this linguistic structure does not exist in a vacuum in Arabic. It exists primarily to convey meaning by operating together in a given context or situation. Since semantics is the study of meaning and meaning is an essential part of language, language cannot function without meaning. In semantics in a broader sense, meaning is not only studied within the linguistic structure of language itself, but it is also studied as the interactive relationship between the linguistic structure and the extra-linguistic world. Nasr (1978:2-3) observes that the extra-linguistic factors affecting meaning are of two types: contextual and cultural.

An important point of difficulty in Semantics is that unlike the linguistic structure which is stable and finite (see 1.2., p.8), meanings (or semantics) do not seem to be stable but depend upon the speaker's (or writer's) and the listener's (or reader's) interpretation of them. For instance, one does not always say what one means and, thus, we have the frequently-heard remark: "I understand what you say, but I don't know what you mean" (Corder 1973:121). It may be that the person understands what is said linguistically, but he does not know what is meant semantically because of extra-linguistic factors which may also include the speaker's intentions. This makes semantics a very complex field of enquiry and this complexity has prompted Stern (1983:132) to state that "linguistics in its recent history has approached semantics with great caution and for a period had rejected it almost completely as a study

within the framework of linguistics", although linguists have never denied that the essence of language is to be meaningful. Only during the 1960s did meaning begin to come into linguistics from the cold and now it is more or less accepted by linguists that a linguistic model contains phonology at one end and semantics at the other, with grammar (i.e. morphology and syntax) somewhere in the middle (Palmer 1976:5). But semantics (or meaning) is still regarded as the Cinderella of linguistics, in the sense that it is still the neglected or despised member of the group. However, according to Rivers (1981:85), recent work in theoretical linguistics has shown that semantics is basic to any theoretical model of language.

If this is the position of semantics within linguistics in general where serious research has barely begun, then what is the position of semantics within the Arabic language itself? Besides some work at the word level dealing mainly with verbs and names, very little work has been done to discuss the semantics of the Arabic language as a whole. Since language cannot function without meaning, it is inescapable that more thorough investigations in Arabic semantics are needed in order that clearer categories of meaning are established. Generally, there are three levels of language in which meanings operate: the word level, the sentence level, and at the text or discourse level.⁽¹⁾ At the word level, only

(1) The third level has only recently been accepted as the largest unit of language on the assumption that language does not only occur in stray words and sentences, but in connected discourse.

phonology and morphology may be essential but at the sentence and text level, all three aspects of the linguistic structure (including syntax) are essential to express meaning. But the linguistic structure or the grammatical system alone cannot provide us with the total meaning of words, sentences or texts. We also need the meaning of individual lexical items and the communicative function of sentences used as utterances in different situations (Wilkins 1974:80). Rivers (1981:85) finds that "with the emphasis on semantics, pragmatics (i.e. the rules of language in use) rose in importance, since meaning was seen to be dependent to a large degree on the situations in which speech acts occurred."

A dictionary such as Wehr's Arabic-English dictionary may provide us with the meaning of individual lexical items (or vocabulary), certain aspects of the linguistic and sometimes the meaning of idiomatic phrases and sentences. On the other hand, a lexicon such as Lane's Arabic-English lexicon may also provide us with the same information as dictionaries but on a larger scale. Both dictionaries and lexicons, thus, still concentrate mainly on conveying meanings at the word level (out of context), without looking too deeply at larger stretches of the Arabic language and the extra-linguistic world which also provides additional meanings through different communicative functions. In Arabic, contextual and cultural factors are the two types of extra-linguistic factors that affect meaning (as noted above). Contextual factors are general situational factors that all persons will respond and react to in the same way (regardless of their cultural background) and, thus, they

can be regarded as universal in all languages. Cultural, or more precisely, socio-cultural factors are more limited situational factors that refer to the special significance which language elements have acquired for the Arab people and these factors are related to the values, customs and interests of their social group. For instance, the Arabs share a set of values, customs, attitudes and interests which are derived from their historical and religious background such as the family as a basic social unit, interaction patterns (informality and closeness), the frequent use of religious and divine words, modes of address,⁽¹⁾ manners, etc. (Harb 1983:74-5). An additional problem in spoken language is that a great deal of meaning is conveyed by the prosodic and paralinguistic features of Arabic. Prosodic features are the use of intonation, stress, rhythm, loudness, etc. in speech. Paralinguistic features or body language are represented by such features as gestures and facial expressions. These paralinguistic features of non-verbal communication are more prominent in the Middle East than in the West and thus they need to be studied more in detail for better cultural understanding. Concerning the significance of these two types of extra-linguistic factors that affect meaning, Nasr (1978:4) states that "adjusting or responding to contextual factors does not present serious problems to foreign learners of Arabic, but cultural orientation (i.e. learning about, not necessarily adopting, the foreign culture) is extremely significant as part of one's training and education in a foreign language."

(1) See Aziz (1984) on modes of address in Arabic. Also discussed under SLC in Chapter Five (5.7.2.2.2).

Meaning at the Word Level

Both phonology and morphology are required for meaning at the word level, although the phonological system on its own can be regarded as the smallest unit of meaning in Arabic.⁽¹⁾ At the word level, Arabic can be generally described as a natural language that attaches meanings to sounds and words by imitating the sounds of nature, i.e. the natural sounds of human beings, animals and the environment. Compare the sounds for coughing (كَحّ - kaḥḥa), sneezing (عطسة - ^catsa) and laughing (ضحكة - ḍaḥka). Fadil (1965:12) observes that the Arab baby's gurgling sounds such as لَغ , لَغ , لَغ - lagh, lugh, lugh led to the formation of the word لَغَه - lughah for language⁽²⁾ in Arabic and also other natural sounds that the Arabs observed such as "the beaks

(1) The phonological system on its own has a great responsibility in conveying meaningful concepts. Take, for example, the role of vowels and the orthographic signs on basic roots of words such as the use of just the damma (ُ) in the formation of passive verbs as in أُمِنَ from أَمِنَ and the use of the shadda (ّ) to form a 2nd form verb as in قَدَّمَ from قَدِمَ . Also, the use of the kasra (ِ) to convey the meaning "of" in the construct phrase, and so on.

(2) It is interesting to note from Fadil's research (as mentioned on pp.33-4) that the Arabic word لَغَه - lughah appears in Greek as "logos" (word), in Latin and Italian as "lingua" (language, tongue), in French as "langue" and "langage" and in English as "language". He also states that لَغَه - lughah appears again in Greek and Latin as "loghia" (discourse), and it is pronounced "logy" in English which is attached as a suffix to many words indicating the sense of knowledge or science as in: psychology, biology, etc.

of their chicks, the hiss of their snakes, the chirp of their sparrows and the roar of their thunder" are all depicted by the consonants of Arabic. Another interesting phenomenon mentioned by Fadil (Ibid:6) is that in Arabic, many verbs and adjectives are derived from the names of the body's limbs. For example, he observes that from the word يد - yad (hand), the Arabs derived the word ودى - wada and يدي - yadi (pay), also ادى - adda (give by hand) and through course of time ادى - adda developed into ادى - anda (give generously) and so on. (1) Thus, in Arabic, things are not just said in different words from those to which one may be accustomed to in English: they are apprehended, thought and felt in different ways. As Geist (1979:XLI) states: "To learn Arabic is to enter a different world," therefore, learning Arabic means learning to see the world in the way the Arabs see it. Shouby (1951) observes that the sounds of Arabic words and images exert a magical and musical power which has a great influence on the psychology of the Arabs.

Semantics has played a major role and it is still playing a major role in coining new vocabulary in Arabic. Early Arabic philologists succeeded in adopting and agreeing upon a number of principles for coining new vocabulary and these principles have become the basic criteria for reviving and rejuvenating the language in modern times. Chejne (1969: 48-51) mentions six important methods for coining new vocabulary and

(1) He also notes that the verb ايد - ayyad (assist) has infiltrated into English and French as "aid, aider" in the same Arabic sense.

expressions among these principles: قياس - qiyās (analogy), اشتقاق - ishtiqaq (derivation), نحت - naḥt (compounding), اعراب - iʿrāb (vowel endings), تعريب - taʿrīb (Arabization), مجاز - majāz (metaphor) and إعراب - iʿrāb (vowel endings). Among these اشتقاق - ishtiqaq (derivation) is undoubtedly the most productive method and it refers to the derivation of words from triconsonantal roots by the addition of prefixes, infixes and suffixes. The root of any word expresses a general concept which can be regarded as a common ancestor to a single "family" of words derived from it. For instance, a "family" of words such as كاتب (writer), كتابة (writing), كتاب (book), مكتب (office), مكتوب (written), مكاتبة (corresponding), etc. are from the root كتب which expresses the general concept of "writing". By the same token, all the verb forms derived from this root extend, modify or augment the meaning of the first form into what can be regarded as a "family" of verbal meaning, representing the same concept (writing). The early Arabic philologists recognized three types of derivations which are (Ibid): minor (أصغر), middle (كبير or قلب), and major (أكبر or إبدال). Each one of these derivations will be briefly discussed, in order to assess their semantic relationship to the language.

(1) الاشتقاق الأصغر - Minor Derivation

This type of derivation represents the typical and traditional word patterns in Arabic (أوزان) in which the original order of the consonants or radicals of a root are retained throughout the different patterns as in the example of كتب (k - t - b). Numerous systematic patterns can be made by the inclusion of prefixes, infixes and suffixes to a root and each

pattern (وزن) denotes a specific semantic feature. For example, the active participle of the first form verb عَلِمَ (he knew) is عالِم which is based on the pattern فاعِل denoting the semantic feature of "one who does something" and hence, in this case, عالم means "one who knows": a scholar, a scientist, an expert, etc. Also, the verbal noun of عَلِم is عِلْم which denotes "the fact of knowing" or may even be a reference to the content of knowledge and thus, it means "knowledge" or "science". If we take its second form عَلَّمَ, the shadda (ّ) intensifies its meaning to "he caused by repetition to know", hence it means "he taught". The active participle of this second form is مُعَلِّم which denotes "one who teaches", thus, it means "teacher" or "professor" and its verbal noun تعليم denotes "the fact of teaching", hence it means "education". The pattern فعالة as in صناعة (manufacture), زراعة (agriculture), تجارة (trade), etc. denotes a profession, trade or craft. This pattern is associated to the pattern فعال which indicates the persons involved in the trade or profession, for e.g. زراِع (farmers) and تجار (traders). In this manner, many semantic patterns can be formed from the other frequently used verb forms.

(2) الاشتقاق الكبير او الاشتقاق القلبي - Middle Derivation

As suggested by its Arabic name, this type of derivation takes place when the derived words are formed by inverting the original order of the radicals. Chejne (1969:49) states that the assumption underlying this principle is that sounds have a close connection to meaning, no matter how a radical is placed. He takes the example of j - b - r (جبر) which conveys

in its original form the concept of "force" or "strength". According to the theory, this concept is always preserved if any of the radicals changes positions. Thus, according to the rules of minor derivation a number of words denoting strength or power such as BRJ (بـ رـ جـ - burj) meaning "tower", BJR (بـ جـ رـ - abjar) meaning "corpulent", and RJB (رـ جـ بـ - rajab) meaning "to be afraid", all of which imply a semantic relationship to JBR (جـ بـ رـ - jabr).

(3) الاشتقاق الأجنبي أو الإبداعي - Major Derivation

As is suggested again by its Arabic name, major derivation occurs when one of the radicals of a word is replaced by another which is not found in the original word. This principle indicates that if there are two identical radicals in different words, then these radicals have some relationship in meaning, although they may sound a little different. For instance, the word RJM (رـ جـ مـ - rajama) meaning "to stone a person to death" is related to RTM (رـ طـ مـ - raṭama) meaning "to crush a thing", since RM (رـ and مـ) are common to both words (Chejne, Ibid.).

One of the other methods for coining new vocabulary is مجاز - majāz (metaphor). Majāz also plays a semantic role by giving words new metaphorical meanings which are related to the original expressions. Bakalla (1981:12) lists a few of these examples which have gone through a semantic process such as هاتف - hātif for "telephone" which originally means the "voice of inspiration" or the "voice of an invisible speaker"; برق - barq (telegram) which originally means lightning; and برید - barīd (post, mail) which originally refers to the old way of sending messages when animals were used for transportation. Under

this category, we can add a few words used in some Arab countries such as **العقل الآلي** or **المحاسب العقلي** for a "computer"; **دار الخيالة** for "cinema"; **الإذاعة المرئية** for "television" and other more commonly used words such as **آلة التصوير** (camera), **آلة كاتبة** (typewriter), **ميزان الحرارة** (thermometer), **كرة القدم** (soccer), **ألعاب رياضية** (athletics), **ألعاب نارية** (fireworks), etc. Bakalla (Ibid.) mentions another method for coining new vocabulary (besides the six mentioned by Chejne) which is directly related to semantics. This is the rebirth of old Arabic words in order to express modern concepts and ideas while retaining their old meanings. An excellent example is the word **سيارة** - sayyāra which used to mean a "caravan of camels", now it means a "motor car". Another word is **مؤمن** - mu'min (faithful) which meant "granter of safety" in pre-Islamic times, but changed after Islam to mean a believer who is not an atheist. This aspect of semantics is called historical semantics which is the study of the change of meaning in time. Palmer (1976:9) observes that the term semantics was first used to refer to the development and change of meaning. This historical aspect of semantics is fairly unexplored for Arabic and thus, research work in this area is needed. Concerning this historical aspect of semantics in Arabic, Al-Kāsimī (1982:12) states that: "semantically, Arabic linguistic elements (i.e. words, expressions, structures, etc.) have more connotations than in any other language, simply because Arabic is the oldest living language in the world, which has had a continuous and uninterrupted linguistic usage and literary tradition for the last 2,000 years at least. Of course linguistic change takes place and that is why we find several cases of Arabic words with old and modern connotations side by side."

Meaning at the Sentence Level

Although phrases and clauses also express meaningful concepts, the larger unit of meaning - sentences - will be discussed here. Knowing the meaning of individual words or the vocabulary of Arabic through its phonological and morphological features does not provide the learner with the ability to write or comprehend complete sentences. The learner needs to know how to arrange the words syntactically in order to express the essential semantic features of the sentence, i.e. the semantico-grammatical aspect of the language (Wilkins 1976:23). By the same token, knowing the linguistic structure of Arabic may provide the learner with the basic linguistic skills needed to produce and comprehend correct Arabic sentences, but this linguistic knowledge is not sufficient on its own. It is only one part of knowing the Arabic language, the linguistic structure known as the rules of language usage or grammar. The learner also needs to know the communicative functions of sentences and the extra-linguistic factors that affect meaning, i.e. the functional meaning as expressed by the rules of language use. This is the basic contention against the sentences used in traditional Arabic language textbooks which generally make use of isolated decontextualized sentences to teach the linguistic rules of Arabic (rules of usage) and thus, neglect the functional meaning of sentences as used extra-linguistically (rules of use).

Consider the following verbal sentence:

سافر محمد أليوم الى لندن مبكرا

The subject argument of this sentence comes after the verb سافر .

But, with the great flexibility permitted in changing the word-order in

Arabic syntax, the subject argument can easily be given top priority by beginning the sentence with the word **محمد** or even with **أليوم** , depending on the context of the utterance. If emphasis on the journey is not required but on the person undertaking the journey (for e.g. it was **محمد** and not **علي** or **إبراهيم**) then, the sentence could begin with the word " **محمد** " and also, if the time of the journey was not known (whether it was yesterday, today, tomorrow or last week) then, emphasis can be shifted to the time of the journey by beginning the sentence with " **أليوم** ". In this way, finer shades of meaning can be assigned to Arabic sentences for different rhetorical purposes. This is a frequently neglected area in teaching Arabic to non-Arab learners. Munby (1978:18) refers to the rules of language use in general (contrary to the rules of usage - grammar) as rhetorical rules. Arabic rhetorics, besides providing information on the ornate use of the Arabic language, can also provide us with the knowledge of the rules of using the language appropriately in particular extra-linguistic situations (contextual and socio-cultural). More thorough research in this area is needed whereby categories of rhetorical functions can be specified and used for teaching purposes, perhaps, on the lines of Munby's (1978:123-31) taxonomy of language skills. Generally, one of the roles of Arabic semantics at the sentence level is that words that need to be emphasized and given more attention will be placed before those that do not require more emphasis.

Meaning at the Textual or Discourse Level

Semantics does not only function within the word or sentence level but in larger stretches of language, at the level of text or discourse (both written and spoken) which has only recently been accepted as the largest unit of

language on the assumption that language does not only occur in stray words and sentences but in connected discourse. For instance, the type of Arabic used in a historical essay may not be the same as the type of language used in producing a scientific report. Words and sentences used in a particular text may take on different meanings in different contexts, topics and situations. The relatively new subjects of Discourse Analysis and Contrastive Analysis have begun to provide us with new insights into the textual aspect of meaning. For instance, Hartmann (1980) presents three components of textology: text syntax which tackles cohesive relations between sentences; text semantics which looks into information distribution in the text; and text pragmatics which inquires into the communicative aspects of the text. In Arabic, there are certain semantic and syntactic features of sentences which may only be understood fully if they are considered within the framework of a text. Khalil (1983) tackles this problem briefly at the advanced level of teaching Arabic translation. He finds that learners at this level are able to produce grammatically correct sentences but they do not treat what they translate as a text and consequently, they produce separate units of sentences that have nothing to do with each other. The reason for this, according to Khalil (1983:80), is that the learner's NL interferes by mirroring certain features of the NL text in the Arabic translation which results in "textually deficient Arabic sentences". He provides the following example to illustrate certain features of this problem:

The house in which I live is large. In the beautiful garden are fruit trees.

البيت الذى أسكن فيه كبير . فى الحديقة الجميلة أشجار فاكهة .

The syntactic structure of the English text is followed in the Arabic translation which consists of textually deficient separate sentences and thus, fails to form a sequence by not showing that it is part of a text. Contrary to the general rules of Arabic syntax, the second sentence begins with a prepositional phrase which displays a lack of semantic dependence on the first sentence by not showing any formal markers between the sentences. However, Khalil (Ibid.) observes that one way of establishing connection between both sentences is to make use of the imperfect verb **وجد** (to find) in the sentence-initial position and also the use of the conjunction **و** (and) which provides the missing element in the text that guarantees a maximum ease of interpretation, and thus he translates the second sentence as:

وتوجد أشجار فاكهة في الحديقة الجميلة

In this way, a coherent Arabic version can be produced by considering the relations between the various segments in the text and its underlying semantic features and also by following the discourse patterns of the Arabic language itself. Khalil (Ibid:83) also observes that what happens within the sentence constrains what happens between sentences and that the syntactic options which are available to the learner play a major role in establishing - or failing to establish - coherence in a text. He further states that learners have to grapple with the problem of providing whatever missing links the Arabic text requires. By missing links, he refers to the overt cohesive devices that Arabic employs such as conjunctions and anaphora (e.g. pronouns). He considers conjunctions⁽¹⁾ as among the

(1) Khalil (Ibid:84) notes that the importance and the tendency to employ sentence connectives, especially conjunctions, in Arabic is reflected in English compositions written by Arabic speaking students.

most important connectives that Arabic texts employ and their function is to specify how a certain text segment is to be interpreted and related to other segments. He regards anaphora⁽¹⁾ as an intersentential device which shows how syntax functions within the text. These are some of the components of sentence grammar which also operate at the level of a text. Finally, since very little work has been done in discourse analysis of the Arabic language, more analyses and descriptions of the characteristics and formal rules of occurrence of different discourse patterns are needed.

In the brief discussion of Arabic semantics above, it can be noticed that Arabic semantics is an area that cannot be neglected easily in teaching Arabic as a foreign language (TAFL), since it is not only the study of meaning within the linguistic structure of Arabic but it is also the study of meaning of the interactive relationship between the linguistic structure and the extra-linguistic world. The problem of meaning has taken on such great importance in recent years in teaching FLs that, for instance, Wilkins (1976) has proposed FL syllabuses to be organized on semantic rather than grammatical principles. His book entitled "Notional Syllabuses" is, in fact, another name for semantic syllabuses. He considers basic categories of meaning as the essential framework of

(1) Anaphora is the repetition of a word or an expression at the beginning of two consecutive sentences and it is used for rhetorical effect. It could also be a replacement of a previous word such as the use of a pronoun for a previously mentioned noun (Al-Khuli 1982:15).

language courses and not the grammatical system which traditionally arranges linguistic items (such as verb tenses, declension of nouns, agreement of adjectives, etc.) to be taught as an end in themselves. In his categories of meaning, he includes notions of time, quantity, relational meaning, intention, and so on (Ibid:25-41). He also considers categories of communicative functions that FL learners need such as judgement and evaluation, argument, suasion, personal emotions, etc. (Ibid:41-54). In deciding what to teach, Wilkins (Ibid:19) observes that: "In short, the linguistic content is planned according to the semantic demands of the learner". Owing to the importance of being meaningful in teaching FLs today, we can safely state that the Communicative Approach (CA) that is being proposed in this thesis is an extension of the semantic aspects of TAFL in a given context which has been neglected for so long. The valuable work of Wilkins, who is regarded as one of the founding fathers of the CA, and others in this area will be discussed in more detail in the subsequent chapters of this thesis.

In concluding this section on the nature of the Arabic language, we quote Sachau's significant words about Arabic, as translated from the German by Inayatullah (1976 ed. - inside front cover):

The language of the Arabs is reckoned as one of the greatest and most wonderful products of the human mind in the field of language construction.

2.3. Importance of Arabic and its Influence on other Languages

Importance of Arabic

There are only five languages in history that seem to have had an overwhelming influence as carriers of human culture and civilization. These are classical Chinese, Sanskrit, Greek, Latin and Arabic. Among these, Arabic is the only language that has survived as a living language up to the present day and, as such, it has enjoyed the greatest distributional and cultural power. The Arabic language today, however, is considered in modern linguistics as the third most important and widely used language in the modern world, in terms of international application and geographical area covered, after English and Spanish.⁽¹⁾ Comparing the medieval and modern use of the Arabic language, Bakalla (1981:8) considers it to be unique unlike any other language, Arabic has assumed the role of an international language twice. Once, as the vehicle of the renowned Islamic Culture and Civilization when it became an instrument of thought par excellence and today, as an official international language.

The importance of Arabic cannot only be looked at from the linguistic point of view, for after all, Arabic is the language of one of the major religions of the world, the language of the holy book of Islam, the "Qur'ān". The interrelationship between Arabic and Islam is so close that they can be regarded as Siamese twins, inseparable. First and foremost, Arabic is the language of worship of some one billion Muslims world-wide, a little

(1) Both Inayatullah (1976:1) and Sharaf (1979:XXIII) are of this view, but Surty (1984:31) regards Arabic as the second leading language of the world, after English.

less than a quarter of the human race (about 22%), and it is the language used by the muezzin who summons the faithful to prayer five times a day.

Muslim children all over the world learn to read the Holy Qur'ān at a very young age and even memorize some of its verses for the purposes of their prayers which must be said in Arabic, no matter what their NL may be. Moreover, most Muslims everywhere (even non-Arabic Muslims) know, understand and use simple Arabic phrases in greetings and expressions in their daily lives such as *بِسْمِ اللّٰهِ الرَّحْمٰنِ الرَّحِیْمِ* , *أَسْتَغْفِرُ اللّٰهَ* , *سُبْحَانَ اللّٰهِ* , *إِنْ شَاءَ اللّٰهُ* , *السَّلَامُ عَلَیْكُمْ* , etc.

Since Arabic is the spiritual language of communication with God for all Muslims, it possesses a tremendous linguistic and religious attraction for them of unexplainable proportions. A Muslim in Jakarta, Samarkand, Karachi, Nairobi, London or Toronto uses the same language of worship as a Muslim in Makkah, Medina or Cairo. Thus, the teaching of Arabic in most non-Arab Muslim countries and communities has taken on such great importance in recent years. In many of these countries and communities Arabic has been introduced in schools and universities not as a FL but as a L2. The important role the Arabic language has played, and is still playing, in the development of Arab-Muslim society has been phenomenal.

Owing to the emergence of the newly independent Arab states of North Africa and the Middle East, Arabic has once again taken on the role of an international language. Arabic is the official language and MT of about 180 million Arabs in 21 countries (representing about $\frac{1}{7}$ of the UN) which are spread over an enormous geographical area, stretching from

Mauritania in the west to the borders of Iran and from the Russian steppes to the south of the Sahara. Arabic is also spoken by many large groups of Muslims bordering these Arab states such as those in Soviet Central Asia, Southwest Iran, the northern regions of Mali, Niger, Nigeria and Chad, and there are also many Arabic speaking minorities spread all over the world, on all five continents (including immigrants, businessmen, diplomats, lecturers, students). Arabic is also the official L2 of a few Islamic countries such as Iran and Pakistan, and at least one non-Islamic country, the Philippines (Bakalla 1981:9). Arabic has become one of the official languages of the United Nations and its sister organizations (since 1973) such as UNESCO and UNICEF and other international organizations such as the OAU and the Non-Aligned countries. It is also the official language of the Islamic World League and the Arab League, including ALECSO. Besides being the official language and lingua franca of all the Arab countries, Arabic is also the language of education and the mass media throughout the Arab World such as the radio, television, books, journals, periodicals, newspapers, magazines, conferences, lectures, sermons and so on. Bakalla (Ibid.) reports on the tremendous statistical growth of Arabic publications in the Arab World over the last two decades, currently publishing over 100 Arabic daily newspapers, about 120 periodicals and journals, and about 10,000 Arabic books annually. Also, there is a growing number of Arabic newspapers, magazines and books being published in recent years outside the Arab World such as those published in Paris, London, New York and Tehran. The growth in TAFL outside the Arab-Muslim countries is also an important factor signifying the

importance of Arabic. In addition to the long standing Arabic courses being offered at institutions of higher learning in Europe and North America, there is a growing number of schools beginning to TAFL such as those in France, USA, United Kingdom and many other parts of the world, including South Africa. This indicates the importance of Arabic not only to the people who speak it but to the world at large.

The Arabic language and the Middle East as fields of study are not only important because of its enormous oil wealth, which may be an economist point of view. There are numerous other factors which make Arabic one of the leading world languages. From the geographical point of view, the Middle East stands at the crossroads of three continents and by controlling the international trade routes of this area (sea, air and land), it occupies a strategic geographical position in the world (القاسمي (١٩٧٩:٤٤)). From the cultural point of view, the Middle East has been the cradle of many ancient civilizations and the most recent one, the Islamic Civilization, contributed significantly to the European Renaissance. In addition to the rich literary heritage of the Arabic language, it has already proved of immense value in the study of these ancient civilizations (such as Akkadian, Babylonian, Phoenician, etc.) through their Semitic languages and thus, Inayatullah (1976:10-12) regards Arabic as the corner-stone of Semitic philology. He also considers its great value for Biblical studies, for the explanation of rare words and

forms in the Hebrew of the Old Testament.⁽¹⁾ Concerning the contributions of the Islamic Civilization, the cultural influence of the Arabic language added greatly to the knowledge of general human culture in the areas of literature, religion, philosophy, linguistics, education, history, architecture, astronomy, mathematics and medicine. The Muslims through the Arabic language laid the foundations of trigonometry, invented algebra, simplified the numerals of arithmetic as well as other scientific achievements. Thus, it was the scientific advances of the Islamic Civilization that ultimately influenced the Western World most by giving it the impetus to reach the state of modern reasoning, and the scientific and technological achievements that it has reached today. The Islamic Civilization absorbed the sciences mainly from the Greeks (in addition to Persian and Indian ideas), developed them to a very high degree, and then handed them over to the Europeans on a platter, mainly through Muslim Spain. Indeed, Sarton (1933:334) states that between the 8th and 12th century the Arabic language was the main vehicle of progress and culture, and that the shortest road to up-date information in any scientific field during that time was the study of Arabic.

(1) In his valuable work, Why We Learn the Arabic Language, Inayatullah (1976, 4th ed.) discusses many other factors indicating the importance of Arabic for Universal History, History of Science, Arabic elements in Persian, Turkish and Romance Languages, Greek authors in Arabic translations, etc. Concerning the Arabic translations, scores of books of Greek as well as Latin philosophy and sciences which might have been lost forever, were preserved in the Arabic translations.

The single most important factor which assisted most in the transmission of the Islamic sciences to the Europeans was the systematic translation of hundreds of Arabic manuscripts and books to other languages (such as Latin, Spanish, French and Hebrew) that was done in Muslim Spain between the 11th - 13th century (Jadwat 1984).

Arabic Influence on Other Languages

Renan once observed that the spread of the Arabic language is one of the strangest events in human history whose mystery is difficult to unravel (Khan 1979:XXIX). The spread of Arabic and its influence on other languages has been enormous, be it in Asia, Africa or Europe. But this linguistic spread and influence of Arabic has often been underestimated. Bakalla (1981:66) observes that in sociolinguistics there is a hard and fast rule which advocates the following principle of language contact: "whenever there is a cultural contact of any form, there must be a linguistic contact as a result". This feature was particularly prominent during the expansion of the Islamic Empire. The sole contributions of the Arabs in the conquered territories were confined, at first, to two main areas: language and religion. In those regions of the globe where Islamic rule governed for a long time, Arabic had either completely dominated and replaced the languages of those nations or it had penetrated into the lexical heart of those languages.⁽¹⁾ The

(1) An important point that cannot be denied here is that the Arabic language itself absorbed many words from other nations and cultures during this period.

Arab World today is living proof of those nations that adopted the Arabic language and as a result became Arabicized, except perhaps some Berber and Kurdish groups. As for those languages that Arabic penetrated and influenced, these are many. In Asia, they are Persian, Turkish, Urdu, Punjabi, Benghali, Malay, Maranaw, Tamil, Kurdish and Pashtu; in Africa, they are Hausa, Swahili, Yoruba, Berber, Somali, Mandinka and Wolof; and in Europe, they are the Romance languages such as Spanish, Portuguese, Provençal, French, Italian and also Maltese. Sometimes the influence had been indirect as in the case of English and some other modern European languages which borrowed Arabic vocabulary through Spanish, French and Italian. ⁽¹⁾

As a vehicle of Islamic Civilization and Culture, the Arabic language influenced these languages in two main ways: borrowing of Arabic vocabulary (i.e. words, expressions and concepts) or adopting the Arabic script, or both. Those nations that embraced Islam but did not replace their national languages with Arabic were so heavily influenced by Arabic that they not only borrowed a great part of Arabic vocabulary, but they also adopted the Arabic script for writing their own languages such as Persian, Turkish, Urdu, Swahili, Malay, etc. These languages are known as the subsidiary languages of Islam because Arabic not only influenced these languages but also their literatures, to a great extent. In his interesting book, (١٩١٥) عبادہ lists 34 languages that used the Arabic script at the beginning of this century. His list consists of only

(1) See Bakalla (1981) and Inayatullah (1976) for more details.

the Asian languages, with the largest groupings coming under the Persian, Turkish, and Kurdish languages, and none of those he mentions are from Africa. But Bakalla (1981:18) notes some of the Sub-Saharan African languages that used the Arabic script such as Swahili, Mandinka and Wolof, and he has found recently that some of the old generation still use this script today. Even Africaans was once written in the Arabic script by early Muslim exiles (Malay) that were brought to Cape Town by the Dutch from Java and Sumatra, over 300 years ago.⁽¹⁾ To this day, many Malay Imams in South Africa still use this script, which was called "Hollands-Arab" or Arabic-Africaans, for their Friday sermons.

- (1) In the South African Museum of Cultural History in Cape Town, there is a unique collection of Islamic literature written in Arabic-Africaans by the Malay exiles. These include several copies of the Qur'ān, books on Fiqh and other topics. In his thesis on the history of early Muslims in South Africa, Dr. Robert Shell, put forward the view that the Muslim exiles and their "Holland-Arabs" literature made a significant contribution to the development of the Africaans language, a contribution never properly acknowledged because of white race chauvinism. As a result, there is a substantial number of words of Malay origin in Africaans today. Since Malay was influenced by Arabic, some of these words in Africaans may also be indirectly of Arabic origin. However, this area needs to be investigated, but one linguistic fact is certain which is the frequent dropping of the end-consonants of written Africaans in their spoken form, just as in Arabic. For example, myn becomes my and lewen becomes lewe in spoken Africaans (Al-Qalam:1983).

Concerning the borrowing of Arabic vocabulary by the languages that were influenced by Arabic, Bakalla (1981:68) observes that two points need to be stressed. The first point states that Arabic loan words were not only confined to religious terms, but also included some legal, artistic and scientific words and expressions as well, for example, alchemy and alkali and many words in astronomy and astrology.⁽¹⁾ The second point concerns the fact that many of the Arabic loan words lost part of their phonetic shapes, and have become partially or totally unrecognizable by laymen as well as educated people. This is typical of many of the Arabic words found in European languages. Among the examples cited by Bakalla (Ibid.), أمير البحر (lit. Commander of Sea) is a good example; in Spanish and Portuguese it is "almirante"; in Italian it is "ammiraglio"; and in French "amiral", and in English "admiral". On the other hand, most of the Arabic loan words in some Islamic languages are fairly recognizable such as the word for news (خبر); in Swahili it is "habari"; in Malay - "kabar"; in Turkish - "haber"; and in Persian - "khabar" (Ibid:69). Some of the easily recognizable words in English are: algebra (الجبر), cipher (صفر), sugar (سكر), lemon (ليمون), alcohol (الكحول), mosque (مسجد), cotton (قطن), castle (قصر), etc. It has been

(1) There are also a large number of place-names of Arabic origin in Romance languages such as towns, villages, farms, castles, rivers, springs, etc. Inayatullah (1976:67) supplies a useful list of bibliographic references for the Arabic element in the Romance languages.

found that there were about 2,000 English words of Arabic origin, most of which have become obsolete and some not frequently used, but there are between 400-500 words of Arabic origin that are still used in everyday English (Ibid:68).⁽¹⁾ Among the European languages, Arabic has undoubtedly had the deepest influence on Spanish for it was directly influenced by Arabic, mainly because of the 800 years of Islamic rule in Spain. The Spanish language not only borrowed a substantial amount of Arabic vocabulary such as "fonda" for hotel (فندق) and "tahuna" for bakery (طاحونة), but it was also influenced by the linguistic structure of Arabic as in the use of the Arabic definite article (ال) in front of many Spanish words and also the pronunciation of the "sun-letters" and the "moon-letters" of Arabic.⁽²⁾ Among the Asian languages, Persian and then Turkish seem to be the most deeply influenced by Arabic vocabulary. It is estimated that both of these languages have more than 30% of Arabic vocabulary (Chejne 1969:4). Kurdish, Malay, Pashtu and Urdu could be said to be influenced to a

(1) For more information about the Arabic influence on English see, W. Taylor, Arabic Words in English (Oxford, 1933) and S.A.H. Al-Sayed, A Lexicon and Analysis of English Words of Arabic Origin (unpub. Ph.D. thesis, 1972 or 1973, Univ. of Colorado at Boulder), available on microfilm. Also another book cited in Bakalla (1981:68) with no author, entitled, 10,000 Arabic Loan Words in English (Baghdad, 1979).

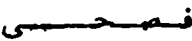
(2) For more details see Thomas Arnold, ed., The Legacy of Islam, pp.13-30, (OUP, 1960) and also Hanna (1964).

little lesser degree. Among the African languages, Swahili and Hausa and perhaps Somali seem to be the most greatly influenced, with about 40%-50% of words of Arabic origin in both Swahili and Hausa (القاسمي ، ٥٣ : (أ) ١٩٧٩).

Finally, concerning the future of the Arabic language, there is every indication that just as it was capable of meeting the challenges of the past and it emerged successful as the vehicle of a renowned culture and civilization capable of expressing both religious and scientific thought, in the same manner, the Arabic language is capable of meeting the challenges of the present and the future by serving the changing needs of Arabic society in all fields of human knowledge, although the problems facing the Arabic language are many. ⁽¹⁾

(1) For more details about the present challenges and future prospects of Arabic see Bakalla (1981), Chejne (1969), Inayatullah (1976), Khan (1979), (القاسمي) ١٩٧٩ , Sharaf (1979) and Surty (1984).

2.4. Summary and Conclusion

In discussing the general nature of the Arabic language (2.2.), one cannot deny the fact that the existence of the written Arabic language over more than 1400 years can be solely attributed to the very existence of the Holy Qur'ān itself and if it had not been for the Holy Qur'ān, the Arabic language would not be enjoying such a large geographical and international influence that it enjoys today. As a result of this, the dialects of Arabic have been prevented from becoming fully independent languages, as happened in the case of the dialects of Latin. Concerning the nature of the Arabic language itself over 1400 years, the script of the  has remained the same, the morphology is virtually identical, the syntax has changed a little, and the vocabulary differs to some extent, for obvious historical reasons. Arabic is described as a Semitic language and like all Semitic languages, it is distinguished by its trilateral root system. However, some scholars consider Arabic as the youngest of all Semitic languages and others consider it as the oldest. The former view also considers Arabic as bearing a closer resemblance to the parent of all Semitic languages, the so-called 'Proto-Semitic', than any of the other Semitic languages. There seems to be a contradiction in this view. How can the youngest of all Semitic languages be closest to the oldest?

Thereafter, the structure of the Arabic language is briefly described mainly from the linguistic point of view, since this is the best means available at our disposal to describe the language adequately. The first sub-section (2.2.1.) deals with the phonology and graphology of Arabic. Arabic is considered as an extremely phonetic language since words are spelt as they

are heard, unlike English. Twenty of the twenty-nine letters of the alphabet are simple for English speakers to master, since they are similar or identical to their counterparts found in English. Of the remaining nine letters, the following five consonant phonemes seem to be the most difficult and need extra practice: ح , خ , ع , غ and ق . These and the remaining four emphatics (ط , ظ and ص , ض) are adequately described in the chart provided for beginners to master. The vowels, diphthongs and orthographic signs are fairly simple and easy to master. The Arabic system of writing from right to left, however, may cause a few problems for beginners but if adequate writing practice is provided, this problem can easily be overcome. All the letters of the alphabet have four forms (initial, medial, final and separate) except for six letters (ا , د , ذ , ر , ز and و) which cannot be joined to following letters and thus, may be called the 'non-connectors.'

Arabic morphology (2.2.2.) is fairly simple in its broad outline. There are only three parts of speech in Arabic: اسم وفعل وحرف . The most important characteristic of the Arabic language is its creative morphological system based on the triconsonantal root system from which most of the words in Arabic are derived or built up. This makes the morphological system dynamic since even new words can be coined by derivation or by imposing certain vowel patterns on the radicals of roots. Over 50% of the words in Arabic are nouns which are divided into two major categories: expressed nouns (الاسماء الظاهرة) and (pro)nouns (الضمائر). Nouns are inflected by case endings (اعراب) or declension. Verbs are inflected or conjugated by means of prefixes,

infixes or suffixes to indicate the following: the three persons (1st, 2nd and 3rd); the three numbers (singular, dual and plural); the two genders (masculine and feminine); the ten or fourteen derived forms; the four moods (indicative, subjunctive and jussive in the active and passive voices, and imperative in the active voice only); and the two tenses (past and non-past). There is a great wealth of particles (حروف) in Arabic and they are considered to be indeclinable (مبني).

The syntax of Arabic (2.2.3.) is not complicated, if the syntactic features of Arabic are properly understood, i.e. the word-order, functional changes and the role of number, gender and اعراب . These syntactic features are interdependent in Arabic and they may be regarded as the 'traffic rules' of the language whereby clearer understanding is provided. Arabic sentences can be divided into verbal and nominal types or verbal, comment, equational and conditional sentences. Typically, Arabic is a verb-subject-object (VSO) type of language because of its preference for verbal sentences, although many variations are possible in word-order whereby Arabic syntax displays a great degree of flexibility, economy and freedom to change positions of words without changing the meaning of the whole sentence through the use of اعراب .

Arabic semantics (2.2.4.) is a vital and important area of study for designing effective Arabic language programmes, and yet it seems to be the least studied and developed area of the Arabic language (i.e. excluding meaning at the word level) by non-Arab linguists. The great works in the field of البلاغة and its three sciences (علم المعاني وعلم البيان وعلم البديع) have rarely been tapped in detail for teaching purposes. In Arabic

semantics, in a wider sense, meaning needs to be investigated not only within the linguistic structure (i.e. phonology, morphology and syntax) itself, but also within the interactive relationship between the linguistic structure and the extra-linguistic world (i.e. the contextual and sociocultural factors affecting meaning). An additional problem in spoken Arabic is that meaning is also conveyed by prosodic (verbal) and paralinguistic features (non-verbal communication) of Arabic and these need to be studied more in detail for better sociocultural understanding. Since language cannot function without meaning, it is necessary that more thorough explorations in Arabic semantics are conducted in order that clearer categories of meaning are established. There are three broad levels in which meanings generally operate in Arabic: the word level, the sentence level, and the textual or discourse level. At the word level, Arabic can be generally described as a natural language imitating the sounds of nature, i.e. the natural sounds of human beings, animals and the environment. Many verbs and nouns are derived from the names of parts of the body. A number of principles for coining new vocabulary have been agreed upon and these have become the basic criteria for reviving and rejuvenating the language in modern times. Meaning at the sentence level represents the semantico-grammatical aspect of Arabic. In addition to knowing the linguistic structure of Arabic (rules of language usage), the learner also needs to know the communicative function of sentences and the extra-linguistic factors that affect meaning, i.e. the functional meaning as expressed by the rules of language use instead of using isolated decontextualized sentences as found in traditional Arabic language textbooks.

Therefore, categories of communicative and rhetorical functions need to be specified and used for teaching purposes. Meaning at the textual or discourse level (both written and spoken) is a new field of enquiry. In the past, the sentence was considered as the largest unit of description in Arabic but the new subjects of Discourse and Contrastive Analysis have begun to provide us with new insights into the textual aspect of meaning. There are certain semantic and syntactic features of Arabic sentences which may be understood fully only if they are considered within the framework of a text. For instance, the use of conjunctions and anaphora (e.g. pronouns) are some of the overt cohesive devices that Arabic employs to achieve coherence in a text.

Since semantics had been neglected for so long by linguists, the problem of meaning has taken on great importance in recent years in teaching FLs by suggesting FL syllabuses to be organized on semantic rather than grammatical principles. However, owing to the importance of being meaningful in teaching Arabic, the CA proposed in this thesis is an extension of the semantic aspects of TAFL in a given context.

In the next section (2.3.), the importance of Arabic and its influence on other languages is considered. The Arabic language today is considered as the second or third most important and widely used language in the world after English and perhaps Spanish, in terms of geographical area covered and international application. In addition to this, Arabic is the key to a major civilization, religion and to the understanding of the Arabs as well as the Muslims world-wide who constitute almost a quarter of the human race. The spread of the Arabic language and its influence on

other languages has been enormous , and has often been underestimated. As such, and in the light of the above facts , if a proper understanding of the world is aimed at, Arabic studies cannot be ignored by any education system any longer.

CHAPTER THREE

FL TEACHING APPROACHES AND METHODS

3.1. Preview

The previous chapter outlined the general nature of the Arabic language and its importance. Since what has influenced the development of teaching FLs in general has directly or indirectly influenced the teaching of Arabic as a foreign language (TAFL), this chapter is an attempt to provide an overview of what has actually occurred in FL teaching in recent times, particularly over the last one hundred years or so. Thus, in order to bring about improvements in TAFL, we need to understand the history of language teaching, for modern interpretations of language teaching are based on past experience which is only one essential aspect necessary for the development of a satisfactory theory of language teaching. In the past, as Stern (1983:452) observes, "language educators have attempted to focus attention almost exclusively on teaching method." Is the best method concept appropriate to TAFL or should we be looking for other alternatives such as an approach which may be able to accommodate a wider number of variables than a single-factor method concept? This chapter sets out to answer these questions by exploring the relevant literature to see what constitutes an approach and a method and therefore, it deals with the major FL teaching approaches and methods from which modern trends of language teaching have developed.

The teaching of FLs today is rapidly changing in outlook from the traditional classical view of learning FLs, i.e. learning a FL only to appreciate the literature of the classics in the tradition of Greek and Latin. This resulted in most FL departments teaching their respective FLs based on the teaching of Latin, since that was the ideal. The traditional way of teaching Latin

was based on the Grammar-Translation Method (G-TM) and therefore other FLs followed suit and this resulted in totally grammar-based or literature-based syllabuses. Also, the written code was considered as the only authentic form of the language (in the days before the introduction of tape recorders and record players) as opposed to the spoken code. Can the G-TM produce students with a near-native speaking competence in Arabic? Teaching practice by this method indicates otherwise, since the G-TM produces students with an ability only to read and write Arabic. What about the other two basic linguistic skills of understanding speech (listening) and speaking Arabic? Wilkins (1974:62) answers this question very appropriately by observing that "the bias towards writing could have been corrected without a compensating bias towards speech. A proper balance between the two was all that was needed."

The battle in language teaching is therefore between two schools of thought: one formalist or traditionalist and the other activist or functionalist. The result is that these two groups of teachers employ quite different and indeed opposing teaching methods and techniques such as teaching through language analysis or language use, deduction or induction, details of grammar or functional grammar, passive or active classroom, priority of writing or speech, and so on. If we consider some of the more recent methods of teaching FLs, besides the traditional, such as the Audio-Lingual Method (A-LM) or the Audio-Visual Method (A-VM), have they produced near-native speakers or communicators in a FL? The lack of success by these methods has also become evident over the last few years.

3.2. FL Teaching Approaches

The work of linguist, although important, is basically to provide the language teacher and the applied linguist with a clear description and explanation of the phenomenon of language, but the work of an applied linguist goes beyond that to the actual practice, formulation of teaching materials and techniques, adoption of a particular method with a certain approach in teaching and so on. One can, therefore, assume that the work of an applied linguist is to make a survey of language teaching materials, link them to a particular method and, finally, to assign them to a specific approach, i.e. to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Before discussing the different approaches which gave rise to particular teaching methods, it is necessary to define what is an approach and also what is a method so that the differences between them are clear. Bell (1981:75), an applied linguist, defines an 'approach' in the following words:

An approach is an orientation to the problem of language learning which derives from an amalgam of linguistic and psychological insights into the nature of language and the nature of the learning process. Well-articulated, an approach is a Theory of Applied Linguistics which seeks to explain the phenomenon of language-learning in terms which will assist the learner to achieve his goal.

Bell (Ibid.) goes on to state that at the root of an approach will be the answers which the particular applied linguist gives to two key questions:

1. What is language?
2. How do we learn languages?

On the other hand, a language teaching 'method' is defined by Bell (Ibid.) as:

A method is the application of the insights which constitute the approach to the problem of language learning. Typically, a method will have a pedagogical grammar - or grammars - associated with it and principles which guide the creation of such grammars, the selection of elements to be taught and of techniques for teaching them.

Language teaching materials are the texts and other aids the language teacher uses to assist in the learning process and thus they are the output of the approach arrived at by the application of the method.

According to Bell (Ibid.), the primary question on which an approach rests is the first question; 'what is language?', since the answer to this question defines the content of the syllabus; 'what is to be learned?' He (Ibid:76) further argues that the answer to the second question - 'how is language learned?' - is, by definition, one of method, since it leads us to a specification of how the content is to be learned in a classroom.

After analysing the theoretical positions basic to various approaches in language teaching over several centuries, Rivers (1981:25) comes to the conclusion that there are only two main streams of thought: "each developing an integrated system of techniques devolving from its fundamental premises." The first is the formalists or traditionalists and the second is activists or functionalists. In association with this, let us look at the unit of a language that was taught through the ages to see what relationship it has with the formalist's and activist's views. The unit of a language was once commonly understood to be the "word", i.e. learning or memorizing the lexical items of the language. Thereafter, the

unit expanded to become the "sentence" since the learning of individual words irrespective of their functions was thought to be a worthless exercise. This is where the formalist view of language comes in because the "sentence" for the formalist is the upper limit of description of a language and hence, the largest unit that can be taught. Although formalists were aware of larger units of language within which sentences formed constituents, they were unable to discover a suitable structure for language beyond the "sentence". Over the last decade or so, the activists' or rather the functionalists' view of language has gone beyond the sentence to include "text" or "discourse", mainly because functionalists are motivated by the fact that the learning of individual sentences irrespective of their function can also be a worthless exercise, since language is stripped apart and taught in a decontextualized form.

By the same token, it can be said that the formalist view of language defines language as a system to be deciphered or a code to be decoded. This is generally the North American view of language which places more emphasis on Psycholinguistics based on the Habit-Formation Theory of learning languages of Skinner (and others) and research into the acquisition and learning of L1 and L2 by children and adults. On the other hand, the European view of language today subscribes generally to the functionalist view which defines language as use in society or as social behaviour and therefore, in the European context, more emphasis is placed on Sociolinguistics than on Psycholinguistics. Bell (1981:76) observes that a Sociolinguistic view of language implies a question hidden in his first question - within 'what is language?' lies the further question 'what is

language for?' - and this forces the Sociolinguist into a functionalist rather than a formalist attitude to language and language learning. Bell (Ibid:77) goes on to make an interesting statement: "what we now have in applied linguistics are two approaches - one formalist and the other functionalist - and a range of methods." He (Ibid.) also believes that the controversy, in applied linguistic terms, has been over method rather than approach and that a new approach has only begun to emerge during the last decade.

The coming into existence of the European community triggered the production of an important and influential set of proposals for a unit/credit system of language teaching for adults.⁽¹⁾ These proposals were drawn up for the Council of Europe by a team of language teaching experts from a number of European countries, including several from Britain, and deal in the first instance with the teaching of English as a FL as well as French, German, Spanish and other European languages. Wilkins (1976:1), one of the contributors to this project, argues that the numerous pedagogical strategies ('methods') in existence could be grouped into two conceptually distinct types of approaches which could be labelled 'synthetic' and 'analytic' and that any actual course or syllabus could be placed somewhere on a continuum between the two. He (Ibid:2) defines the first of these approaches as follows:

A synthetic language-teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of the language are taught separately and step-by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up.

(1) See Trim (1973) for more details.

Courses based on this approach will result in the formation of language items to be taught into a list of grammatical structures and perhaps a list of lexical items, i.e. teaching the 'form' of the language without 'content'. This is typical of the traditional grammars in Arabic. The learner in this case, according to Yalden (1983:21), is exposed at any one time only to a limited sample of the target language (TL) and the sample is carefully controlled by the teaching situation. Yalden (Ibid.) observes that "the learner's job is thus to re-synthesize language that has been taken apart and presented to him in small pieces; this synthesis generally takes place only in the final stages of learning, at the so-called 'advanced' levels." Thus, synthetic approaches produce a grammatical or a structural syllabus since the content of the syllabus is determined by giving top priority to teaching mainly the 'grammar' and 'structure' of the language. Applications of this approach are clearly noticed in the traditional G-TM and also in the A-LM, although these two methods are diametrically opposed when examined according to other criteria. In the case of the A-LM, principles of behaviourist psychology⁽¹⁾ have been used to justify the choice of language items. In any application of this method even of the audio-visual or eclectic kind, language is viewed as a self-contained system to be decoded and psychological in orientation. The language teacher in these situations is concerned much more with knowledge of the language system than with its use in society as a social skill.

(1) These principles have been derived mainly from the Habit-Formation Theory of Skinner (1968) and they have been applied in teaching FLs in the USA through audio-lingual methodology.

The 'analytic approach' described by Wilkins (Ibid.) leads to the production of a semantic, meaning-based syllabus via various pedagogical strategies to a somewhat wider goal: that of communicative competence, rather than linguistic (grammatical) competence alone. Wilkins (Ibid.) describes analytic approaches in the following terms:

In analytic approaches there is no attempt at this careful linguistic control of the learning environment. Components of language are not seen as building blocks which have to be progressively accumulated. Much greater variety of linguistic structure is permitted from the beginning and the learner's task is to approximate his own linguistic behaviour more and more closely to the global language.

An analytic approach is, therefore, based on the notion of a general competence in language, i.e. the ability to manipulate linguistic forms as well as the ability to choose an appropriate answer to a particular situation. Widdowson (1978:6) observes that the realization of language as use⁽¹⁾ involves these two kinds of ability in the following manner:

"One kind is the ability to select which form of sentence is appropriate for a particular linguistic context. The second is the ability to recognize

(1) Widdowson defines 'language use' as contrary to his definition of 'language usage' which he (Ibid:3) describes as "one aspect of performance, that aspect which makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his knowledge of linguistic rules. He describes 'language use' as another aspect of performance: "that which makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication."

which function is fulfilled by a sentence in a particular communicative situation." This second ability (i.e. the recognition of communicative functions) must be given top priority in TAFL since traditional methods have failed to develop this ability in their students, with the adoption of totally structural syllabuses based on decontextualized language usage. It is imperative, therefore, that Arabic language course designers and planners should be thinking more in terms of a semantic, meaning-based syllabus provided by an analytic approach. Since the semantic syllabus consists of more components, it will necessarily be more intricate and demand much more in its construction than the grammatical syllabus. The semantic syllabus consists of many types such as situational, notional, topical, etc. These are discussed under syllabus design in Chapter 6.

This question of appropriateness in speech as well as in writing is an important issue in the Arabic language itself and it was one of the reasons the Science of Rhetoric - علم البلاغة emerged and developed in the history of the Arabic language. Perhaps, some of the most popular slogans in بلاغة could be used in describing the importance of this subject in Arabic:

لكل مقام مقال - For every situation there is an appropriate speech.

These words have been attributed to the Prophet (peace be upon him).

Another well-known slogan is:

كُلُّ بَلِيغٍ فَصِيحٌ وَلَيْسَ كُلُّ فَصِيحٍ بَلِيغٌ

Every eloquent (effective) speaker speaks (or writer writes) in pure Arabic but every pure Arabic speaker (or writer) is not eloquent (effective or appropriate in this context).

Every pure Arabic speaker or writer may be correct but this is not enough in **بلاغة** , since the circumstances of the situation or context need to be taken into consideration. In **بلاغة** , one cannot speak to a professor in class , or a judge in court , or a president of a country , or even a layman in the street , all in the same manner and tone . Each situation demands a different speaker-listener relationship especially in the choice of words to be used . To be **بليغ** is to be able to match what the situation or context demands . This is basically what **بلاغة** is about . If **بلاغة** is about appropriateness in the use of the language in speech or writing and **فصحى** is about correctness in linguistic forms of Arabic , then , by the same token , **بلاغة** can be equated to Arabic language use and **فصحى** to Arabic language usage . The distinction between 'usage' and 'use' of Widdowson is also related to de Saussure's distinction between 'langue' (language) and 'parole' (speech) and Chomsky's similar distinction between 'competence' and 'performance' and this distinction between **فصحى** and **بلاغة** in the Arabic language .

In order to avoid the confusion that has resulted from the use of the terms 'formal' and 'functional' in FL teaching , Canale and Swain (1980:2) have chosen to make a general distinction between grammatical (or grammar-based) and communicative (or semantic-based) approaches to FL teaching by providing the following definition of the two approaches :

By a grammatical approach we mean one that is organized on the basis of linguistic forms, or what we call grammatical forms (i.e. phonological forms, morphological forms, syntactic patterns, lexical items) and emphasizes the ways in which these forms may be combined to form grammatical sentences ...

A communicative (or functional/notional) approach on the other hand is organized on the basis of communicative functions (e.g. apologizing, describing, inviting, promising) that a given learner or group of learners needs to know and emphasizes the way in which particular grammatical forms may be used to express these functions appropriately.

Thus, what we have in FL teaching are two distinct approaches with a variety of terms, all expressing similar conceptual poles: synthetic-analytic, formal-functional, structural-contextual and grammatical-communicative.

3.3. Major FL Teaching Methods

Before discussing some of the major FL teaching methods which have been widely used during the past century, it is useful and necessary to understand the present situation by tracing FL teaching from the European Renaissance as a starting point and sketch in, from the 16th century, the tradition on which 19th century and 20th century language teaching is based.

Language teaching was regarded as a practical matter during the period from the Renaissance to the beginning of the 19th century. The main aim was to teach people in such a way that they would be able to communicate face-to-face with the native speakers of the chosen language and,

therefore, the orientation to the task was practical or functional. This was in direct contrast with the attitude of the 19th century teacher who saw in the learning of a FL, a valuable mental discipline rather than the acquiring of communication skills. The 19th century also brought a shift in attention from the spoken to the written medium, a process which reduced even French, German and certainly Arabic in Britain to the status of 'dead' languages and, yet, during the Renaissance even Latin and Greek were taught to be spoken and only secondarily written (Bell 1973:80). Gradually a more formalist approach became general in the 19th century, with emphasis on the study of grammatical rules in tables and paradigms which the learner was required to memorize by rote. This resulted in the mother-tongue (MT) becoming essential in FL teaching, since most teaching and learning was through translation and the explanation of the grammar of the FL in the MT. This marked a sharp contrast between 19th century practice and what had gone before. In preceding centuries, a kind of 'semi-direct' method was normally used; the teacher only falling back on the MT for a more efficient explanation in it than in the FL. Bell (Ibid.) traces the use of the FL and the exclusion of the MT to Comenius' *Didactica* of 1568. The teaching of Arabic presumably followed this pattern in Europe.

In Bell's (Ibid.) view, the 19th century stands out as a deviation from the mainstream of European language teaching to which FL teaching is returning in this century. He further observes that it is remarkable how much in agreement the contemporary and 18th century language teacher would appear to be; language teaching should be geared to producing

individuals who can communicate in the FL, the MT should be avoided in class, if possible, the learners should be helped to deduce the rules of the FL from texts rather than be given the rules and be expected to learn or memorize them (Ibid.).

In evaluating the effectiveness of a particular method, Arabic teachers and trainee teachers need to keep certain questions in mind because ultimately it is the teacher's attitude that determines the way the language lesson is organized. Rivers (1981:27-8) lists these questions into five distinct points and these are:

1. Objectives: Language teachers should ask themselves what are the objectives of the method under discussion and whether these objectives are appropriate for their present teaching situation or the types of students they will teach.
2. Techniques⁽¹⁾: They should then consider whether the techniques advocated by the proponents of the method achieve the stated objectives in the most economical way (i.e. the most direct route to these objectives).
3. Motivation: Since techniques may be economical in the attainment

(1) The term 'technique' needs to be defined here. What is meant by a technique in language teaching? Anthony (1973:4) provides a suitable definition: "A technique is implementational - that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well."

of objectives but intensely boring, inhibiting or overdemanding for the students, they should next ask whether these techniques maintain the interest, enthusiasm and motivation of the learners, and at what level of instruction.

4. Appropriate for all Students: In view of the great variation in abilities and interests within today's student body, they will wish to consider also whether these techniques are appropriate for all types of students [such as low, middle or high ability students] and whether they can be easily adapted.
5. Demands on the Teacher: Finally, they will keep in mind a question which is often overlooked; whether the demands these techniques make on teachers are such that they can carry a full teaching load. Some methods are excellent for an hour's demonstration class but demand so much preparation or expenditure of effort by the teacher that they have to be modified in a normal teaching situation.

Turning to the question of FL teaching methods, Mackey (1965) lists fifteen methods that were used for teaching FLs through the ages and these are: the direct method, natural, psychological, phonetic, reading, grammar, eclectic, translation, grammar-translation, unit, language control, mimicry, practice theory, cognitive, and the dual-language method.⁽¹⁾ All of these methods are not discussed here, only some of the major methods which have been most popular during the last century

(1) Hawkins (1981:Appendix D) draws up an even larger list, an inventory of about 40 methods, including the methods discussed by Mackey (1965), Kelly (1969) and Titone (1968).

are reviewed below. The recent modern trends or methods adopted through an analytic approach (such as the situational, notional/functional, communicative, etc.) are not included in the list of Mackey above nor in the review below. These are discussed in Chapter 6. The major FL teaching methods of the last century can be grouped into four broad types, as in Rivers (1981). These are: the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Reading Method and the Audio-Lingual or Aural-Oral Method. Each one of these methods is discussed in some detail below to investigate how effective or ineffective they have been, to see what we can learn from their defects and assets, and to know exactly what constitutes a particular teaching method since this is always not very clear.

3.3.1. The Traditional Grammar - Translation Method (G-TM)

History and Description

In describing this method, one cannot trace it to the tenets of any particular master teacher but it was clearly rooted in the formal teaching of Latin and Greek which prevailed in Europe in the 19th century. When Latin was no longer learned as a language for communication among scholars, its primary aim for study could not be justified on utilitarian grounds since utility was considered at that time (19th century) an inappropriate criterion to be applied to any area of advanced study. The learning of Latin and Greek was justified as an intellectual discipline. The mind was trained, it was asserted, by the logical analysis of the language, much memorization of complicated rules and paradigms, and the application of these in

translation exercises. Latin and Greek were further justified as the key to the thought and literature of a great and ancient civilization. The reading and translation of texts was considered of great importance, as were written exercises in imitation of these texts.

Modern languages were accepted as reputable areas of study only after much controversy and opposition from the supporters of classical studies. They had to prove themselves to be of equal value for the training of the mind and as the key to a great literature and civilization, as in the case of Arabic. It was inevitable then, that modern language teaching in general and Arabic in particular should be modelled at this stage on the methods already employed for the teaching of an ancient language which was no longer in use for communication and of which even the original pronunciation was in doubt, with the result that, in the latter part of the 19th century, these formal techniques were adapted to the teaching of modern languages by Plötz in Germany and, thereafter, his ideas rapidly spread to other countries. ⁽¹⁾

This classical method has persisted in many areas including Arabic, despite attempts to introduce methods more appropriate to the teaching of a living language with a contemporary literature to students whose range of interests and abilities are very much wider than assumed. Certain 19th century textbooks which continued to be used and imitated well into the 20th century were notable for the meticulous detail of their

(1) For a more detailed history of the G-TM, see Kelly (1969:51-4, 175-6) and Titone (1968:27-9).

descriptions of the FL grammar (based on the traditional expectations and vocabulary (terminology) of Latin and Greek grammar), with their preoccupation with written exercises, especially translation exercises, and their lengthy bilingual vocabulary lists. These textbooks usually contained long extracts from great writers, chosen for their intellectual content rather than for the level of difficulty of the FL or their intrinsic interest for the modern student. Such textbooks dominate the work of the teacher whose immediate aim becomes the completion of all the exercises in the unit and the covering of all the units in a book in a given period of time. Teachers who were themselves taught by this method and who have not had sufficient exposure to the living language situation and other possible approaches to teaching a FL, continue this tradition. New textbooks modelled on the old tend to imitate the grammatical descriptions and exercises of their predecessors with the result that archaic structures and obsolete vocabulary and phrases continue to be taught to successive generations of students. Teachers who wish to adopt active methods, but are forced to use such textbooks, try to introduce some practice in communication in their classes. They are, however, frustrated by the academic and inappropriate forms of language and the enormous range of vocabulary the books contain, while their students are bored by the repetitive nature of the innumerable written exercises.

Teaching Techniques

The classroom application of this method depends on three basic aims:

1. Grammar: aims at inculcating an understanding of the grammar of the FL and training the student to write the new language accurately by regular practice in translating from the native language (NL) into the FL.
2. Literary Vocabulary: aims at providing the student with a wide literary vocabulary, often of an unnecessarily detailed nature.
3. Translation Exercises: aim at training the student to extract the meaning of FL texts by doing translation exercises into the NL and, at advanced stages, to appreciate the literary value of these texts.

The teacher tries to achieve these aims by giving lengthy and detailed grammatical explanations in the NL, followed by training the students in writing grammatical paradigms, in applying the rules they have learned to the construction of sentences in the FL, and in translating consecutive sentences and prose passages from the NL to the FL. Texts in the FL are also translated into the NL, in writing and sometimes orally. The literary and cultural significance of texts are also ideally discussed, although in many classes because of the limited time available, this may be done in passing, if at all.

Evaluation of the G-TM

The defects of the G-TM are many. Little attention is given to accurate pronunciation, intonation and stress patterns. The communicative skills are neglected, with the result that students taught by this method are frequently confused when addressed in the FL because they have had little practice in speaking and listening to it, and they may also be very

embarrassed when asked to pronounce anything themselves. Too much stress is laid on knowing the rules and exceptions, but little training is given in using the FL actively to express one's personal meaning, even in writing. The student is often trained in artificial forms of the FL (such as decontextualized sentences) in an endeavour to practise the application of rules and the use of exceptional forms, some of which are rare, others old fashioned and many of little practical use. The language learned is usually of a literary type and the vocabulary is too detailed. Average students have to work hard at what they consider laborious and monotonous chores; - vocabulary memorizing, translations, endless written exercises, - without much feeling of progress in the mastery of the FL and with very little opportunity to express themselves through it. The role of the students in the classroom is a passive one, for the greater part of the time. They absorb the rules of the language and then reconstitute what they have absorbed to satisfy the teacher.

What then, can be said in favour of the G-TM! Applying the five questions raised earlier by Rivers (1981:27-8) concerning the evaluation and effectiveness of a particular method, the G-TM sets itself limited objectives and its techniques do achieve its objectives only where the students in the class are highly intellectual and interested in abstract reasoning. Such students try to understand the logic of grammar as it is presented; they learn the rules and exceptions, and memorize the paradigms and vocabulary lists. They become reasonably capable at taking dictation and translating FL texts into the NL. After several years, the best students know many words in the new language and have an intellectual grasp of the

structure, which can become active if they have the opportunity to live for a period of time in an area where the language is spoken. However, the G-TM is not successful with the less intellectual or average students, who muddle through making many mistakes over and over again, thus building up cumulative habits of inaccuracy which are difficult to eradicate at a more advanced stage. These less gifted students find FL study very tedious and this explains the unusually high drop-out rate experienced by classes conducted by this method.

The G-TM is not too demanding on the teachers; when they are tired, they can always set the class a written exercise. The techniques described for this method can be used with large groups of students who listen, copy rules and write out exercises. Much of the correction can be done by the students themselves in class, as the teacher discusses the correct version of an exercise, dictation, or translation which has been written on the board. It is easy to prepare texts which are similar to the work that has been done in class and to assign grades for them. Teachers do not need to show much imagination in planning or teaching their lessons, since they usually follow the textbook page by page and exercise by exercise. The G-TM is typical of the procedures followed in most of the traditional Arabic language textbooks used in teaching Arabic. These textbooks include Cowan (1982), Haywood and Nahmad (1982), Thatcher (1956) and Wright (1967). For more details on each one of these, see Appendix A:2.

3.3.2. The Direct Method (DM)

History and Description

Throughout the 19th century, proponents of active classroom methods began to influence many modern language teachers in a few European countries, as in France and Prussia (Stern 1983:457). The DM movement was associated, towards the end of the 19th century, with such names as Gouin, Viëtor, Passy, Berlitz and Jespersen. The common belief shared by these theorists was that students learn to understand a language by listening extensively to it and that they learn to speak it by actually speaking it, i.e. by associating speech with appropriate action. They based this belief on the assumption that this was the way children learned their MT, and this was the way children who had been transferred to a different linguistic environment acquired a L2, apparently without difficulty. Rivers (1981:32) and Stern (1983:457) observe that the various 'oral' and 'natural' methods (including the 'reform', 'psychological' and 'phonetic' methods) which developed at that time can be grouped together as different forms of the DM, since they shared a common feature of using the FL as a means of instruction and communication in the language classroom, and by avoiding the use of the MT and translation as a teaching technique. Thus, speech preceded reading but even in reading students were encouraged to forge a direct bond between the printed word and their understanding of it, without passing through an intermediate stage of translation into the MT. The ultimate aim was to develop the ability to think in the FL, whether one was speaking, reading or writing.

Teaching Techniques

In the classroom application of the DM, correct pronunciation became an important issue because of the renewed emphasis on the FL as a medium of instruction. Since the study of phonetics began to be developed during the second half of the 19th century, language teachers were able to make use of its findings on the mechanics of sound production and to adopt its newly developed system of notation.⁽¹⁾ The new sound system was usually taught for a short period before the beginning of the actual FL course. Only the phonetic notation was used, and it was argued that, in this way students were able to develop correct pronunciation without being influenced by a script which they already associated with the sounds of the MT.

A DM class provides a clear contrast to a G-TM class. The course begins with the learning of FL words and phrases for objects in the classroom and for actions which can be performed by the students. Learning then moves on to the common situations and settings of everyday life, when these expressions can be used readily and appropriately. With this in view, the lesson often develops around specially constructed pictures of life in a country where the language is spoken. When the meanings of words cannot be made clear by concrete representation, the teacher resorts to miming, sketching, manipulating objects, or giving simple explanations in the FL, but not supplying NL translations, except

(1) The notation referred to is the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), the first version of which was published in 1888 (Rivers 1981:32).

as a last resort. From the beginning, students are accustomed to hearing complete, meaningful sentences which form part of a simple discourse, often in the form of question-answer exchange or an anecdote recounted by the teacher. Grammar is learned largely through practice and is not taught explicitly and deductively as in a G-TM class. Students are encouraged to form their own generalizations about the grammatical structure by an inductive process, through reflecting on what they have been learning. The study of grammar is thus kept at the functional level, by being confined to those areas which are continually being used in speech. When grammar is taught more systematically at later stages, it is taught in the FL with the use of simple FL terminology. Reading materials are based on topics that the students have already discussed orally, the teacher having prepared the students for the reading selections through oral presentation of new words and situations. Texts are read aloud by the teacher and students who are encouraged to seek direct comprehension by inferring meanings of unknown elements from the context, rather than by seeking equivalents in a bilingual vocabulary list or a dictionary. Students are never asked to translate passages into the NL. Instead, their apprehension of meaning is tested by questioning and discussion in the FL. Writing is learned firstly, by transcription, then by composing summaries of what they have been reading, or by writing simple accounts of what has been discussed orally. In this way, the students gradually move to creative compositions in which they can express their personal meaning. Finally, the DM classroom is continually filled with the sounds of the FL, since all activity is closely related or linked with the use of the FL in speech and writing.

Evaluation of the DM

In reviewing this method critically, Rivers (1981:33) observes that at its best, the DM provides an exciting and interesting way of learning a language through activity. It has proved successful in releasing students from the inhibitions all too often associated with speaking another tongue, particularly at the early stages. However, Rivers (Ibid.) warns that if care is not taken by the teacher, students who are plunged too soon into expressing themselves freely in the new language in a relatively unstructured situation can develop a smooth but inaccurate fluency, i.e. clothing NL structures in FL vocabulary. In the pure form of the DM, insufficient provision is made for systematic practice and repractice of the structures of the FL in a coherent sequence.⁽¹⁾ As a result, students often lack a clear idea of what they are trying to do, and many make haphazard progress since unlike infant learners, adolescent and adults already possess well-established NL speech habits or communicative abilities. These will inevitably influence the forms in which they express themselves in their early attempts at spontaneous expression.

It is the highly intellectual student with well-developed powers of induction who profits most from this method, since students are required at all times to make a direct association between the foreign phrase and the situation. This can become discouraging and bewildering for the less

(1) Rivers (1981:34) notes that in some forms of the DM, like the Berlitz Method, a careful sequence of structural development was followed.

talented students. As a result, members of an average class soon diverge considerably from each other in degree of language acquisition. This method makes great demands on the energy of the teachers. They have to be fluent in the FL and very resourceful, in order to make meaning clear in a variety of ways without resorting to the use of the NL at any time. The greatest success achieved by the DM is in situations where the student can hear and practice the FL outside the classroom. The principal tenet of the DM, which is the use of the FL at all times by teacher and student, has to be observed in classes where students come from a number of different backgrounds. Those teachers who enjoy teaching through the DM but do not favour a strict use of the FL in class, now use the DM with various modifications.

The teaching of Arabic to non-Arabic learners in the Arab World is particularly suited to the DM, since most of the learners come from different language backgrounds, from other parts of the world. Therefore, most of the Arabic language centres for foreigners in the Arab World such as those in Cairo, Amman, Damascus, Khartoum, Tunis, Riyadh, Makkah and at other places have adopted the DM. The teaching materials produced by these centres are in the Arabic medium.⁽¹⁾ Outside the Arab World, the DM is not widely or exclusively used for teaching Arabic. However, wherever conversation classes are held in Arabic, the DM is frequently used. There is one notable institution of higher learning in Britain, the

(1) See Appendix B for some of the TAFL materials produced by these centres in the Arab World.

Polytechnic of Central London (PCL), which conducts most of its part-time, full-time and degree courses in Arabic through the DM.⁽¹⁾ In the USA, a few universities and colleges, such as the Middlebury Summer School of Arabic in Vermont, offer summer courses in Arabic through the DM.⁽²⁾

3.3.2.1. The Modified Direct Method

Rivers (1981:35) points out that the DM continues to flourish in its modified form in many areas. Teachers who use the modified DM introduce some grammatical explanations of a strictly functional kind in the NL, mainly to counteract the tendency towards inaccuracy and vagueness, while retaining the inductive technique of teaching grammar wherever possible. These teachers also add more practice in grammatical structures and by sometimes using substitution tables, the forerunners of pattern drills (these are discussed under the A-LM below). When it is difficult to make the meaning of words and phrases clear by gesture or sketch, a brief explanation in the NL is also given. Occasional translation of words and phrases is reintroduced as a check on comprehension of precise details in reading. Rivers (Ibid.) further observes that these modifications of the DM reflect the tendency of practical teachers to be eclectic in their

(1) For more details about the courses offered at PCL, see the case study of TAFL at PCL in Chapter 4.

(2) More details about the Middlebury courses in Arabic, see Chapter 4 (p.187, n.1).

approach. (1)

There are a few Arabic language textbooks produced in the West that employ one of the techniques of the DM. This is the inductive process of teaching the grammatical structure, i.e. sentences or texts are set out at first and then a grammatical analysis is provided, contrary to the traditional G-TM. Textbooks which have adopted this technique are ^CAbdul-Rauf (1977), ^CAli (1981) and Ziadeh and Winder (1957). For more details on each one of these, see Appendix A:2.

3.3.3. The Reading Method (RM)

History and Description

The RM developed mainly between the two World Wars. This method was advocated by a few British and American educators in the 1920s (Stern 1983:460). The Coleman Report published in 1929 indicated that the majority of American students studied a FL for a period of only two years (Rivers 1981:35). This report maintained that the only reasonable objective for such a short period of study was the development of the reading ability, since the development of all four language skills required much more than two years in the non-intensive school or college situation.

(1) Rivers (1981:55) describes the 'Eclectic Approach' as an approach (a method in our view) where teachers try "to absorb the best techniques of all the well-known language-teaching methods into their classroom procedures, using them for the purposes for which they are most appropriate."

Teachers of FLs in other countries were considerably influenced by this report, especially because they were in the process of re-examining their own objectives in teaching FLs. As a result of the Coleman recommendations, teachers began to seek the most effective ways of developing the reading skill, so that the graduate of a FL course of limited duration would be capable of independent reading after the formal study of the FL.

The principal feature of the RM is that the goal of language teaching is deliberately restricted to providing training in only reading comprehension. Thus, according to this method, students were taught to read the FL with direct apprehension of meaning without a conscious effort to translate what they were reading. Reading material was divided into two distinct types: intensive and extensive. Intensive reading, under the teacher's supervision, was more analytical and thus provided material for grammatical study, for the acquisition of vocabulary, and for training in reading complete sentences for comprehension purposes. Students were not asked to translate but were encouraged to infer the meaning of unknown words from the content or from cognates in their own or other languages. During this intensive reading, the teacher could check in detail the degree of comprehension achieved by each student. For extensive reading, students worked entirely on their own, reading many pages of connected discourse graded to their level of achievement. Emphasis was placed on developing autonomous silent reading and increasing individual reading rate. Word frequency counts were developed and used as the basis for graded readers written to conform to certain levels of word frequency of the FL. Words

were often grouped around themes or centres of interest to make lists more agreeable to students. Introduction to new vocabulary was carefully controlled in the graded readers.

The writing skill was limited to exercises which would help the student remember vocabulary and structures essential for the comprehension of the texts. Only the minimum essentials of grammar were incorporated at this stage. As a result, the study of grammar was specially geared to the needs of the reader, for whom quick recognition of certain vocabulary forms, tenses, negations and other modifications was important, but for whom an active reproduction of such features was considered as unnecessary. Those teachers who followed the path of Palmer (1932:105) considered the development of other skills vital for the development of the reading skill, such as correct pronunciation, comprehension of uncomplicated spoken language, and the use of simple speech patterns. These teachers maintained that this would help the students to read aloud which would in turn help them in comprehension, and to "hear" the text mentally as they were reading silently. This oral technique in reading was similar to the convictions and practice of DM teachers and this made the new reading course more acceptable to them.

Teaching Techniques

The implementation of the RM in the classroom usually began with an oral phase for the first few weeks. In this time the students are thoroughly initiated in the sound system of the FL until they become accustomed to listening to and speaking in simple phrases. It was maintained that the

auditory image of the FL that the students were acquiring would assist them later when they turned to the reading of a text. Once reading was introduced, oral practice continued in association with the text. This usually took the form of reading aloud by the teacher or a student, followed by questions and answers on the text. The main part of the course was then divided into intensive and extensive reading (as discussed above).

Special readers were published with adapted texts which conformed to specific levels of word frequency and idiom counts, and which introduced new vocabulary at a predetermined rate. In this way, students were guided by the teacher from level to level as their reading ability developed. Students acquired a large passive or recognition vocabulary which varied according to the material each had been reading. Assessment of students' comprehension of what they had read was done by questions on the content of the reading material and not by translation. An interesting feature of the RM is that class projects were undertaken on the background of the FL country under study and on the way of life and customs of the people there. This helped the students to appreciate the cultural differences and similarities in their reading. These projects often entailed further reading in the FL as the students gathered the necessary information.

Evaluation of the RM

The RM proved beneficial for the better students since it increased their ability to read in another language. However, it could be frustrating for students who have reading difficulties in their own language because of

the quantity of reading required. The system of extensive reading gave students the opportunity to progress at their own rate, whereby students within the same class could work with readers at different levels of difficulty. If this system was not properly controlled, it could lead to satisfaction with quantity rather than quality (i.e. number of pages covered rather than degree of comprehension). The system of graded readers, although valuable from the pedagogical point of view, could give a false impression of the level of reading achieved. When average students encountered ungraded material too soon, they were usually forced back into deciphering with the aid of a dictionary, and valuable training in the reading skill was wasted.

Rivers (1981:38) observes that the RM in the period following the Coleman Report produced students who were unable to comprehend and speak the FL beyond the very simplest of exchanges. However, Stern (1983:462) points out that the RM did introduce some important new elements into language teaching such as the following four:

1. the possibility of devising techniques of language learning geared to specific purposes, in this case the reading objective;
2. the application of vocabulary control to L2 texts, as a means of better grading of texts;
3. the creation of graded 'readers'; and
4. thanks to vocabulary control, the introduction of techniques of rapid reading to the FL classroom.

Did the RM have an impact on TAFL? The recent history of TAFL, particularly in Britain, indicates that it did. The fact that many Arabic language departments still have the reading skill as the major objective of teaching Arabic, even up to the present day, is clear indication of this, although not many teaching materials were produced in the RM. In the USA, a substantial number of graded Arabic readers were produced but most of these were produced in the early 60s (see Appendix A:4 for details). Since the RM flourished mainly between the 1920s and 1960s, this production of Arabic readers in the USA could be considered as a delayed response to the adoption of some of the features of the RM to Arabic.

The RM, in the long run, did not prove satisfactory for teaching FLs particularly after World War II. Rivers observes that: "World War II and the increasingly closer contacts between nations in the succeeding years made it apparent that the reading skill alone was not enough if language study was to serve purposes beyond the most restricted personal ones. National interests and those of increasingly mobile populations demanded a re-emphasis on oral communication as a basic objective of the language course." Consequently, in response to new needs, a new method was being developed during and after World War II.

3.3.4. The Audio-Lingual Method (A-LM)

History

The G-TM and the DM are considered as the principal methods of the first half of the 20th century. They had largely developed in the European school systems but the A-LM is mainly American in origin. Since the

A-LM was based on a great deal of theorizing in linguistics and psychology, it had a considerable influence on FL education in most parts of the world.

The origins of the A-LM can be clearly traced to the intensive FL teaching programmes developed by the American Army during World War II, although many other factors contributed to its development in the 40s and 50s (Stern 1983:463). Rivers (1981:39) observes that the origins of these intensive language-teaching methods during this period, may also be found in the work of American structural linguists and cultural anthropologists who were working in the same climate of opinion as the behaviourist psychologists. Structural linguists described the sound patterns and word combinations of each language as they observed them in a corpus, without trying to fit them into a preconceived framework based on the structures of Latin or Greek, or the traditional grammar of English. Cultural anthropologists at this time were carrying out much research into patterns of human behaviour in a culture and to them, language was clearly an activity learned in the social life of a people, just as other culturally determined acts are learned. Behaviourist psychologists, meanwhile, were suggesting that language use was a set of habits established by reinforcement or reward in the social situation. These research findings emphasized the introduction of all the four basic linguistic skills into FL teaching programmes, although the techniques used for doing this were heavily criticized in the 60s and 70s.

Description

The emphasis on communication in another language led to the coining of

the term 'aural-oral' for a method which aimed at developing the listening and speaking skills first, as the foundation on which to build the skills of reading and writing. Brooks (1964:263) suggested the term 'audio-lingual' for this method, since the term 'aural-oral' seemed confusing and difficult to pronounce. However, both terms are still in use today. In describing the A-LM, we need to mention the main principles which guided FL teachers in applying the results of research findings in behaviourist psychology and structural linguistics to the preparation of teaching materials and classroom techniques. Moulton (1961:86-9) called these principles "Five Slogans of the Day" and these are briefly described below:

1. Language is speech, not writing

This principle was based on the assumption that all human beings naturally learn their MT by first listening to it and then speaking it, before learning to read and write it, in the same way as the development of sound and speech communications in all natural languages occurs. The written form of the FL was not neglected but only delayed. After an aural-oral introduction of complete utterances (lasting from a few days to several weeks), reading and writing activities are introduced and developed to an advanced level.

2. Language as a set of habits

This principle was based on the childhood acquisition of language as a social habit, like the acquisition of any other social habit. Rivers (1981: 41) observes that the early exponents of the A-LM were strongly influenced

by the operant conditioning theories of Skinner or more commonly known as the Habit-Formation Theory. Skinner (1968) maintained that habits are established when reward and reinforcement follow immediately on the occurrence of an act. The implication of this theory meant that if suitable audio-lingual techniques were provided, students would develop an automatic control of the framework of the FL just as in the same way one is not conscious of structures one uses when one uses the MT to convey meaning. Thus, techniques such as mimicry-memorization of dialogues and structural pattern drills were considered appropriate for providing learners with an automatic response to a certain language stimulus.

3. Teach the language and not about the language

This principle was in response to the excessive classroom discussion of grammar rules of the G-TM. The teacher of the A-LM believed that students whose main aim was to be able to use the FL in communication should spend their classroom time on active oral practice of the FL. A detailed analysis of structure was thus regarded as an advanced study for the linguistically inclined.

4. A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say

This meant that contemporary conversational structures most commonly used in the FL were introduced in the dialogues and drills, with a careful attention to the levels of language acceptable to native speakers. Regional differences of pronunciation and expression were also given attention at the advanced levels.

5. Languages are different

Each FL was analyzed by structural linguists according to its unique inter-relationships to the NL. This led to development of a new subject within linguistics called 'contrastive analysis' or 'contrastive linguistics.' This meant that the most essential structures of the FL were identified and also the most difficult problem points between the two languages (for e.g. between Arabic and English), and these were presented and taught first by continual drilling and review to ensure mastery of these elements.

Teaching Techniques

The aim of the A-LM is to teach the linguistic skills in the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Emphasis in the first year or two of the course is on the spoken form of the FL as it occurs in everyday situations. Reading and writing at this stage play supportive roles. At the advanced levels, the reading and writing skills receive emphasis and the students are introduced to more literary forms of expression. However, at all stages, the listening and speaking skills are kept at a high level of continual practice. The A-LM is famous for two main activities: dialogue memorization and structural pattern drills. The learning process in these two techniques is viewed as one of habituation and conditioning without the intervention of any intellectual analysis.

Dialogues: The dialogues for the beginners contain commonly used everyday expressions, basic structures of high frequency and a minimum of vocabulary. The dialogues are learned by a process of mimicry-

memorization. Students learn dialogue sentences or phrases by heart, one by one, by first listening carefully to the teacher or to a native-speaker model on tape, until the sounds and intonation patterns can be distinguished. These phrases are then repeated after the model until accuracy and fluency is achieved. The learning process at first is a group activity, then in smaller and smaller groups, and finally as individuals. When more students can repeat the phrases acceptably on their own, further phrases are introduced. In this way, the dialogues are memorized and then questions and answers on the dialogues are introduced, until all students have practice in both asking questions and answering them. Adaptations of the dialogues are also introduced, with a more personal application to the students' own situation, and these are acted out by the students.

Pattern Drills: When the dialogue sentences are very familiar, pattern drills based on the structure of the dialogues become the main activity and thus, they are referred to as structural pattern drills which are of three main types: slot-and-filler drills, immediate constituent drills, and transformation or conversion drills. Moulton (1963:11-4) suggests that these three main classes of drills reflect three basic approaches to the analysis of syntax. The first type is derived from a theory of tagmemics in which an utterance is regarded as a type of frame, consisting of slots into which words which fulfil a similar structural function may be inserted. The immediate constituent drills, the second type, reflect the hierarchical nature of the FL structure in expansion, contraction and combination drills. The third type of drills are derived from a theory of transformational grammar

in which students are asked to transform or convert sentence patterns from declarative to interrogative, from positive to negative, from active to passive, from present to past, and so on. These structural pattern drills are first practised orally in class or in language laboratories, by using a technique similar to that for dialogues. Explanation of the structure is sometimes given deductively before drilling or inductively after drilling.

The reading skill is developed by introducing the printed script systematically, by first reading what the students have memorized and practised orally. Only after they have a firm grip of most basic structures are they presented with material to read which they have not learned orally.

The writing skill in the early stages is imitative, consisting of transcriptions of words and dialogue sentences from the textbook. At later stages, students are encouraged to express themselves more independently on certain topics by writing short compositions.

Evaluation of the A-LM

Although the A-LM did introduce many new innovations into FL teaching, it also had its weaknesses. Stern (1983:465-6) lists five of the major contributions of the A-LM as follows:

1. Audio-lingualism was among the first theories to recommend the development of a language teaching theory on declared linguistic and psychological principles.
2. It attempted to make language learning accessible to large groups of ordinary learners, without demanding great intellectual feats of abstract

reasoning to learn a language.

3. It stressed syntactical progression, while previously methods had tended to be preoccupied with vocabulary and morphology.

4. It led to the development of simple techniques, without translation, of varied, graded, and intensive practice of specific features of the FL.

5. It developed the separation of the language skills into a pedagogical device, introducing specifically designed techniques of auditory and oral practice.

The techniques advocated in the A-LM allow students to participate actively, to experience a sense of achievement in being able to use what they have learned, and to protect them from the embarrassment that students in more traditional classes feel on hearing themselves uttering strange sounds and phrases in front of their class-mates. The dialogues and structural pattern drills are well suited for individual work with recorders or in a language laboratory. Rivers (1981:47) observes that younger children and the less gifted students benefit most from this type of method, but not the highly intelligent students who become bored long before the other students because of fatigue and distaste for the long sessions of continuous drilling. This method is appropriate for children because they love to mimic, act out roles, learn through activity rather than through explanations and the learning of facts. The less gifted students are carried along by the work with the whole group; they learn to mimic, repeat utterances and manipulate structures with relative ease, and so they feel they are making progress.

One of the main criticisms of the A-LM is that the training provided is too mechanical, without any realistic application of the dialogues and drills in communication situations. Regarding this, Rivers (Ibid.) warns that "students may progress like well-trained parrots - able to repeat whole utterances perfectly when given a certain stimulus, but uncertain of the meaning of what they are saying and unable to use memorized materials in contexts other than those in which they have learned them." Another criticism levelled against this method is that it makes too much demand on the energy, imagination and enterprise of the teacher. It is difficult for a teacher to teach a number of parallel classes during a single day without becoming weary of the material and physically and emotionally exhausted.

In assessing the A-LM, Stern (1983:465) makes the following observation: "In the early 60s audio-lingualism had raised hopes of ushering in a golden age of language learning. By the end of the decade it became the whipping boy for all that was wrong with language teaching. Its theoretical basis was found to be weak. But also in practical terms its hopes had not been fulfilled."

Concerning the application of the A-LM to Arabic, there have been various attempts mainly in the USA. The Defense Language Institute (1975) had been using this method for a long time to teach Arabic and also the American Foreign Service Institute, until recently. Both these government agencies in recent years have more or less stopped using the A-LM and they have begun to adopt the CA (Ryding 1984:645-6). The textbooks and courses produced by American universities which have tried to adhere strictly to the

A-LM are Khoury (1961) and MaCarus and ^cAdil (1962). Those that have attempted to employ the A-LM but are more traditional in outlook are Ferguson and Ani (1964) and Hanna (1964). Finally, those that have professed to use the A-LM but have contradicted its principles by focussing more on the reading and writing skills of Arabic instead of also focussing on the listening and speaking skills are Abboud et al (1968 and 1971). For more details on each one of these, see Appendix A:2.

3.3.4.1. The Audio-Visual Method (A-VM)

This method originally developed from teaching French as a foreign language in the 1950s in France at the Centre de Recherche et d'Etude pour la Diffusion du Français (CREDIF). Thus, the A-VM is also known as the CREDIF method. Some of the principles of the A-VM are derived from the DM and the A-LM. As its name suggests, this method exploits modern audio and visual technology for the benefit of language learning. Many other countries, in addition to the UK, USA and Canada, have adapted some of the techniques developed by the A-VM in France.

The main feature of the A-VM is the provision of a visually presented scenario as the chief means of involving the learner in meaningful utterances and contexts. The teaching techniques consist of a carefully planned but rigid order of events or stages to be followed. These are described in the following four stages:

1. Presentation Stage: Each lesson begins with the film strip and taped sound presentation of a dialogue and narrative commentary on the

filmstrip. It is assumed that the visual image and the spoken utterance on tape complement each other and jointly constitute a semantic unit. This stage may be repeated several times and the students are asked only to watch and listen carefully.

2. Explanation Stage: In the second stage, students are asked to repeat the utterances of the dialogue after the recorded voice while watching the image. Thereafter, the teacher explains the meaning of words or groups of words in the FL by pointing, demonstrating, question and answer, and selective listening.
3. Memorization Stage: For the third stage, the dialogue is repeated several times and memorized by frequent replays of the filmstrip and the tape-recordings, or by practice in the language laboratory.
4. Development Stage: After the students have learned the utterances on several frames, they are gradually emancipated from the filmstrip and tape presentation and they may be tested in several ways: shown the filmstrip without the tape recording, they are asked to recall the commentary or make up their own; or the subject matter of the scenario is modified and applied to the student himself (or his family or friends), by means of role-playing or question and answer.

In this way, each dialogue situation is thoroughly practised and if it is not understood by the students, the whole process is repeated by the teacher. Each lesson also contains practice of grammatical drills of those structures occurring in previous filmstrips and tapes. Phonological features are also practised but no importance is given to linguistic

explanations. The writing and reading skills are delayed, as in the A-LM, but they are given emphasis at later stages. Stern (1983:468) finds that the A-VM is open to two major criticisms. Firstly, he observes that this method, like the DM, has difficulties in conveying meaning; "the visual filmstrip image is no guarantee that the meaning of an utterance is not misinterpreted by the learner." Secondly, he notes that the rigid teaching sequences imposed by this method are based on an entirely unproved assumption about learning sequences. In recognizing the importance of audio-visual materials, Rivers (1981:213) observes that the visual element of the A-VM should be considered as an aid in the learning process and not an end in itself.

The A-VM, on the whole, has contributed significantly towards improving the teaching and learning of FLs in modern times by highlighting the importance of audio-visual elements in not only representing the FL culture accurately, but by also enhancing student motivation in learning through interesting and exciting new audio-visual teaching aids such as computers, video, films, TV, slides, etc. This is generally what is occurring in FL teaching today, audio-visual materials are being used as useful teaching aids. The importance of these teaching aids is slowly beginning to be recognized for teaching Arabic. For some of the materials produced for teaching Arabic, see Appendix A:9.

3.4. Summary and Conclusion

The teaching of FLs went through many changes during its long history. Periodic upheavals were experienced by the teaching profession from time

to time. Formalist and functionalist streams of thought have persisted through the centuries, leading to different views on "what is language?", and "how do we learn languages?". These views formed the basis for the theoretical positions basic to the two distinct approaches and a variety of teaching methods. The two distinct approaches are: synthetic (structural) and analytic (communicative).

Language teaching became a practical matter from about the 16th century to the beginning of the 19th century. The orientation to the task was functional at that time, whereby the dominant feature was the use of the FL and the exclusion of the MT in language classes. The 19th century witnessed a deviation from the mainstream of European language teaching caused by a major shift of attention from the spoken to the written medium. This was a direct result of formalist views on language as a valuable mental discipline for training the mind by logical analysis of the FL and by the memorization of complicated rules and paradigms. These 19th century views were based on the teaching of Latin and Greek and by the end of the century, these formal techniques were adopted into a distinct method of teaching FLs in Europe called the Grammar-Translation Method (G-TM). This method has persisted in many quarters even today, especially for teaching Arabic, mainly because teachers who learned a FL by the G-TM have passed on the tradition to their students.

However, despite the attempt to exclude the FL as a medium of instruction, there were advocates of active classroom methods who continued to make themselves heard in various countries throughout the 19th century. The various types of 'oral' and 'natural' methods which developed at this time

could be grouped together as different forms of the Direct Method (DM). It was called the DM because the FL was learned through the direct association of words and phrases with objects and action, without the use of the MT by the teacher or the learner. Currently, this is the principal method for teaching Arabic to foreigners in the Arab World. Thereafter, a modified form of the DM appeared on the scene, chiefly to counteract the tendency towards vagueness and inaccuracy by reintroducing some grammatical explanations of a strictly functional kind in the MT and structural practice in the FL, while retaining the inductive technique wherever possible. The modified DM continues to flourish in many areas and is used by those teachers who favour an eclectic method of teaching.

The 1930s saw the reduction of the linguistic skills to just one, by the introduction of the Reading Method (RM). The effect of the RM on TAFL has left a lasting impression world-wide. World War II demanded a re-emphasis on oral communication as the basic objective of a FL course. This led to the introduction of intensive language-teaching courses based on the work of structural linguists, cultural anthropologists and also behaviourist psychologists in the USA. These courses were grouped under a single method called the Audio-Lingual Method (A-LM) which aimed at developing the listening and speaking skills first, as a foundation on which to build the skills of reading and writing. The main feature of the A-LM is the memorization of dialogues and the practice of structural pattern drills by which the code or system of the FL could be decoded. Audio-lingual teachers were fortunate in the 1960s when new teaching aids were becoming available to them in the form of magnetic tapes, recorders and

language laboratory equipment. These aids were found to be very useful for practice in listening and sound production as well as practice with grammatical structures. The A-LM, or variations of it, is currently being employed to teach Arabic in the USA. The introduction of new technology also led to the development of another method in France called the Audio-Visual Method (A-VM) which derived its philosophy from both the DM and the A-LM.

The discussion on FL teaching approaches indicates how a synthetic approach based on decontextualized grammatical structures could lead to only one goal, that of linguistic (grammatical) perfection; whereas an analytic approach based on meaningful discourse leads to communicative competence (CC). Since CC is a wider term which encompasses both the linguistic and communicative skills, sociolinguists of the last decade such as Hymes (1967), Halliday (1978), Wilkins (1976), Widdowson (1978) and others observe that CC can be reached only if the rules of communication are internalized and for this to occur, there needs to be a shift of emphasis in FL teaching from teacher-centred learning (formalist) to student-centred learning (functionalist). The emphasis in student-centred learning is on maximizing the learners' exposure to natural communication, i.e. focussing on the message being conveyed, not on the linguistic form of the message, and thus activating the 'subconscious' process of acquisition of the FL as opposed to the 'conscious' learning process which is the formal learning of structural grammatical patterns of the FL.

The following figure (Fig. 3) is intended as a visual representation of some of the arguments followed in this chapter. The formalist and functionalist

views on language teaching are represented as passing through a number of stages to a particular goal or aim. The arrows indicate how one stage leads to another. Some of the methods discussed in this chapter but not listed in this figure, such as the DM, can be considered as lying somewhere on a continuum between the synthetic and analytic approaches. This chapter has discussed mainly the formalist part of the figure, although the functionalist part was referred to from time to time. However, the functionalist part of the figure is discussed in more detail in Chapters Five and Six.

	FORMALIST	FUNCTIONALIST
APPROACHES	(Teacher-centred Learning) Synthetic (Structural) ↓	(Student-centred Learning) Analytic (Communicative) ↓
SYLLABUSES	Grammatical (Sentences) ↓	Semantic (Discourse) ↓
METHODS	Grammar-Translation M. Audio-Lingual M. Reading M. ↓	Situational (Contextual) Topical (Thematic) Notional (Functional), etc. ↓
TECHNIQUES	Translation exercises, Dialogue memorization, Pattern drills, etc. ↓	Interaction, problem-solving, information gap, paired and group work activity, role play, simulations, etc. ↓
GOALS	LINGUISTIC PERFECTION	COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Fig. 3 : Formalism and Functionalism in FL Teaching

CHAPTER FOUR

TAFEL IN BRITAIN: THE STATE OF THE ART

4.1. Preview

The study of Arabic as a foreign language in Britain has had a long history (as in France and Germany), going back to the early Middle Ages, from about the 11th or 12th century. The cathedral monks were among the first in Britain to study the Arabic language mainly because of its importance together with Hebrew for Biblical Studies. Thereafter, Arabic began to be taught as a subject at the oldest universities in Britain namely Oxford (from about 1350), Cambridge (from about 1450), St. Andrews (from about 1560) and Edinburgh (from about 1642). It was taught either as a Semitic language or as part of theological studies. But, the establishing of independent departments of Arabic and Islamic Studies came much later, although a chair of Arabic has existed in Oxford for over 350 years (Mitchell 1969:2). Thus, the teaching of Arabic as a foreign language (TAFL) in Britain became entrenched at the university level since the Middle Ages and it has largely remained so up to the present time. Despite this, Arabic had still been among the least frequently studied languages in Britain until very recently.

The need for a knowledge of European languages such as French, German and Spanish, including the classical languages of the Western world, has always made it impossible for Arabic to be taught as a major language at all levels of education. But, after World War II and with the discovery of oil in the Middle East and North Africa, the importance of Arabic has increased to international status and it is now regarded as one of the main

business languages, a further reason for encouraging its study. In addition to this, Arabic is presently considered as the key to a major civilization and to the understanding of a people who are too important to be ignored any longer in the British education system.

4.2. Objectives of TAFL in Britain

The tradition of classical studies has always loomed over TAFL in Britain, resulting in the limited aims and objectives of most university courses. This was the situation before World War II when only a handful of students studied Arabic in a few British universities with the intention of becoming Arabists or Orientalists by studying the languages, literature and civilization of the Middle East. Thus, in the classical tradition, it was assumed that a mental discipline was inculcated by concentrating mainly on providing the students with a reading knowledge of Arabic at the expense or neglect of the other basic linguistic skills of listening comprehension, speaking and writing Arabic, which were regarded as unnecessary vocational skills. The method of instruction at that time was, of course, the traditional Grammar-Translation Method (G-TM) and university courses had a purely academic role to play.

After World War II, the number of students studying Arabic increased and subsequently the objectives and purposes for learning Arabic also increased, owing to British national needs which were felt in the areas of the British Foreign Service (both diplomatic and armed forces), the British Council, the oil companies and other commercial and international organisations. Since immediately after World War II no educational institution in Britain

taught Arabic as a living language and for practical purposes, the British Diplomatic Service established MECAS (Middle East Centre for Arab Studies) in October 1947 at Shemlan in Lebanon to fulfil this need. Although most Arabic departments are trying seriously to cope with the problems of teaching methods involved, the universities have generally not kept pace with the demands of British needs which have grown wider in recent years. Graduates of Arabic studies in the past tended to occupy posts only in universities, museums or research libraries but this is changing rapidly in a shrinking and modern world which sometimes demands highly technical Arabic language skills such as conference and ad hoc interpreting, simultaneous translating, etc., in addition to the basic skills of being effective and competent communicators in various fields. Despite this, the traditional G-TM of teaching Arabic grammar and literature has persisted in the older universities such as Oxford and Cambridge.⁽¹⁾ However, in a few newer British universities and colleges of higher education, serious efforts are being made to teach Arabic more actively by adopting modern approaches, methods and teaching aids and for a wider variety of purposes than before as in Leeds, London (School of Oriental and African Studies), Salford and the Polytechnic of Central London (PCL). The main objective of TAFL in Britain still remains teaching the language for appreciation of Arabic literature and the Islamic Civilization which is

(1) Since these universities concentrate on imparting mainly a reading knowledge of Arabic, it is little wonder that one cannot fail to notice the frequently heard remarks: "I am reading the Classics or Latin or Arabic or such and such subject," in the classical tradition.

an understandable and valid purpose, although the traditional methods of teaching them may be disputed. The greatest change of emphasis, over the last 20-30 years, has been the introduction of Modern Arabic Studies into some university courses as in Durham, Leeds and London (SOAS) which previously provided entirely classical courses, and these universities have generally initiated the teaching of some sort of spoken Arabic (either standard Arabic or a dialect). Thus, in recent years, this trend of combining classical Arabic with modern Arabic studies has spread to other Arabic departments mainly in order to bring students to understand the politics, economics, society and the problems of the Arab countries today. The University of Durham is probably the only university in Britain that offers separate BA degree courses in three main areas: Classical Arabic and Islamic Studies, Modern Arabic Studies and Middle Eastern Languages. The largest variety of courses and also the largest concentration of staff and students concerned with Arabic Studies in Britain are found at the University of London's School of Oriental and African Languages (SOAS). At SOAS, Arabic can be studied not only as a single-subject but also as a two-subject BA degree. For the two-subject BA degree, Arabic can be studied in conjunction with many other subjects concerned with the Arab and Muslim World such as social anthropology, art and archaeology, geography, law, linguistics, or also with other Islamic languages (Persian, Turkish and Urdu) and some non-Islamic languages (including a few Semitic languages). In addition to the extensive use of the language laboratory for teaching spoken literary Arabic and some colloquial Egyptian Arabic, SOAS has an added advantage compared to

other British universities, in that it is fortunate in having a direct line to the Arabic Overseas Service of the BBC which it uses for teaching purposes.

The aims and objectives of undergraduate programmes, which are set by teachers, vary slightly according to the nature of the degree courses. Derek Hopwood,⁽¹⁾ the director of University of Oxford's Middle East Centre, observes that for the first year of undergraduate courses in which students are specializing in Classical Arabic and Islamic Studies, the aim is likely to be mastery of basic grammar and the ability to read and write simple classical and modern Arabic. For those specializing in Modern Arabic Studies, the objective would be to read and write modern Arabic, comprehension of Arabic news broadcasts and the beginnings of speech. For those specializing in Semitic languages, the aim would be to read and write these languages at the elementary stage, partly for their own sake and partly for purposes of comparative vocabulary, grammar and syntax. Hopwood (1981:6) further observes that these modest aims are difficult to achieve with the resources available at any one university, even the largest. Thus, he finds that except for the unusually gifted student, "an undergraduate who has to begin Arabic in his first year can only with

(1) Many thanks are due to Derek Hopwood for providing an unpublished report prepared by him on "The Teaching of Arabic in the United Kingdom" (1981) and also for permission to quote from this report.

difficulty, in three years [or four years in some departments]⁽¹⁾ be brought to the point where he can write or speak it with ease and self-confidence, or can read Arabic literature easily and with pleasure, or can engage in research on Islamic history and civilization" (Ibid:7).

The problem is, therefore, fairly clear: how to develop the above mentioned skills for the less gifted students, with less difficulty and within a restricted period of time? For this, it may be beneficial for our work to look elsewhere, besides the universities, to see what progress is being made.

4.2.1. A Case Study of TAFL at PCL

The educational institution in Britain which has achieved the highest success in TAFL, over the last decade, in which advanced Arabic language skills are developed for practical purposes is the Polytechnic of Central London (PCL). The Faculty of Languages of PCL is the first and only

(1) Enclosures within square brackets in a quotation are included by the author of this thesis wherever necessary. In some Arabic departments in England, four years are compulsory as in Exeter, PCL and SOAS and optional in others as in Durham. The advantage of the English system is that students in some departments can choose to specialize for four years in Arabic studies as a single-subject BA degree, whereas under the Scottish system, although four years may be compulsory as in St. Andrews and Edinburgh, students cannot specialize until the 3rd and 4th years because for the 1st and 2nd years Arabic has to be studied in conjunction with other subjects.

polytechnical institution in Britain that offers undergraduate and post-graduate degree courses in Arabic Studies which are approved by the CNAA.⁽¹⁾ This recognition by the CNAA has led to substantial progress in teaching modern languages at PCL, including Arabic. For instance, the objective of the BA Honours degree course in Modern Languages, including Arabic, is to develop extremely high competence in both the practical and academic use of Arabic, together with a specialized knowledge and appreciation of one of the following three options:⁽²⁾

1. Modern Political and Economic Development
2. Thought and Literature
3. Specialized translation with Translation Theory.

The four basic linguistic skills are, thus, developed to a high level. The practical outlook and approach of PCL in teaching FLs could only be possible since it functions not as a university, but primarily as a polytechnic college

- (1) The Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) is a British body empowered to grant degrees and other academic qualifications, comparable in standard to university awards, to students who complete approved courses in further or higher educational establishments outside the university system.
- (2) Acknowledgements are due to Salah El-Ghobashy, the Head of the Department of Arabic at PCL and Principal Lecturer, for providing his invaluable assistance for making this case study possible, not only by providing this writer with the opportunity to observe classes and other aspects of teaching Arabic at PCL but also by supplying the necessary documents such as syllabuses and other materials.

specializing in applied training and does not have to conform to the rigid orthodox rules which universities have to comply with. Owing to this flexibility, the methods and techniques of teaching Arabic at PCL have improved greatly, the time spent on intensive instruction has almost doubled (for a joint-honours degree) thus producing highly competent graduates, compared to the universities. The undergraduate programme in Arabic has pioneered many firsts in the field of TAFL in Britain which still remain unique to the PCL. It has the first pre-first year preliminary or foundation course for students taking Arabic as an ab initio language, the first to introduce the Arabic language as a medium of instruction from the second year onwards; the first to encourage, accept and train their students to write their BA Honours dissertations entirely in the Arabic language; the first to hold immersion weekends; and the first BA part-time degree in Arabic studies in Britain.

The Faculty of Languages of PCL is the largest language school in Europe which specializes in teaching languages for practical purposes. It teaches 32 FLs from Afrikaans to Yoruba, general and applied linguistics, and other related subjects. The undergraduate degree programme in Arabic is included in the BA and BA Honours Degree in two Modern Languages or the BA and BA Honours in Modern Languages with English, both of which are four year full-time two-subject degree courses. The part-time BA Degree in Arabic is a five year course. The postgraduate programme in Arabic includes two specialized diploma courses, one in Conference Interpretation Techniques (2 terms) and the other in Arabic-English/English-Arabic Translation Studies (1 year), and also the M.Phil. and Ph.D. degrees in the following three areas:

- (i) History, literature, politics and economics of the Middle East
- (ii) Theoretical and applied linguistics
- (iii) Translation Theory.

The non-degree courses in Arabic include ten to fifteen full-time and part-time (varying from year to year) day and evening classes from elementary to advanced levels addressed to various special purposes such as Home Office Immigration Officers and other government officials, businessmen in commerce and industry, those who need a quick knowledge of Arabic as a tool for research, etc. Among these non-degree courses, the most intensive is the one for Home Office Immigration Officers and others (2 terms), who for professional reasons may need to learn Arabic quickly. This is a 15 hour a week course and the objective is to make learners proficient in the oral/aural skills of listening and speaking Arabic. The number of students studying for degree and non-degree purposes is about 300-400 (varying from year to year). Of these, about 50-80 students follow undergraduate degree courses.

In this case study, an outline and discussion of only the undergraduate programme in Arabic studies is shown in some detail. As mentioned above, there are two types of undergraduate degrees in which Arabic can be studied on a modular basis and these degrees shall be referred to as alternative (a) and (b) below and in the following Table on p.148.

- (a) BA and BA Joint Honours Degree in Modern Languages - i.e. Arabic plus one other modern FL chosen from Chinese, French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish.

- (b) BA and BA Joint Honours Degree in Modern Languages with English
- i.e. Arabic and English.

Alternative (b) is more intensive in Arabic studies than alternative (a), since the student receives about 300-400 hours more instruction.

As can be noticed from the table overleaf, the undergraduate degree course at PCL compared to university courses displays several important and unique features. The following four features are the most prominent:

- (i) Foundation Course - of 100 hours before the academic year.
- (ii) Arabic medium of instruction - from the 2nd year onwards.
- (iii) Dissertation - students capable of writing it in Arabic.
- (iv) Time on intensive instruction - over 1,000 hours for a joint honours degree is unique.

The Foundation Course

Certain aspects of this undergraduate degree mentioned in the following table are now outlined and discussed in more detail. Beginning with the foundation course, this preliminary course concentrates on the following ten activities or areas:

1. Pronunciation and orthography.
2. Basic structure and vocabulary.
3. The simple nominal sentence.
4. The noun; the " إضافة " phrase.
5. The pronouns - attached and detached.
6. The verb: the tenses; conjugation.
7. Introduction to derived vocabulary.

Table 2: BA and BA Honours Degree in Modern Languages at PCL - Coursework in Arabic

<u>Foundation Course:</u> For those taking Arabic as an ab initio language. 4 weeks, 25 hours per week. From mid August to mid September.		<u>Objective:</u> To make students literate in Arabic before the degree courses.	
YEAR 1: ENGLISH MEDIUM	YEAR 2: ARABIC MEDIUM	YEAR 3: ARABIC MEDIUM	YEAR 4: ARABIC MEDIUM
(a) 8 hours per week (b) 9 hours per week	(a) 7 hours per week (b) 8 hours per week	ABROAD	(a) 8 hours per week (b) 9 hours per week
<u>7(a) or 8(b) hrs.p.wk.:</u> On language teaching, including the 4 basic skills of learning a FL (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing Arabic.)	<u>5(a) or 6 hrs.p.wk.:</u> On language teaching, including listening, speaking, reading and writing.	(a) 6 months (b) 1 year At Alexandria University - attending courses on chosen option (integral and compulsory part of course)	<u>5(a) or 6(b) hrs.p.wk.:</u> On language teaching, including advanced listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.
<u>1 hour per week:</u> On the following studies:- 1. History (Modern) 2. Politics and Economics (Modern) 3. Thought and Literature (Pre-Islamic to Modern)	<u>2 hours per week:</u> (a) On one of the following 3 options:- 1. Politics + Economics (Modern) 2. Thought + Literature (Modern) 3. Translations (4 types) (b) Only on Thought and Literature (a sequence of important works)	<u>Dissertation:</u> <u>Honours</u> - a dissertation of 8,000 to 10,000 words written entirely in Arabic. <u>Without Honours</u> - an extended essay of 4,000 to 5,000 words in Arabic. <u>Translation option</u> - a diss. on an aspect of translation or translation of passage (4,000 words)	<u>2 hours per week:</u> (a) On chosen option (b) Thought and literature <u>1 hour per week</u> On special topics
<u>Time on Intensive Instruction</u> (a) about 350 hours (b) about 375 hours (including Foundation Course)	<u>Time on Intensive Instruction</u> (a) about 225 hours (b) about 250 hours	<u>Time on Intensive Instruction</u> (a) about 300 hours (b) about 500 hours	<u>Time on Intensive Instruction</u> (a) about 250 hours (b) about 275 hours

8. Simple dictation.
9. Spoken practice in some everyday situations.
10. Laboratory practice - drills on pronunciation, words and sentences.

The method of teaching this course, and indeed all other Arabic courses at PCL, is through the inductive method whereby the students are taught and questioned in such a way that they would discover the rules of grammar by themselves. Other activities in the foundation course include language games, as a check on the retention of words learnt. Students are asked to keep a separate note book for new words learnt, which are used in appropriate contexts. An interesting point to note is that students are not allowed to write in transliteration, since it delays the acquisition of Arabic and also because of the phonetic problems of English. At the end of the foundation course, students are given notes on the work covered and for the ten days or so between the foundation course and the beginning of the academic year, they are asked to revise what they have learnt for only about 20-30 minutes per day. This 100 hour foundation course on elementary Arabic has proved such a success that students are normally able to begin an in-depth study of the Arabic language from the beginning of the first academic year, since they are fairly literate in Arabic.

The First Year

The seven or eight hours per week on language teaching, during the first year, includes the following seven activities:

1. Intensive oral and written practice in sentence structure.
2. Detailed outline of grammar; written exercises.
3. Extension of vocabulary to cover school, college, home, work and leisure.

4. Graded reading practice from newspapers .
5. Comprehension passages , oral and written composition and dictation.
6. Spoken Arabic - everyday situations .
7. Translation of simple sentences into Arabic - written .

At the end of the first year, students are able to read Arabic newspaper articles, magazines and they can even do **اعراب** and **تشكيل** of Arabic writing with a reasonable degree of accuracy. Since, towards the end of the first year students are beginning to gain confidence in using Arabic, some of the topics on background studies in the third term are discussed in Arabic to prepare them for the second year and for this, Arabic notes are given to students in advance of each lecture. An important feature of the whole course, from the first to the fourth year, is that the teaching of non-literature topics is done through small group-work activities. Each class is divided into two groups and then into sub-groups of three or four students for tutorials and language practice in speaking, reading and grammar, with an extensive use of the language laboratory. Students are encouraged to choose their own partners, so that they are free to communicate with each other and compare notes. Students are also encouraged to prepare talks on various points of the syllabus and take part in discussions. In the first year, in addition to the joint degree study of another language, a few general courses are also studied. One hour per week on a course entitled 'Nature of Language' and two hours per week on 'Modern History' for alternative (a) only.

The Second Year

Instruction from the beginning of the second year onwards is in the Arabic

medium, which is standard Arabic. Students are able to cope with this change fairly well especially because they have been mentally prepared for this from the end of the first year. Recent empirical evidence supports this type of teaching,⁽¹⁾ i.e. teaching through the indirect method (English medium) at first and then going on to the direct method (Arabic medium). During the second year, the five or six hours per week on language teaching includes the following six activities:

1. More attention to finer points of grammar.
2. Introduction of literary style.
3. Reading of modern literary extracts, newspapers.
4. Spoken Arabic - various topics.
5. Translation into Arabic of literary passages.
6. Essay - writing.

The third option for alternative (a) Translations, is divided into four types:

- (i) Institutional,
- (ii) Technical (Engineering, Medical and Industrial),
- (iii) Literary (different periods) and
- (iv) Translation Criticism.

The general courses in the second year are offered only for alternative (a).

These are Linguistics (2 hours per week), Criticism and Style (1½ hours per week) and Modern History (1 hour per week).

(1) Wilkinson (1977) has proved that better results in teaching FLs were achieved in this way and not by teaching initially through the direct method.

The Third Year

The year abroad is an integral and compulsory part of the course and since students go to Egypt, they are introduced to some aspects of spoken Egyptian Arabic in the previous two years. For alternative (a), a minimum of 21 weeks is required to be spent on courses concerned with the students field of specialization at Alexandria University (a similar period is spent in the other foreign country whose language is being studied). For alternative (b), students are required to spend a minimum of 42 weeks exclusively at Alexandria University, attending courses on their chosen option. Also during the third year, students begin to write a dissertation or an extended essay (for BA without Honours) in Arabic. This is another unique feature of the course, since all university dissertations in Arabic studies are written in English. Perhaps this aspect of the PCL course more than any other, illustrates the high degree of competence attained by the students. Some of the dissertations are on field study and others on historical and analytical studies. For an idea of the work done by students, here are some of the honours titles:

١. القاهرة الكبرى : مشاكلها وحلولها .
٢. جهود منظمة "اليونسكو" في مصر : دراسة ميدانية .
٣. جامعة الازهر مع دراسة خاصة لكلية البنات بها .
٤. بنك مصر : اول بنك وطني في مصر .

The Fourth Year

The five or six hours per week, during the final year, on language teaching includes the following three main activities:

1. Essay-writing.
2. Newspapers; reading and analysis of articles.
3. Laboratory practice;
 - (i) Two-way ad-hoc interpretation of passages dealing with current affairs
 - (ii) Oral exposés of various topics related to area studies
 - (iii) Discussions based on radio talks, news bulletins and short plays.

The last remaining one hour per week on Special Topics covers the following two areas (for Politics and Economics):

1. British relationship with the Arab East since 1882.
2. The Palestinian Question - its nature.

For those who have chosen Thought and Literature, the following two topics are studied:

1. An in-depth study of the Arab press with special reference to its contribution to political and social thought.
2. Arabic Drama in the 20th century.

But students of Translation continue with Linguistics and Translation Theory for two hours per week. An important point which needs to be mentioned here is that for the fourth year, almost all the prescribed books used for essential background and further reading are in the Arabic language. About 50% of the books used in the second year are in Arabic and also a few in the first year such as reference grammars and monolingual dictionaries (Arabic-Arabic). Most of the material for language teaching is locally produced such as texts, exercises and tapes. The New Linguaphone Modern Standard Course (1983) is also used, one of the writers

and producers of this course being Fuad Megally, a Senior Lecturer in Arabic at PCL.

Finally, in addition to the course work, there are two important extra-curricular activities which greatly assist the students in acquiring Arabic in an informal setting. One is the Immersion Weekend and the other is the activities of the Arabic Language Club of PCL. The Immersion Weekend is an activity organised by PCL in conjunction with the Egyptian Cultural Centre in London. As its name suggests, it is a weekend which tries to immerse the students in the language by exposing them to the oral and aural skills of Arabic in an informal atmosphere, from Friday evening to Sunday evening. This weekend is held once a year, at the end of January. Every activity during this weekend is conducted through the Arabic medium such as talks, discussions, Arabic videos, movies, songs, meals, etc. On the other hand, the Arabic Language Club carries out similar kinds of activities but on a more permanent basis. This club is very active in trying to create a Middle Eastern environment for the students of Arabic at PCL and it is run entirely by the students of the Arabic department. The club co-operates with many of the cultural centres of Arab embassies in London for various types of cultural and educational activities and to promote understanding and co-operation between the students of Arabic at PCL and the Arab World. In addition to the conversational and other skills gained by the students at club meetings, the club regularly shows many types of Arabic films and videos and it also invites many speakers to talk on various topics connected with the Arabic language and the Arab World.

4.3. Present Resources and Facilities

4.3.1. Within the Education System

Since Arabic is not considered one of the major languages at the school level, not much Arabic is taught in British schools. Presently, there are only about ten high schools offering Arabic in England, namely Eton, Harrow, Marlborough and others.⁽¹⁾ However, in addition to this limited teaching of Arabic, many schools throughout Britain introduce students to the major languages and religions of the world, including Arabic and Islam, through the new subjects of 'Language Awareness' and 'Multi-Cultural Education.'

Apart from the schools, there are a few examining bodies that offer examination and certification schemes in modern Arabic. The London

(1) John Harding, the Director of Studies of UKAS (Arabic Services UK Ltd.) is currently involved in 'The Schools' Arabic Project' which has designed the current high school syllabus. This 'Project' is offering a one year course of about 150 hours leading to a Certificate in Arabic and Arab Studies approved by the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate. This course is currently in its pilot stage (1986/87) and taught in nine high schools in England in the Lower Sixth Form General Studies area. Since this course concentrates on the oral and aural skills of Arabic and is based mainly on the CA and also because it is the first course of its kind at the high school level, the syllabus guidelines of this course are provided in Appendix C. For more discussion about this 'Project', see 4.4.4. of this chapter. John Harding reports on the possibility of Arabic being introduced into more high schools.

University Entrance and Schools Examination Council and the Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations offer GCE 'O' or 'A' level papers in Arabic every year. Candidates for these papers are submitted by schools and colleges of further or higher education and almost all of these students are Arabs or Muslims. Short and long, intensive and part-time Arabic courses continue to be held from time to time by various institutes, colleges and universities in Birmingham, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, London, Manchester, Oxford and other places. For instance, SOAS offers two certificate courses of one year duration: Certificate in Arabic and a Certificate in Minority Languages (including Arabic). These courses are roughly equivalent to the first year undergraduate degree course in Arabic, although the second certificate includes various other subjects such as Linguistics and Sociology.⁽¹⁾ Different types of short and long courses offered by PCL are noted above (4.2.1).

The Institute of Linguists Educational Trust (London) also offers examination papers in Arabic. These are considered as a practical alternative to GCE examinations since they are devised to test the ability to communicate in Arabic and thus about 50% or more of these papers test oral/aural proficiency. These examinations are carefully graded to five different levels:

1. Preliminary Certificate.
2. Grade I Certificate (equivalent to GCE 'O' level).

(1) See CILT (1985:56-7) for more details.

3. Grade II Certificate (equivalent to GCE 'A' level).
4. Intermediate Diploma.
5. Final Diploma (equivalent to an undergraduate degree).

Students who have completed about a year of part-time study in Arabic with modern methods of teaching would normally qualify for the first three levels and success in these examinations would indicate that a person has an elementary grasp of the basic requirements of oral communication in Arabic. Success in the two diploma examinations, for those who have studied for longer periods, would provide evidence of proficiency in all the essential features of Arabic, both written and spoken. But, the Final Diploma requires a skill in the use of Arabic of a very high practical order and for many purposes. A number of travel awards to the Middle East are available each year to those candidates who achieve the highest marks in the Grade I and II Certificates. The Institute of Linguists also offers two levels of specialist examinations for Arabic translators: Translators' Intermediate and Final Examinations. All of these examinations are variously recognised by governments, universities, employers, international organizations, etc. Other boards offering examinations in Arabic are the London Chamber of Commerce and Industry Examinations Board, the International Baccalaureate Office⁽¹⁾ and the British Civil Service Commission's Examinations.

(1) See CILT (1985:82-4) for more details.

4.3.1.1. Undergraduate Teaching

As mentioned earlier, TAFL in Britain is still largely confined to the universities. Presently, there are about 19 universities offering undergraduate degree courses in Arabic, either as a major subject or a subsidiary subject, or a minor component of a first degree course. These are Aberdeen, Aston, Bangor, Belfast, Birmingham, Cambridge, Durham, Edinburgh, Exeter, Glasgow, Lancaster, Leeds, Liverpool, London, Manchester, Newcastle, Oxford, St. Andrews and Salford. In addition to the part-time and full-time degree courses in Arabic offered at PCL, there is at least one college that offers a correspondence degree course in Arabic. The National Extension College (Cambridge) offers preparation for a University of London External BA Degree in Arabic, which is a five-year correspondence course. A detailed breakdown of courses and course content is not made here which, in any case, can be obtained from the prospectus of each university concerned. However, some of the important features of university courses and other recent developments aimed at improving the teaching of Arabic are mentioned below. Perhaps the most important recent development which increases the fluency of students' Arabic is the introduction of a scheme in which students are required to attend courses in the Middle East, as a degree requirement. Only those students who have chosen Arabic as a major subject or a single-subject degree are required to spend some time abroad during the second or third year. The time spent abroad ranges from a term to a year, depending on the type of degree. Presently, the universities sending their students for a year abroad are Durham, Exeter, Leeds and London (SOAS). Of the

Scottish universities, St. Andrews send their students for a term abroad and Edinburgh for six months. Some of these universities use the British Universities' Alexandria Centre in Egypt and ^CAin Shams University or other approved intensive Arabic courses in the Middle East.

Concerning the teaching of Arabic or knowledge of the Islamic Civilization as a subsidiary subject or a minor component of a first degree, some universities offer interesting options to students majoring in other subjects. The traditional option of teaching Arabic has always been within the context of religious studies, Semitic studies or divinity but some recent alternatives have proved very popular such as the teaching of Islamic or Arabic Culture as a one year subsidiary subject at Lancaster and St. Andrews⁽¹⁾ and the teaching of 'Survival Arabic' (Educated Spoken Arabic) as a first year subsidiary option within the BA in Modern Languages degree course at Salford University. Hassan Mustapha (1986:22), the Course Tutor of Arabic and Applied Linguistics at Salford, reports that the principle of appropriacy has guided the establishing of this course ('Survival Arabic') in which real-life language systems such as those denoting 'invitation' are presented in the context of visits to friends or relatives where 'modality' plays a crucial and meaningful role. Mustapha (Ibid.) further observes that the use of spoken Arabic (from the beginning of the course) gave the course a flavour that reduced the element of fear that sometimes accompanies the teaching of Arabic as a FL. This resulted in the dropout rate being

(1) Students taking the St. Andrews course on Arabic Culture often remark that they never knew there was any Arabic Culture.

reduced to a minimum, since attendance is consistently high throughout the year.

As far as the teaching of spoken Arabic is concerned, one recent development needs to be mentioned here. SOAS has merged in a joint venture with Arabic Services (UK) Ltd., or commonly known as UKAS, a private company specializing in TAFL for practical and specific purposes.⁽¹⁾ The Managing Director of UKAS, Leslie McLoughlin, has had a long standing experience in curriculum development as the Principal Instructor of MECAS in the Lebanon, over a number of years. Since tuition was suspended at MECAS in 1976, part of the work of MECAS in training government officials and businessmen quickly in Arabic has been taken over by UKAS in Britain. Since most of the teachers of UKAS are native language speakers of Arabic, UKAS is presently helping with undergraduate teaching at SOAS and also by providing intensive in-service teacher training courses to members of Modern Languages school staff involved in 'The Schools' Arabic Project' mentioned above (4.3.1). The practical expertise and approach of UKAS in teaching Arabic for specific purposes will no doubt prove fruitful, in the long run, in increasing the communication skills of the students of Arabic at SOAS.

4.3.1.1.1. Teaching Materials, Aids and Current Applied Research

Teaching Materials

There are a vast diversity of materials being currently used in teaching the Arabic language in British universities, both in standard Arabic and

(1) This merger was signed in July 1986 and UKAS is now strategically based on the ground floor of SOAS. UKAS was established in 1982 by L. McLoughlin and J. Harding.

the dialects. These range from introductory material in Arabic script and pronunciation, basic courses, grammars and readers to dictionaries, word-lists, etc. In addition to this, many Arabic departments use their own locally produced materials in conjunction with a few basic grammars (for reference purposes), readers, etc., as in Durham, SOAS and St. Andrews. The best known of these locally produced materials which has reached published form is the SOAS Arabic Course by Wright (1979). Some of the teaching materials produced by MECAS and in the USA are also currently being used in some universities. These and other materials used in British universities are listed in Appendix A and annotated wherever possible. Generally, Arabic teaching materials are often of uneven quality and leave much to be desired. More often than not, it is the materials that dictate the methods to teach Arabic. The vast majority of textbooks used in teaching standard Arabic provide only a reading knowledge, whereas those on the dialects are more inclined towards oral proficiency. There is an almost total lack of textbooks with an accompanying teacher's guide or manual of instructions which explain clearly the objectives of the book, the approach and method employed, the classroom techniques and procedures to be followed, etc., and thus, books are normally always at the mercy of what a teacher does with them.

Teaching Aids

The most widely used teaching aid in British universities is the language laboratory. There is a large selection of audio cassettes produced in recent years for use in the language laboratory. These include background

material on Islam, phonology, script, pronunciation, standard Arabic, various dialects, radio broadcasts, famous speeches of Arab leaders, Qur'ān recital, classical Arabic poetry, etc. Effective use of these teaching aids largely depends on the desire of individual teachers to supervise work in the language laboratory. As mentioned earlier, SOAS is fortunate enough to have the extensive use of their direct line to the Arabic Overseas Service of the BBC. Other universities can now also benefit from the broadcasts of the BBC by subscribing to a new monthly 60-minute audio cassette magazine of selected items called حصاد الشهر or 'Harvest of the Month.' Other important aids to language learning in the form of slides, films, videos, television, computers, film strips and other audio-visual aids are very rarely used or not at all, mainly because not much material in Arabic exists or is easily available. The importance of these aids for TAFL is noted by Abboud (1971:8): "given the fact that students are learning the foreign language away from the environment where it is used, such aids are not only useful and stimulating but also essential." Unfortunately, Arabic departments do not have the use of Satellite TV which can relay Arab TV stations from the Middle East to Britain. A few Modern Language departments are already using this facility for teaching other FLs in Britain. However, some universities sometimes use extracts of Arabic TV programmes recorded on video cassettes. An important recent development is that the University of Leeds has begun to use computers as a teaching aid in teaching Arabic. This experimental work at Leeds is discussed below, under current applied research.

Another significant development is the recent appearance of the first

video-based Arabic course on the market called Access to Arabic (1985). This is a comprehensive self-study course in Gulf and Saudi Arabic aimed at businessmen, in three separate parts.⁽¹⁾ Despite its commercial outlook, the first part of this course is of extreme importance to all teachers and learners of Arabic since it is general and deals with the writing and sound systems of Arabic. This first part (Write Arabic) is an excellently produced course which can be used very effectively on its own for ab initio learners of Arabic and thus, a brief description and discussion of it follows. 'Write Arabic' or the script section consists of a 90-minute video cassette, two 90-minute audio cassettes and a workbook (144 pp.) which not only includes programmed exercises, but a wealth of helpful commentary dealing with the history of the language, social customs of the Middle East, etc. The aim of the script section is to teach learners to read, write and pronounce the Arabic alphabet clearly and fluently. The video uses the latest computer graphic animation techniques in a visually stimulating and motivating way to show how the letters of Arabic are written and joined. In each of the 20 units, samples of four different hands writing the same words and samples of printed orthography are also provided. Exercises on the audio cassettes test the student's ability to read and write in the new script. An answer key at the end of the workbook allows the student to use this material for

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- (1) The three parts of this course which are sold separately are:
 (i) Write Arabic (ii) Speak Arabic (Arabic script version)
 (iii) Speak Arabic (Transliterated version).

self-study. Although a few universities in Britain have already acquired this course in their language laboratories, it is not as yet being widely used. This reading and writing course is very effective in overcoming the major problem that most Arabic learners face in learning the new script and it could save the Arabic teacher many hours of valuable time on elementary teaching. The course writers claim that some students have been able to learn the alphabet and basic pronunciation in ten hours or less. Some of the materials currently being used by British universities as teaching aids are listed in Appendix A.

Current Applied Research in TAFL

Applied research or experimentation aimed at improving the teaching of Arabic is an urgent issue in any Arabic department and yet there is little incentive for Arabic teachers to pursue research in this area for a number of varying reasons. Normally, Arabic teachers are bound by their university contracts to pursue research in their specialized field of study for promotion purposes or otherwise and since in consequence not many of them are involved in TAFL as a research area, this field is neglected. It seems that applied research in TAFL is in direct conflict with the policy of 'publish or perish' and thus teachers are left with a dilemma, especially if they are not credited for bringing about any improvement to the teaching of Arabic. Perhaps, this was why some of the research projects in TAFL did not reach the completion stages such as the Durham research project investigating the use of spoken standard Arabic in the late 60's.⁽¹⁾

(1) The end-product of this project was to be a course of instruction on tapes for use in the universities but, unfortunately this project was abandoned owing to lack of commitment and for financial reasons.

Considering these facts, is publishing more important at the present time or tackling the immediate problems of TAFL in Britain?

The new undergraduate and postgraduate courses offered by the Department of Modern Languages of Salford University can be grouped under current applied research, since these courses are being continually adapted to learners' needs and are at the experimental stage. These courses are not mentioned here because they are discussed below (4.3.1.2.1). However, another major research project aimed at improving TAFL in Britain is discussed here. This is the Arabic by Computer (ABC) project currently being undertaken by the Department of Modern Arabic Studies of Leeds University. This project is unique in the sense that it is the first major attempt at using computers as a teaching aid to teach Arabic at a British university.⁽¹⁾ This project has been initiated by the efforts of Adrian Brockett, a newly appointed Arabic Lecturer at Leeds, who is currently the Principal Investigator of the ABC project.⁽²⁾ Presently,

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- (1) In the USA, Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) has become an integral part of many universities (e.g. Texas at Austin, Michigan and others) and college courses (e.g. Middlebury College's Summer School of Arabic). The University of Texas at Austin was the first to begin teaching the writing and sound systems of Arabic through computers in 1970 (Abboud 1971:10). Presently, many other universities in the USA are using CAI not only for the writing and sound systems but also for vocabulary building and reading comprehension exercises.
- (2) Acknowledgements are due to Adrian Brockett for supplying the relevant articles and reports about the ABC project.

the experimental work is aimed at providing revision exercises as "a sort of half-way house between the tutor-based session and individual private study" for the first year undergraduate course (Taylor 1986:58). Col. Owen Taylor, who was working on programmes for teaching Arabic by the BBC micro-computer to the Armed Forces, was employed as the program developer for the pre-trial phase of the project (1985/86). The 1986/87 academic year is considered as the formal trial year for the project. The pre-trial phase has produced three types of ABC programs which are described below (Ibid:57-8):

1. The reference program: For this program the learner can use the computer to retrieve a specific piece of information from data stored in the computer in the form of computerised dictionaries, verb conjugating programs and similar resource materials.
2. The single-aim teaching program: The contents of this program are designed to focus on a specific point of grammar or syntax or a specific set of lexis, to the exclusion of everything else.
3. Revision practice programs: These include a main aim but concentrate on other aspects of Arabic which are practised and consolidated through such exercises as fill in the gaps, cloze tests, sorting jumbled words into correctly ordered sentences, etc.

For the formal trial year, only the second and third type of programs are being experimented with and the reference type will be included at a later stage (probably for the second year students). The keyboard skills required to operate these programs are minimal (e.g. pressing Y or N,

1, 2, 3, etc.). The exercises produced for these programs include practice in the recognition of the Arabic alphabet, and numerical systems, the sun letters, noun suffixes, demonstrative adjectives, broken and sound plurals, the إضافة, relative pronouns, etc. Among the principles adopted by the project to facilitate its use by students is the provision of a HELP facility and/or stage-by-stage diagnostic analysis of student responses, a Computer Games style format (sometimes with scores given and recorded) and a Handbook of Programs which gives information to the student on each exercise, its educational aim, an outline of its method, at what point in the course it is appropriate (expressed in terms of the stage of grammar reached), the disc number, whether it uses large or small Arabic characters, and whether it is linked to the student record system. A guide on basic operating procedures is also included in the handbook (Ibid:62-3). An important feature of the project is that learners have been consulted during trial runs and their needs have been taken into consideration by programs being adapted accordingly, especially at the pre-trial phase. For the formal trial year (86/7), students are asked to complete a brief questionnaire on each hour of work done on the computer and this would assist the staff responsible for the project to assess the acceptability and effectiveness of the whole teaching process. The research findings are hoped to be reported at the end of the academic year.

The important element of the work currently being undertaken at Leeds is that this project would not have been possible if only one member of the staff was committed to the idea. The fact that all the staff members of the Arabic department are committed to improving the methods of teaching

Arabic, and also from outside the department namely David Barber (Department of Phonetics and Linguistics), greatly accelerated progress and funding for the project. Resources and funding for the pre-trial phase (85/6) was obtained mainly through an internal university grant. Since substantial progress was made during this period including a symposium about the ABC project, the Arabic department has been fortunate in obtaining a substantial UGC (University Grants Committee) grant to continue research on this project for another year (86/7). This grant covers the employment of a full-time program developer (Mansoor Al-Helaly) for a year and the purchase of computer hardware and software. Thus, the new program developer is currently designing more sophisticated ABC courses with an Arabic keyboard for the second year students and these will be used in the 87/8 academic year.

4.3.1.2. Postgraduate Teaching

The range of opportunities for Arabic studies through course-work and research in British universities is fairly wide at the postgraduate level. Course-work, examinations and sometimes dissertations are required for Postgraduate Diploma and Certificate courses, B.Phil., MA, M.Sc., LL.M and M.Litt. degree courses. The M.Phil. and Ph.D. degrees are normally conducted entirely by research. Postgraduate study in Arabic studies is restricted mainly to the universities of Cambridge, Durham, Edinburgh, Exeter, Glasgow, Leeds, London (SOAS), Manchester, Oxford, St. Andrews and Salford. Those students who wish to pursue research for an MA, M.Litt., M.Phil. or Ph.D. degree by presenting a dissertation or thesis depend very much upon the availability of supervision in particular

topics of research. Normally, supervision is available in a wide range of research fields which varies from university to university. Some universities offer postgraduate diplomas in Modern Arabic to graduates in other fields who wish to pursue research on the Middle East and need Arabic as a working tool, as in Durham and St. Andrews. There are also some universities that do not offer any undergraduate teaching in Arabic but offer specialized intensive postgraduate courses such as the University of Bath's MA course in Translation and Linguistics (Arabic/English) and the M.Sc., Diploma and Certificate courses in Translating and Interpreting (English/Arabic/English) offered by Heriot-Watt University.

4.3.1.2.1. TAFI at Salford

Concerning research in TAFI from the applied linguistic point of view, the topic of this thesis, there are a few important developments that need to be mentioned here. Those graduates concerned with TAFI who wish to pursue research in this area can join departments of applied language studies in several universities such as Edinburgh, Leeds, Reading and Salford (and at PCL). The most significant development in this area is that the Department of Modern Languages of Salford University established special Arabic postgraduate courses for this purpose in 1985. This is a major breakthrough for TAFI in Britain since Salford has effectively become the first and only British university that offers courses in training Arabic teachers at degree level and also the only university that teaches Arabic within a department of Modern Languages. The University of Salford offers, in addition to the first year undergraduate subsidiary option in Arabic

mentioned above, five types of postgraduate degrees in applied Arabic studies by course-work and also the M.Phil. and Ph.D. degrees by research. The degrees by course-work are:

1. Diploma for Advanced Studies in Arabic and English.
2. MA in Applied Linguistics with Special Reference to the Arab World.
3. MA in Translation (English/Arabic/English).
4. MA in Interpretation (Arabic/English/Arabic).
5. MA in the Teaching of Arabic as a Second Language (TASL).

Since the last degree mentioned above (No.5) is the most relevant to this thesis because it is directly concerned with teacher training and applied linguistics in Arabic, the course-work for this degree is briefly outlined and discussed below. The MA in TASL is a two-year course which is designed for both experienced and prospective teachers of Arabic. For the first year, students follow the diploma course (No. 1 above) which includes intensive studies in both written and spoken Arabic and English at an advanced level, in addition to some study of register and appropriacy. Assessment for the first year is based on examination of course-work and an end-of-year project. The second year involves the study of the following topics:

- i. Second language acquisition and learning theory.
- ii. Overview of language teaching methods.
- iii. Sociolinguistics of communication in Arabic.
- iv. Linguistic description of Modern Standard Arabic (in addition to one major dialect).

- v. The design of teaching and learning materials for foreign learners of Arabic.
- vi. Evaluation of Arabic language learning materials.

Each one of the above mentioned topics is of vital importance, not only to those Arabic teachers who are committed to the improvement of the teaching of Arabic but also to those who want to keep abreast professionally by being well-informed of the modern trends in language teaching and learning. The method of teaching this course is by means of small group seminars, practical workshops and observed teaching practice. Practical workshops include the use of Arabic both inside and outside the classroom. Activities outside the classroom include trips to restaurants, museums and shopping centres where only Arabic is used. Assessment in the second year is based on examination, extended essays and a dissertation. The first batch of students registered for this course have come from Malaysia. All of these students were active or prospective Arabic teachers in Malaysian high schools. The main purpose of these students is to learn how to teach Arabic for religious purposes (ARP). In line with the modern developments in language teaching and FL syllabus design, learners' needs have been taken into account from the very beginning of this course. For instance, since Arabic is considered as a L2 and not a FL in Malaysia, mainly because of Muslim belief that it is the language of the Qur'^ān and Ḥadith and thus cannot be 'foreign', the very title of this degree has been changed from MA in TAFL to MA in TASL. In order to satisfy learners' needs, various other objectives in addition to those listed above have been included as the course progressed. Some of these additional

objectives are (Mustapha 1986:21-2).

- i. Training the students in the language relevant to exegesis.
This involves the sub-skills relevant to this general objective which include reading, interpreting and explaining specific religious texts.
- ii. The ability to decide what is interpretable (or negotiable) and what is not, as evidenced by specific texts (advanced objective).
- iii. The ability to use Arabic in preparing for and managing a seminar.
- iv. The ability to use Arabic for classroom management. Since the students are expected to teach through the Arabic medium, the Arabic required for interaction and organizing activities between the students and the teacher and between the students themselves is introduced.

In the words of the course tutor of this programme, Hassan Mustapha (Ibid:23), learning progresses from Arabic for religious purposes to Arabic for academic purposes and later on in the course to Arabic for social purposes which represents changes of emphasis as a pass along a complete linguistic, psychological and social continuum, just as the word **اقرأ** in the Qur'ānic Sura plays a role and has a meaning different from, but is at the same time related to, the word when it is used in class or at home, be that in **فصحى** or in a dialect. The work currently being undertaken at Salford can truly be regarded as the first major attempt in Britain at improving TAFL by applying communicative language learning and teaching principles (i.e. the CA). Finally, this work looks very promising and if allowed to develop further, it could have far-reaching implications for TAFL in Britain.

4.3.2. Outside the Education System

There are many opportunities for learning Arabic outside the system of education, although these might be restricted to certain areas. The most intensive courses are probably those offered by the Army School of Languages at Beaconsfield to army personnel who are sent to Arab countries as military advisors and instructors.⁽¹⁾ Arabic can be studied, on a full-time or part-time basis, through private tutors and also through private language schools such as the Berlitz School, Interlang Ltd. and UKAS, which are all based in London. Several other companies advertise Arabic courses on records or audio cassettes (including guide books) for home or class study such as those offered by Audio-Forum, Assimil, Linguaphone, Phillips and the Osman Arabic Centre. The Linguaphone Arabic Language Course is the best known among these and probably the most widely used self-study course in the world. The updated version of this course (1983) is in modern standard Arabic and it is a substantial improvement on the old course (1977).

(1) These courses are of two types: a short course (10 weeks) and a long course (1 year). About 30 hours of instruction per week are given for both courses. These courses are similar to those that were offered at MECAS.

The new course consists of 6 textbooks⁽¹⁾ and 4 audio cassettes or 21 records (45 rpm). Arabic can also be learnt through the radio. The BBC presently broadcasts a six programme Arabic radio course at least once or twice a year called 'Get by in Arabic' (1985). This course includes a course book and two audio cassettes.⁽²⁾

- (1) The 6 textbooks and booklets accompanying the recordings are:
1. Instruction Booklet - explains how to use the course.
 2. Alphabet Book - introduces the alphabet, teaches the pronunciation of letters in conjunction with the recorded section, and gives instruction and practice in reading and writing the script.
 3. Course Textbook - contains the complete text of the recorded lessons, including illustrations through photographs and drawings for quick and easy understanding.
 4. Course Text - comprises the complete recorded text transliterated into Latin script, together with a translation.
 5. Course Handbook - gives detailed explanatory notes, lists the new words in each lesson, and explains the carefully graded grammatical content.
 6. Self-correcting Written Exercise Book - it first tests one's understanding of each lesson and then gives additional self-correcting exercises for strengthening one's mastery of the language.
- (2) This is not the first time that the BBC has broadcast Arabic courses by radio. The first BBC radio course for beginners began in March 1972 called 'Introduction to Arabic', with an accompanied book and pronunciation record of the same name by T.F. Mitchell and D. Barber (1972).

Apart from this, many private Muslim schools also teach Arabic, although mainly a reading knowledge, and there is one notable Muslim college, the Darul Uloom at Holcombe, Bury, whose certificates are officially recognized by the Islamic University of Madina and Al-Azhar. There are also many Muslim organisations in Britain which conduct Arabic courses from time to time such as the Muslim Institute (London), Islamic Foundation (Leicester), Muslim World League (London), National Muslim Education Council and many others. Sometimes these courses are conducted in conjunction with some of the Arabic language institutes in the Arab World. Many other organisations, centres and Arab embassies concerned with the Arab World, frequently hold social meetings where learners can meet native speakers of Arabic including cultural exhibitions, discussion groups, seminars, conferences, lectures, film shows and Arabic conversation and language classes. The organisations and centres most active in teaching Arabic are the Africa Centre (part-time Arabic courses), the Arab-British Chamber of Commerce and the Egyptian Education Bureau of the Egyptian Embassy (conversation classes and part-time Arabic courses). The Arab-British Chamber of Commerce holds conversation classes in Arabic for beginners and intermediate students and also part-time and full-time intensive Arabic language courses.

4.3.2.1. TAFIL at MECAS

The most important British institution for teaching Arabic to adults outside the system of Education, according to Hopwood (1981:3), has been MECAS in the Lebanon, despite its geographical location. Unfortunately owing

to the Lebanese civil war, teaching was suspended and MECAS was placed on a care and maintenance basis at the end of January 1976 and it has remained so until the present day. MECAS was maintained by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office primarily for the needs of the British Diplomatic Service, but courses were also open to members of other government departments, to officials of Commonwealth and other governments, to employees of commercial and other organisations (including the oil companies), to undergraduate British students and even to private individuals. The aim of these courses was to teach Arabic as a language of modern intercourse, in two specific areas: the Arabic of the mass media namely newspaper and radio, and educated spoken Arabic. MECAS has contributed substantially to TAFL, not only by providing British nationals excellent training in modern Arabic in a relatively short period but also by producing new teaching materials in the form of audio tapes, voluminous files of graded material and textbooks. ⁽¹⁾ In addition to the Commonwealth diplomats receiving training at MECAS, various other European nations and the Japanese (for both official and commercial purposes) have utilized and recognized the value of MECAS as an institution for practical Arabic language study. Even the Americans recognized the importance of MECAS and organized their National

(1) Among the textbooks produced by MECAS which are currently being used by a few British universities are the following three closely related books. These and other materials produced by MECAS are listed and annotated in Appendix A.

1. The MECAS Selected Word List of Modern Literary Arabic (1959).
2. The Way Prepared (الطريق الممهدة), MECAS reader (1962).
3. The MECAS Grammar of Modern Literary Arabic (1965).

Undergraduate Program for the Overseas Study of Arabic at MECAS (Moberly 1974:61-2). These courses lasted for 10 months and ran for 6 years from 1962 to 1968, and thereafter the American universities began to use the American University of Cairo. The success of MECAS depended a great deal on the high ratio of teachers to students. A maximum of about 60 students could be accommodated on the different courses at any one time. A brief description of the type of courses offered at MECAS follows. Up to the time of its temporary closure, five types of courses were offered (Ibid:62-83):

1. The Long Course

This was a 10 month course (October to July) intended mainly for beginners. Written (60%) and spoken (40%) Arabic were taught together from the first day. The students were divided into groups of four per instructor. All instructors, apart from the Principal Instructor, were native Arabic speakers. Each group received four hours of tuition per day including weekly tutorials of each group with the Principal Instructor and rotation of students among all the instructors for varying periods of time during the course, for continuity of instruction and a variety of approaches. Students were asked to do 3-4 hours of homework per day, including the use of the language laboratory. During the first two weeks in May, students were given oral and written assignments for what is called the "Language Break". For this, students are sent to, or choose for themselves, places to stay where they are surrounded by people talking and using Arabic, and where the students will have opportunities to talk and use Arabic naturally and not as a classroom exercise. Students normally went to other parts of the

Lebanon, Syria and Jordan for the two weeks. By the end of the course, all four basic linguistic skills are developed to an intermediate level in which a fair degree of fluency is attained in reading, speaking, writing and translating Arabic. This Long Course led up to the British Civil Service Commission (CSC) Intermediate Standard Examination in Arabic. This examination was taken at the end of the course and it tested four main areas:

- i. written translation from English/Arabic and Arabic/English;
- ii. written summarization into English of News Bulletins;
- iii. reading aloud unvowelled Arabic; and
- iv. conversation.

See Ibid. for more details and CSC examination papers (Annex I and IA).

2. The Advanced Course

This was a 5 month course (September to January) designed for those who have completed the Long Course and achieved a high standard in it and for others who have reached a similar standard elsewhere. Tuition was the same as the Long Course, except for a few additions such as the coming together of all groups (of 4 students) from time to time for lectures in Arabic and for extra tuition when needed for essay-writing and other work. Students are also given a two week "Language Break" for this course in November (activities similar to the Long Course but objectives were more advanced and specific). Two examinations were given for the Advanced Course: the first set by MECAS and held after seven weeks and the second was the CSC Higher Standard Examination in Arabic held at the end of the course which tests translation, essay-writing and oral proficiency. More details

of this course are given in Annex II and IIA (Ibid.) and also sample copies of the examination papers.

3. The Three-Month Course

This course was mainly for beginners whose sponsoring organisations could not afford the expense or the time of sending them to a 10 month course. It was usually arranged when convenient. The aim of this course was to lay a good foundation in Arabic to students who were likely to be able to carry on with regular self-study after leaving the Centre.

4. The Vacation Course

This was a 6 week summer course designed for second and third year British undergraduate students of Arabic. The aim of this course was to introduce students to spoken Arabic, radio Arabic, modern written Arabic and to life in an Arab country.

5. Background Courses

Two of these courses were held each year, one in spring and the other in autumn. For each course, a 5 day programme of lectures on the history of the Middle East and on the political, social, economic and religious background of the countries and peoples of the area was offered. These courses were designed to give those who were starting to work in the Arab countries a better understanding of the peoples, regions and the problems of the countries with which they were or would be associated. Sometimes, this was done with the assistance of some of the Arab countries.

An important feature of MECAS, throughout its almost 30 years of service, was that curriculum development went on continuously to take account of

new needs and to incorporate new teaching techniques developed either at MECAS or elsewhere. In the 70's, MECAS adopted for the first three months of the Long Course Elementary Modern Standard Arabic (P. Abboud et al, Vols. I and II, 1968) as a prelude to the wide range of its own locally produced materials. These included the three published books mentioned above, a series of vocabulary exercises (compiled by McLoughlin 1974) on the Word List and two series of 50 dialogues with audio tapes (also compiled by McLoughlin, 1974). Some of these materials are presently being used by a few British universities. Moberly (Ibid:64) observes that the experience at MECAS and comparisons with the results achieved by the American Foreign Service Institute Arabic Language School in the American Embassy in Beirut, which was inclined more exclusively to modern methods, suggest:

... that some hard learning by traditional methods is inevitable in the acquisition of Arabic grammar; but that a judicious introduction of modern methods alongside the more traditional can greatly facilitate the learning process.

Under the present university system of TAFL in Britain, perhaps this is the first step towards the improvement of teaching Arabic by achieving a balance between the old and the new approaches to teaching FLs whereby an existing programme or course can be modified, instead of bringing about a radical change of discarding the old and adopting the new.

4.4. Current Problems

1. Financial

Perhaps the most urgent problem concerns the very existence of Arabic departments in British universities. Owing to the recent government cuts to the financial resources that British universities receive each year, which has already resulted in the closure of a few departments other than Arabic (such as linguistics and music) and the Institute of Arabic and Islamic Studies at Lancaster, TAFL in Britain has now reached a crisis point particularly in the older Arabic departments which have not adapted to the changing British needs. These departments are now faced with a "do or die" situation: either they adapt and modernize their departments by producing competent graduates who can use Arabic effectively (both in speech and writing) or they face closure. The British government probably feels that, owing to the lack of funds, the Arabic language cannot be studied in this day and age purely for its own sake, since it has never existed for its own sake. On the other hand, university Arabists may feel otherwise and argue against this change on the plea that their literature-based syllabuses are being threatened which would result in a drop of standards in the appreciation of classical Arabic literature and the Islamic Civilization. On the contrary, what is proposed is what Mustapha (1986:23) appropriately describes as "an attempt not to freeze Arabic either in books or in classrooms." In this sense, government pressure on Arabic departments can be taken positively as a 'blessing in disguise' whereby Arabic departments can now think seriously and jointly with each other and with other modern language departments to update and upgrade teaching

methods and techniques so that TAFL can be brought up to the same level of teaching other modern languages in Britain.

2. Disadvantages compared to European Languages

One of the major problems of TAFL in Britain at the university level is that Arabic is at a grave disadvantage compared to the teaching of some of the common European languages such as French, German and Spanish. Students specializing in these languages would have normally studied them for several years (sometimes up to 7 years) at school level. Since Arabic is not a commonly taught language at the school level, very few students who choose to study Arabic at universities know even the alphabet before they begin their first year. The result is that almost the entire first year is spent on the elementary rudiments of Arabic but what happens more often than not is that more or less elementary teaching runs into the second year and continues alongside the study of other subjects, except perhaps in those universities where Arabic studies can be pursued as a single-subject degree as in SOAS. The first year students at SOAS receive up to 20 hours of intensive instruction per week (including supervised language laboratory work), which is considered as nearly ideal conditions. But most universities cannot afford to give more than 10 hours per week, and most give less than this on language instruction. This is further compounded by the fact that the teachers of Arabic face an enormous task of imparting knowledge on a wide and diverse range of subjects commonly labelled as Arabic and Islamic Studies. Thus, in addition to teaching the foundations of the language, teachers are required to teach

many centuries of history, literature, culture and the development of a system of beliefs and laws. Since Arabic teachers are burdened with the teaching of these areas, most Arabic departments simply do not have the manpower to provide the intensive language instruction that is needed. Arabic departments, unfortunately, do not have the use of 'FL assistants' or 'lectors' as other modern language departments do, except in Durham and Leeds. The use of 'FL assistants' could be a great asset to Arabic departments and it would relieve the burden on Arabic teachers especially because many Arabic teachers do not regard elementary Arabic teaching as the most appropriate use of their acquired research skills (Hopwood 1981:6).

3. More time needed for Intensive Instruction and natural exposure to Arabic

The fundamental problem still remains, that of providing learners with more time on intensive language instruction. In the case of Arabic, this need is even much greater since the structure, vocabulary and the script of Arabic are so totally different to those of European languages, but not as difficult as Chinese and Japanese. Recent research findings indicate that selected, capable, highly motivated learners under the best teaching conditions, and concentrating full-time on language study alone, require (depending on the language and the student) from 800 to 2,000 "contact hours" of training to attain a level of proficiency adequate for normal use (Blair 1982:X). The level of proficiency adequate for normal use is roughly equated to the American Foreign Service Institute's (FSI) third rating scale (out of a five point rating scale) of minimum proficiency in the four linguistic skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing

of technical and non-technical subjects within a special field. Can the average student attain reasonable proficiency or basic competence in Arabic through present university courses? Basic competence in Arabic would include, in addition to comprehending classical and modern literary Arabic texts, the ability to write in modern literary Arabic, comprehend oral/aural material and the ability to converse with native speakers on a fair range of subjects. Most university courses (undergraduate) provide students with a total of less than 1,000 hours of instruction, except at SOAS and perhaps at one or two other universities where Arabic can be studied as a single-subject four year degree. The standards of reading and in some cases writing Arabic are usually much higher than those of listening and speaking. Even SOAS which provides the most intensive undergraduate courses in Arabic (between 1000 - 1400 hours of instruction), admits that by the end of the course only the students' reading and writing ability in Arabic is fairly well developed but the speaking ability is less well developed. This indicates that even the most intensive courses cannot provide the level of both oral and written proficiency needed, in the limited time available in present university systems. If one looks at the time spent on course-work annually in British universities, one would be surprised to notice the limited time of intensive instruction received by students. Most universities provide students with only 30 weeks of instruction per year and some, such as Durham which has a 27 week academic year (only about 6 months) provide even less. Considering the time spent on examinations and revision, how much language instruction does the student really receive? In the teaching and learning of FLs, educationists agree that more time is

generally needed on exposure to the FL than in other subjects and in the case of Arabic, this is of vital importance, since Arabic is truly foreign to European or English-speaking learners. Therefore, an estimate of at least 1,200 hours or more is needed on intensive instruction for an undergraduate course, in addition to a few hundred hours of natural exposure to Arabic in the form of extra-curricular activities.

For substantial improvements to existing university courses, some radical changes might have to be made, either by providing more instruction or by finding more efficient teaching approaches and methods that will accomplish more in less time, or both. One possible way of confronting this problem would be to extend the academic year. This has been tried with great success by the polytechnic colleges of Britain. For instance, PCL has a 35 week academic year and the first year Arabic students receive almost 40 weeks of instruction (including the Foundation Course). Some universities have already extended their academic year from three to four terms (i.e. one full year), but this is mainly at the postgraduate level where highly specialized one-year MA, M.Sc., Diploma and Certificate courses in Arabic translating, interpreting, linguistics and applied linguistics are offered as in Bath, Edinburgh, Heriot-Watt and Salford. Confronted with the problem of providing more time to undergraduate students in all subjects, the University of Aberdeen is presently reviewing the possibility of introducing a 40 week academic year. If this is accepted by other universities, Arabic departments could benefit immensely by providing the equivalent of three or four terms extra tuition in Arabic at the undergraduate level. Perhaps, in this way students can come closer to achieving basic competence in Arabic.

4. CC in Arabic through Pre-University and High School Courses

Can the student of Arabic ever reach a level of advanced competence or communicative competence (CC) by the end of an undergraduate course? CC in a FL is described as native-like or bilingual proficiency. Under the present university system, this is almost an impossible task even with the policy of a term to a year abroad, unless Arabic is studied before university or at school. The undergraduate degree course in Arabic offered by PCL (as discussed above in 4.2.1) is probably the only course in Britain designed explicitly to achieve this objective, although not all of their students achieve CC. This is a phenomenon in teaching Arabic which cannot be avoided since students learning Arabic have or come with different and varying degrees of abilities, interests, linguistic background and motivations, and coupled with this fact is that language teaching is not an exact science because there is no perfect teaching approach, method or syllabus. But one fact is certain, if natural exposure to Arabic is maximized both inside and outside the learning environment, the learning and acquisition process is greatly accelerated, as at PCL. Judging from the unique features of the PCL course, one cannot dismiss lightly the advantages of a foundation or preliminary course which makes students literate in Arabic even before the first academic year and also the benefits of an Arabic medium of instruction from the second year onwards. Hopwood (1981:7) observes that a proposal was put forward in 1970 for the establishment of a central institute in Britain which would teach elementary Arabic to prospective undergraduates. This plan is still on paper as the necessary finance has not come forth. The original plan

proposes a one year course after which students would move to their respective universities. If this is not possible, even a one or two-month intensive summer course on the lines of PCL's Foundation Course or similar to the intensive summer courses in Arabic offered by some universities and colleges in the USA would serve a useful purpose. (1)

- (1) Many Middle East centres in the USA also offer short intensive and semi-intensive courses in Arabic and some of them, such as the Middle East Institute (Washington DC), offer courses three times a year (Spring, Summer and Autumn). However, the most intensive summer courses offered in the USA, which deserve to be mentioned here, are undoubtedly those offered by Middlebury College's School of Arabic (Middlebury, Vermont). These courses are offered at 4 levels: beginners, intermediate, advanced intermediate and advanced. These unique 9 week courses take place in a total immersion situation in which the learners' receive maximum exposure to Arabic. Not only is the medium of instruction Arabic, but all students are required to sign a formal statement (or pledge) agreeing to use Arabic as the only medium of communication during the entire 9 week session. Even beginners are required to sign a modified pledge. The type of Arabic used is not any of the dialects but modern standard Arabic or what Peter Abboud, the director of this summer school, calls 'contemporary *فصحى*'. Abboud observes that this experiment in using *فصحى* exclusively both inside and outside the classroom in everyday communication proved decidedly successful, enhancing proficiency in a more natural and convivial setting. The courses develop all the 4 basic linguistic skills, and emphasize a communicative and functional approach to the study of Arabic and contextual usage rather than mere cognition of the language and its grammar. Extra-curricular activities (lectures, discussions, documentaries, musicals, films, etc.) are part and parcel of the programme, and students and faculty live on campus. The intensive language curricula are equivalent to at least one full year of study in any of the major university courses in the USA. For more details see the 1987 prospectus.

For present needs, the Principal Lecturer and Head of the Department of Arabic at PCL, Salah El-Ghobashy, is prepared to organise intensive summer courses for prospective undergraduates at PCL since it has the resources and facilities to do so. It is unfortunate that none of the five Middle East Centres of research in Britain (Cambridge, Durham, Exeter, London (SOAS) and Oxford) is actively devoted to TAFL, for which there is an urgent need.

In order for undergraduates to be able to reach an acceptable level of advanced competence or CC in Arabic, there is a need to introduce some aspects of Arabic studies (language, history and civilization) at least at the high school level. This would ease the burden of universities to cope with such a large area of study within a three or four year course. 'The Schools' Arabic Project' mentioned above (4.3.1) is an interesting new development explicitly designed to achieve this aim by focussing a fair proportion of the course syllabus on cultural studies. Under present conditions, this course (the 1986/87 pilot stage) is intended only as a one year course in the Lower Sixth Form in England which is the penultimate year at high school and no planning has as yet been made to extend this course for a two-year period (i.e. also in the last year of high school). If the students' momentum in learning Arabic needs to be maintained, particularly if they wish to continue with Arabic at university level, a two year course may prove vital in not breaking this momentum, as might occur if Arabic were only studied in the penultimate year. However, the present course is strategically placed in the school curriculum, in that a second year can be added on and all efforts must be made by universities

to encourage and motivate the 'Project' to introduce a second year. This would serve a wider purpose especially because the writing skills in Arabic are totally neglected in this course (as can be noticed from the syllabus guideline of the course in Appendix C). On the other hand, if a two-year course were to be introduced, the whole procedure of using mainly transliteration in the three course books may need to be re-evaluated in the light of past experience. The American Foreign Service Institute, which has adopted the CA in TAFL, reports that one of the basic pedagogical assumptions in developing materials for a course is that the "use of transcription delays and disrupts the students' grasp of the Arabic writing and sound systems" (Ryding 1984:645).

It is surprising that the two million Muslim community of Britain have not yet asked for or have not yet been granted the provision of facilities for learning Arabic in some of the high schools of some cities where there is a large population of Muslims as in Birmingham, Bradford, London and Preston. In France and the USA, there are an increasing number of high schools teaching Arabic with some success. Even in South Africa, where the Muslim population is very small (about 350,000), Arabic has been introduced into many high schools more than ten years ago and it has also been recently introduced into a few primary schools. After a long struggle with the education authorities, Arabic was accepted in South Africa as a high school subject and it is presently taught for a five year period (Standard 6 to Standard 10, pre-university) in about 10-20 high schools. The policy of providing Arabic teachers at these high schools is based on the assumption that if there are at least 20-25 students in a class

(or the same standard, grade or form) who want to learn Arabic, the education authorities are obliged to provide a teacher for these students. Could not a similar kind of policy be introduced in Britain?

5. What Form of Arabic to teach?

Another problem or dilemma in some quarters, at least, is what form of Arabic to teach and if spoken Arabic is taught, what type of spoken Arabic or dialect to teach? The short and natural answer to this question is to concentrate on the standard form, just as in other languages, since the standard form or modern literary Arabic which is the language of the mass media is understood throughout the Arab World and is more useful to the average student. When one wants to learn written or spoken English, French or German, one does not ask, what type of English, French or German? One is expected to learn the standard form and not, for instance, Cockney English, Patois French or Bavarian German. Those who ask the questions: "which dialect to teach? Who will teach it?" and who profess the view that "literary Arabic may sound jarring and unnatural"⁽¹⁾ are making a scapegoat of the issues involved in teaching Arabic in an academic institution of higher learning. As Semaan (1968:335) stated in his article "The Crisis of Arabic in the USA" almost 20 years ago: "I confess I am at a loss to understand why an American student can earn extensive credits towards a degree in Arabic by learning Egyptian or Moroccan Arabic, while the same privilege would be denied him if he

(1) See Mustapha (1986:22-3) for more details.

wished to apply credits in Kentucky Hills or Brooklynese English toward a degree in English." Teaching the national dialects of Arabic to diplomats, businessmen, field workers and for commercial and other purposes is not at issue here. Furthermore, the short American experience of TAFI indicates that although many universities offered the dialects at first, many universities have abandoned this policy and now begin with modern standard Arabic and only later, if at all, offer a dialect (Abboud 1971:4). Among the important reasons given by Abboud (Ibid.) why modern standard Arabic is more useful than the dialects for the average student are the following three:

1. A student can remain culturally informed and maintain his proficiency by using newspapers, books, magazines, broadcasts, etc.
2. This would be impossible for the different national dialects because the student would have to live in the Arab World in order to use them.
3. It does not seem unreasonable to expect the specialist of any persuasion to become proficient in the standard form of the language.

4.5. Conclusion: Possible Solutions and Recommendations

There is no doubt that there is much to be learnt and yet to be accomplished, not only for TAFI in Britain but on a world-wide basis. Concerning this Allard once stated:⁽¹⁾ "As regards TAFI everything is still to be done." For the improvement of TAFI in Britain, some possible solutions and recommendations have been hinted at or mentioned in passing in the above

(1) Cited by McLoughlin (1986:1).

sections of this chapter. However, some of these more important solutions and recommendations are listed below in order of importance:

1. Oral/Aural Assessment

For present needs, one of the possible ways of improving the performance of communication skills in Arabic would be to introduce a fair percentage of oral and aural testing for each undergraduate year. For this, more intensive instruction on the number of hours per week on listening comprehension and speaking are required and also more opportunities for interaction in Arabic and natural exposure to the language, both inside and outside the classroom.

2. Association of Teachers of Arabic

There is an urgent need for a separate body or an association for Arabic teachers that would concentrate specifically on the problems of teaching Arabic in Britain. Considering the history of TAFL in Britain, such a body is long overdue.⁽¹⁾ Those committed to the improvement of TAFL in Britain should come together to form such a body, not only from universities but from other quarters as well where Arabic is being taught, and thus end the professional isolation of Arabic teachers.

(1) In the USA, such a body has been in existence for over 20 years now. The American Association of Teachers of Arabic (AATA), which was established in 1965, is active on various projects, workshops and other activities concerned with the improvement of TAFL in the USA and it has already produced some commendable work in the form of textbooks, teaching aids and its biannual periodical, Al-^CArabiyya.

In this way perhaps, views on TAFL can be exchanged, individual duplication of work can be avoided and joint working parties can be set up to look into various aspects of TAFL such as syllabus design, teaching approaches and methods, materials development, teaching aids, testing techniques, etc., at all levels of teaching Arabic. Such a body may be associated with and affiliated to national and international bodies concerned with language teaching in general and TAFL in particular, in order to be well-informed of recent developments in FL teaching and learning, such as the British Association of Language Teaching (BALT), the Modern Language Association (MLA) of Britain, the Joint Council of Language Associations (JCLA) of Britain, AATA, International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA), Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research (CILT) and others. An association such as this could contribute towards establishing a British journal for TAFL and also an international journal and an association for TAFL in which reports, papers, projects, research findings and other contributions specifically concerned with teaching Arabic could be published for the profession world-wide.

3. Research Centre for TAFL

Since none of the Middle East Centres of research in Britain is specifically devoted to TAFL, a specialist research centre for teaching Arabic needs to be established at one of the universities. A centre such as this could organize short and long term projects into various

aspects of TAFL.⁽¹⁾ Concerning this Mustapha (1986:23) observes that: "we need to establish a bank of tried and tested approaches and methodologies, a battery of recognised and validated tests, and an open-ended set of exercise types." At this time and juncture, the University of Salford is perhaps the most suitable location for establishing such a centre, since it is directly involved in TAFL from the applied linguistic point of view, or at Salford in conjunction with Leeds, SOAS and UKAS working together towards establishing such a research centre.

4. Summer School of Arabic

There is an urgent need for establishing a school or an institute in Britain that would specialize in imparting the rudiments of Arabic to prospective undergraduates during the summer months. This need not be an expensive venture, since existing university resources and facilities could be used for this purpose. In addition to providing intensive preliminary or foundation courses of a month or two in duration, this school can also concentrate on teaching the practical

(1) Some of the Arabic Language Institutes specializing in teaching Arabic to non-Arabs in the Arab World are quite active in the production of teaching materials, journals, teachers' guides, teacher training courses and various other books on TAFL. Among these, the Arabic Language Institute's of Khartoum (supported by ALESCO), Riyadh and Makkah have special units for research, curriculum development and training teachers for TAFL. See Appendix B for some of the materials produced by these institutes.

communication skills of Arabic to intermediate learners (for second and third year students), especially for those students who are unable to spend some time abroad for some reason or other.

Alternatively, for present needs, PCL or UKAS could be used as venues for this purpose.

5. Greater Co-operation between British and Arab Universities and Governments

The co-operation between British and Arab universities and Arab governments needs to be expanded. There are several possibilities that could be explored:

(i) A system needs to be devised whereby Arab teachers or students specializing or specialized in TAFL could be sent to British universities as FL assistants on an annual or biennial basis, similar to the policy adopted by the Modern Language departments of universities and high schools in Britain. Some of the Arab governments including the Arab League could help to support and finance such a system, perhaps in conjunction with some of the TAFL teacher training centres in the Arab World. Some universities, as in Cambridge and Leeds, presently have a lector system (Arab teachers) on an annual or biennial basis, but these lectors are financed by the universities concerned, except in the case of Manchester. Since there are generally not enough teachers to provide the many hours of intensive instruction needed in British universities, this would surely be a welcomed gesture for Arabic teachers and it would ease the heavy teaching load that they normally face. Some of these FL assistants could also be employed in the summer school mentioned above.

(ii) Co-operation between British universities and Arab governments could be expanded whereby Arab governments could be given a role of promoting the teaching of Arabic Studies in British universities and also by supporting and maintaining Arabic departments financially, since these departments are specifically devoted to teaching the language of the Arabs and their civilization and culture and thus the Arabs could provide some help in the matter. Some of the smaller Arabic departments which are not financially well off and which may face closure could benefit from this. This is not an impossible task since the University of Lancaster's Institute of Arabic and Islamic Studies received a generous grant from the Government of Kuwait in 1972. Perhaps, some of the British university Vice Chancellors or Principals could play a role in this venture, since some of them are currently serving as educational advisors to Arab governments.

6. Teacher Training and In-Service Courses

There is a need for establishing a specialist teacher training programme for prospective British teachers in Arabic. Although Salford has just started a postgraduate degree programme called MA in TASL (see 4.3.1.2.1. above) as a teacher training course, this course is not specifically designed for British needs but, nevertheless, Salford is best equipped to take the initiative in providing for such a need. Perhaps, the more urgent need is to provide short in-service teacher training courses for practising Arabic teachers and these could serve two purposes:

(i) courses for the training of communication skills for those teachers

who are not fluent in Arabic; and

(ii) courses designed to give an understanding of applied linguistics and its relationship to the teaching and learning of Arabic.

Again, Salford is best suited to provide this facility.

7. Use of Research Students

Over recent years there has been a great influx of postgraduate students coming to Britain from Third World countries to do research in Arabic Studies. Many of these students are native speakers of Arabic, coming from the Arab World and others who have studied for their first degrees in an Arab country. Those research students who are fluent in Arabic could give conversation and language classes in the Arabic medium to undergraduates, at least once or twice a week, and they could also help to organize extra-curricular activities where undergraduates could be exposed to the language in a more natural setting. In most universities there is invariably a small community of native speakers of Arabic always available. This resource could be effectively utilised for the benefit of undergraduates. These research students need not be paid for this service, since most or at least some of them would welcome this experience. Alternatively, this system could be stipulated as a postgraduate requirement. The second, third and even fourth year students could benefit immensely from this contact with fluent Arabic speakers. The Universities of Durham and Leeds are probably the only two British universities that make use of research students for teaching purposes. More practical use of research students in such a system could prove to be a valuable resource to tap for Arabic departments.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH: A THEORETICAL OUTLINE

5.1. Preview

The FL teaching-profession is currently undergoing a 'revolution' due to recent insights made by psycholinguists, sociolinguists, applied linguists and educationists into the process of learning and teaching a language. This has resulted in an increase in the number of variables to be considered when planning a FL teaching programme. These variables may be social namely the aims, objectives, age-group, etc. of the learners; others psychological such as motivation, low-middle-high ability learners, etc.; and even other educational and applied linguistic variables namely syllabus design, teaching methodology, teaching materials, testing procedures, teacher training, etc. This 'revolution' involves a major re-examination of FL teaching objectives and methodology which has faced teachers with a whole range of new concepts namely communicative competence, functional/notional syllabuses, behavioural objectives, negotiation of learner needs, personalization, communicative activities, communicative games, group-work and paired-work activities, role-playing, simulations, plays, etc., and has invited teachers to put them into practice using a wide range of new syllabuses and courses. This indicates that FL teaching today is not an easy business; it has become a complicated process. The major shift in this process has been from teacher-centred to student-centred learning. In Britain, many teachers of French at high school level have since 1981⁽¹⁾ begun to use teaching materials and

(1) The foundation-work of preparing teaching materials and the setting-up of joint working parties for developing a CA in teaching French at high school level, particularly in Scotland, began from the mid 60s.

textbooks based on the CA and the teachers of other major FLs taught in Britain (Spanish, German, Italian and including Russian) have, at a conference in Exeter, recently taken a decision to adopt the CA.⁽¹⁾ But, what about the teaching of FLs at institutions of higher education? In this area, there has been some progress in a few research projects presently being conducted in a few Scottish universities, testing the validity of the CA in teaching French. However, there are clear signs from a few recent conferences such as those held at St. Andrews⁽²⁾ and Bradford,⁽³⁾ that the CA has begun to be adopted in teaching of FLs at university level.

For the development of an effective TAFL programme or course, the questions of theory and practice are equally important. Widdowson (1978:75) stresses the importance of both theory and practice in language teaching by observing:

... it is important to recognize that language teaching is a theoretical as well as a practical activity, that effective teaching materials and classroom procedures depend on principles deriving from an understanding of what language is and how it is used.

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- (1) 'JCLA (Joint Council of Language Associations) Conference/Course on Communication Dream into Reality.' University of Exeter, March 23-26, 1984.
- (2) Conference on 'Communication Skills in Modern Languages at School and in Higher Education.' University of St. Andrews, September 14-16, 1981. Selected papers in CILT (1982).
- (3) Conference on 'Oral and Aural Skills in the Modern Language Degree.' January 3-6, 1984. Selected papers in Bradford Occasional Papers (1984).

In Chapter Three above, it was noticed how the formalist view of language and of learning led to specific methods of teaching. Be it the G-TM or the A-LM, they all led to only one goal: that of linguistic perfection, since each one of these methods was based on the rules of grammar (structure) and not on the rules of speaking or communication (context). In this chapter an attempt is made to show how recent trends in FL teaching have shaped and influenced modern language teaching methodology by a major shift in the view of language and its functions. This view of language, perhaps more than any other, is the insight that the ability to manipulate the structures of a language correctly is only one aspect of what is involved in learning a language. "There is", in Johnson's words (1981:2), "a 'something else' that needs to be learned, and this 'something else' involves the ability to be appropriate, to know the right thing to say at the right time." With reference to Arabic, this is the ability to be *فصيح* and *بليغ* at the same time, as discussed in Chapter Three (3.2.) above and further elaborated in the next section of this chapter. Hymes (1972:15) discusses this problem of 'something else' in FL teaching by stating very aptly:

There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless.

The rules of use refer to the rules of communication, both spoken and written. This functional view of language is derived chiefly from the sociology of language or sociolinguistics which views language as it is used for communication within the social group that speak it. This view of language is based on semantic meaning-based syllabuses which are

intended to lead to communicative competence (CC) in a wider sense, rather than linguistic (grammatical) competence (LC) alone. This chapter, therefore, investigates the CA as part of THE current approach to FL teaching which further forms part of the more general term of an 'analytic approach', discussed by Wilkins (1976) in Chapter Three above.

5.2. Accuracy (فصاحة) and Appropriacy (بلاغة) in Arabic

Before discussing the various aspects of the CA in detail, we need to clarify a few points arising from the discussions of the CA in relation to Arabic in the previous chapters (especially Chapter Three, 3.2.) and in the preview of this chapter. This concerns the distinction between language usage or accuracy (correctness) and language use or appropriacy made by Widdowson (1978). Language usage refers to the knowledge of the grammatical system and language use refers to the use of this knowledge for effective communicative purposes. Usage and use can be further equated to linguistic skills or فصاحة and communicative abilities or بلاغة or even LC and CC in Arabic. In order to teach Arabic effectively and efficiently, the teacher of Arabic needs to concentrate on imparting both kinds of knowledge. In the past the tendency has been to concentrate on linguistic skills (usage) on the assumption that learners will eventually pick up the necessary knowledge of communicative abilities (use) on their own. Evidence indicates that learners who have a great deal of knowledge of usage in Arabic find themselves at a loss when they are confronted with actual instances of use. Recent research findings indicate that too much concentration on usage may actually impede

production of a FL in real communicative situations, therefore, the sole teaching of usage does not guarantee a knowledge of use. However, the teaching of use (CC) does guarantee the learning of usage (LC) since the latter is represented as a necessary part of the former. Thus, designing Arabic language courses with reference to use would be a sensible approach to adopt.

To shed some light on this question of correctness and appropriacy or usage and use in Arabic, let us consider a few examples. Take an Arabic sentence such as:

الامطار دمرت المزرعة

Here we have a correct Arabic sentence and we may state that anyone speaking or writing such a sentence gives evidence of a good knowledge of Arabic. On the other hand, what would we say if someone produced the following sentences:

امطار هو تدمر المزرعة

or

مطر دمر مزرع

We might judge this person as having an inadequate knowledge of the linguistic rules of Arabic. But what would we say if someone produced the correct sentence in the following context?

(A confronts B, a stranger, in a Cairo street).

A : من فضلك ، هل تعرف الطريق الى المطار ؟

B : الامطار دمرت المزرعة

The sentence still remains correct, but we may observe that B does not really know Arabic. Would anyone seriously utter this sentence in response to the type of question posed by A and if not, why not? When one learns Arabic one does not only learn to compose correct sentences as isolated grammatical units of random occurrence; one also needs to use Arabic sentences appropriately to achieve a communicative purpose. Learners of Arabic cannot be just expected to be 'walking grammars'. The example given above may seem to be extreme. Here is another example:

A : ماذا عملت الامطار ؟
B : المزرعة قد دمرت بالامطار

This exchange is a positive improvement on the previous one. But, would a competent speaker of Arabic recognize that B's reply is still in some way the wrong type of reply, since it does not take an appropriate form in this context. In this way, the following reply can be considered as odd combinations of sentences:

A : ماذا دمرت بالامطار ؟
B : الامطار دمرت المزرعة

and

A : ماذا حدث للمزرعة ؟
B : الامطار دمرت المزرعة

Whereas, the following exchanges can be considered as quite normal:

A : ماذا فعلت الامطار ؟
B : دمرت المزرعة

- A : ماذا دمرت بالامطار ؟
 B : المزرعة
 A : ماذا حدث للمزرعة ؟
 B : قد دمرت بالامطار

In order to make an appropriate reply, a sentence which combines with the question asked needs to be selected or it may involve using only part of a sentence to be precise and بليغ , as in the second of the normal exchanges given above. Thus in بلاغة , we have the term ' لكل مقام مقال '.

If we consider the classroom presentation of correctness and appropriacy in Arabic, the problem becomes clearer. By concentrating on the teaching of correctness or usage in class, Arabic may sometimes be used inappropriately. In teaching Arabic through the A-LM, take the following example of an oral drill in which the learner is required to repeat a sentence pattern by using different 'call-words':

- الاستاذ : كتاب
 الطلاب : يوجد كتاب على الطاولة
 الاستاذ : حقيبة
 الطلاب : توجد حقيبة على الطاولة
 الاستاذ : قلم
 الطلاب : يوجد قلم على الطاولة
 الاستاذ : تحت الطاولة
 الطلاب : يوجد قلم تحت الطاولة
 الاستاذ : على الارض
 الطلاب : يوجد قلم على الارض

In this type of oral drill, there are a series of responses to a verbal cue but these responses are not replies that one would expect in a normal communication situation. The students demonstrate their knowledge of usage by manipulating the sentence pattern as an end in itself and for no other purpose. If we adjust the drill to a more normal question and answer sequence, we will get the following:

الاستاذ	:	ماذا على الطاولة ؟
الطلاب	:	يوجد كتاب على الطاولة
الاستاذ	:	ماذا على الارض ؟
الطلاب	:	توجد حقيبة على الارض
الاستاذ	:	اين الحقيبة ؟
الطلاب	:	الحقيبة على الارض
الاستاذ	:	اين الكتاب ؟
الطلاب	:	الكتاب على الطاولة

In this drill, some account of use or appropriacy is taken since the questions and answers refer to a simple situation. In this sense, the students are not simply producing sentences without any reference to what the words mean, as in the first drill. But the form of reply is still inappropriate because the main emphasis is still usage, although there is some concern for use. The replies in the following exchanges take on a more normal role, when compared to the above drill:

الاستاذ	:	ماذا على الطاولة ؟
الطلاب	:	كتاب
الاستاذ	:	اين الحقيبة ؟
الطلاب	:	على الارض

Although Arabic may seem to be used appropriately in this drill, it still cannot be regarded as demonstrating appropriate use. The reason for this is that the created situation is artificial and not real. If the students are aware of the location of these objects, the teacher does not need to ask where they are and it would seem extremely unnatural to do so in normal situations. The questions are decontextualized by referring to something outside language and are not just a manipulation of the language itself. On the other hand, if the teacher is genuinely looking for the bag and the students know that the teacher cannot see, then his question as to its location takes on the character of natural use, as in the following exchanges:

أين الينفضة ؟	:	الاستاذ
تحت الكرسي	:	الطلاب
أين مصطفى اليوم ؟	:	الاستاذ
هو مريض	:	الطلاب

These examples indicate a genuine quality of real communication. The main point of contention from the CA point of view is that the type of drills, questions and answers used in conventional teaching methods will be very unlikely to be used when the learner actually confronts situations where he has to use Arabic for communicative purposes. If we know that these conventional examples will not be used by learners in normal language behaviour, then why use them. Thus, we need to prepare examples that serve a communicative purpose. As Widdowson (1978:6) observes the realization of language as use involves two kinds of ability: "One kind is the ability to select which form of sentence is appropriate

for a particular linguistic context. The second is the ability to recognize which function is fulfilled by a sentence in a particular communicative situation."

Let us consider other classroom techniques with reference to the correctness/appropriacy distinction. One of these techniques is known as 'situational presentation' which might seem to introduce language use. Normally, the teacher demonstrates the meaning of objects or events that are actually present or enacted in the classroom. The situation is said to be represented by these objects and events. For instance, in the early stages of an Arabic language course the teacher may hold up a pen or a book, point to it and say:

هَذَا قَلَمٌ

This correct Arabic sentence demonstrates an example of correct usage. But does it represent an example of appropriate use? Looking at this devised situation more closely, the teacher would not normally choose these words in such a sentence because the students know what a pen is as an object in their MT but they do not know what this object is called in Arabic. In this sense, learners are denied the opportunity of drawing on their own experience of language. This type of sentence would normally function as an identification, but the learners do not need to have the object identified as a pen; they need to have it named as 'a pen'. If use is to be demonstrated, the form of sentence would be something like:

هَذَا قَلَمٌ بِاللُّغَةِ الْعَرَبِيَّةِ

or

هَذَا يُسَمَّى قَلَمٌ بِالْعَرَبِيَّةِ

This does not mean that a sentence like ' هذا قلم ' cannot take on an appropriate communicative function in another situation. For example, imagine a chemistry laboratory in an Arab country. The teacher is conducting an experiment and he shows his students a flask of liquid which he needs to identify. In this situation, he may appropriately say:

هذا حامض كبريتي - This is sulphuric acid

This sentence does not only demonstrate a structure, it is being used for a required communicative purpose. Since it takes on a natural function, it represents an example of both correct usage and appropriate use.

In recommending the design of language teaching courses with reference to language use, Widdowson (1978) suggests that, at high school level, the best way of doing this would be to associate the teaching of a FL with topics drawn from other subjects in the school curriculum so that the learners' own experience of language can be extended into a different field of realization. The use of geographical maps, for example, in teaching Arabic can be beneficial in reinforcing and testing both the linguistic skills and communicative abilities of the learners in a more natural and authentic way. An exercise of this type would be considered communicative. This approach has been applied by القاسمي (1980) with great success, not in teaching Arabic to high schools students but in providing in-service training for Arabic teachers who were not very fluent in Arabic. For a sample outline of the CA adopted by القاسمي, see Appendix D.

5.3. Historical background of the CA

It was the American sociolinguist Hymes who first introduced the term 'communicative competence' (CC) in the mid 1960s. This term is made up of two words: 'communicative' and 'competence'. When combined, the two words mean competence to communicate (in both speech and writing). Since the 1970s, CC has become a slogan within applied linguistics and more specifically within Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Before discussing the recent theories of CC, it is useful to outline a brief history of the work of earlier researchers which led up to these theories, so that a better understanding of the CA could be reached.

Chapter Three discussed how each major method of language teaching revealed its own view of language and sometimes its own view of learning (for e.g., the Habit-Formation Theory of Skinner in the A-LM). Formalist or traditionalist views of language were and still are to a great extent based on the narrow view of language as consisting mainly of grammar. On the other hand, the functionalist or activist view of language has had a growing interest in language as a means of communication. Yalden (1983:55) expresses this view by making the following observation:

Once the functional view of language is adopted, it is evident that the central question becomes: what are the functions of language? And for applied linguistics the question whether some are more important or occur more frequently than others also becomes of vital importance in matters of syllabus design and language pedagogy.

However, the view of language as a functional system could be said to have started as early as the 1920s, if not earlier, with Malinowski⁽¹⁾ among others and the Prague School of Linguistics. Malinowski (1923) originally worked in analyzing primitive languages but he expanded his arguments to other living languages. He spoke of language as being dependent on the society and on the context in which it was used. Meaning, he wrote, comes "not from a passive contemplation of the word, but from an analysis of its functions, with reference to the given culture" (Ibid:309). He noticed that language evolved so as to meet the demands of any given society and he distinguished six types of language use: pragmatic, narrative, ritual, scholastic, theological and scientific. He also suggested that the extent to which they were found in a given society depended on how highly developed their culture was. Yalden (1983:53) mentions that in Malinowski's work there are two important concepts: "the context of situation as indispensable for understanding language; and the subordination of the referential to social and emotive functions." Yalden further observes that the notion of language as primarily a mode of action is also fundamental and in it can be perceived the germ of functional-notional approach, in which sociolinguistic studies take on such great significance and in which language equals communication.

(1) Malinowski was an anthropologist and since anthropologists are basically concerned with language as an essential part of the behavioural and cultural patterns of the people they study, he worked on the primitive languages of the Trobriand Islands in the South Pacific.

The Prague linguists⁽¹⁾ of this period also expressed a similar view on the function of language, although basically the importance of their work lies in phonological theory. Their functional approach to language was also characteristic and this enabled them to contribute significantly to the discussion of questions of language teaching, since they were also interested in the application of their linguistic theory. In describing the functional approach of the Prague School of Linguistics, Vachek (1972:14) makes the following statement:

This approach visualizes language as a tool performing a number of essential functions or tasks in the community using it. The most outstanding (and most obvious) among these tasks is undoubtedly the communicative function, serving the needs and wants of the mutual understanding of individual members of the given language community.

In recent times, this school's view of language functions was given its greatest elaboration by Jakobson (1960).

Returning to Malinowski, we find that he had a great influence on British linguists, especially Firth who was responsible for forming the Firthian or London School of Linguistics in Britain. It was in the 50s that Firth

(1) They were a group of linguists who held regular meetings during the 1920s and 1930s. They were mainly Czech and Russian and they are famous for publishing their Travaux du cercle linguistique de Prague. World War II interrupted their activities but they have continued to work actively after the war. Trubetzkoy and Jakobson are central figures among them.

derived his theory of 'context of situation' from Malinowski (called 'the situation theory' or sometimes known as 'the contextual theory'). Firth (1968:161) agrees with Malinowski on some general principles of functional grammar and he suggests that: "... linguistics at all levels of analysis is concerned with meaningful human behaviour in society." According to Yalden (1983:60), both Malinowski and Firth had a strong influence on the work of Halliday, who in turn has had a great impact on applied linguistics in Britain and elsewhere, and on account of whom the whole question of 'meaning', 'context of situation' and 'language functions in society' remains at the forefront. Since the work of Halliday and Hymes is regarded as the foundation on which the CA is based, their contributions are discussed later in this chapter, under the theories of CC.

However, it is necessary to note here how the term 'CA' first came into use. It was Wilkins who first introduced this term into FL or L2 teaching terminology in 1975. He worked, together with three other experts (van Ek, Richterich and Trim), with the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project on developing a unit/credit system for Modern language learning. This system is based mainly on 'functions' and 'notions' and is, therefore, referred to as 'the functional-notional approach'. But, Wilkins (1975:18) has called their approach a "communicative approach to language learning since it assigns high-priority to the context of communication than to its form."

5.4. The Act of Communication

Analyses of the acts of communication began in the USA after World War II,

when linguists interested in psychology began to merge with psychologists who were interested in linguistics and this resulted in the formation of the new interdisciplinary field of psycholinguistics. Among the first models of a communication system⁽¹⁾ was a mathematical model developed by Shannon and Weaver (1949:34). Although this model was originally used as a basis for the study of problems of telegraphic communication, Rivers (1981:184) points out that "it provides many interesting insights into interpersonal communication through speech."

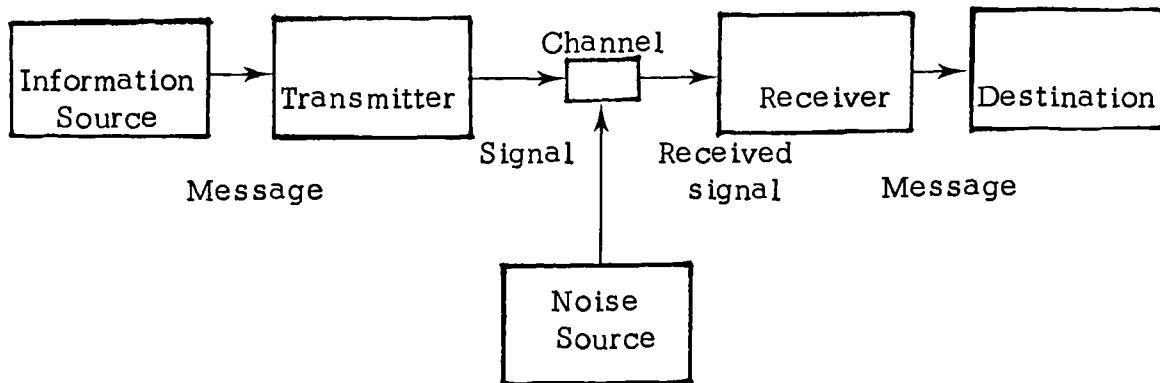


Fig. 4 : A Mathematical Model of a Communication System
(Shannon and Weaver 1949:34)

In the above model, a message is emitted by an information source. The message is then encoded for transmission as a signal which passes through a channel to a receiver. The receiver decodes the message for use at its destination. In line with this model, Carrol (1953:88) provides an organismic communication model of speech. But, since the current

(1) For other communication models, see Stern (1983:296) for a theoretical model defining the role of psycholinguistics among the social and language sciences, and also for another general model of the communicative act (Ibid:128).

theories of CC in a CA include both spoken and written communication, this model can be adapted to include also written communication.

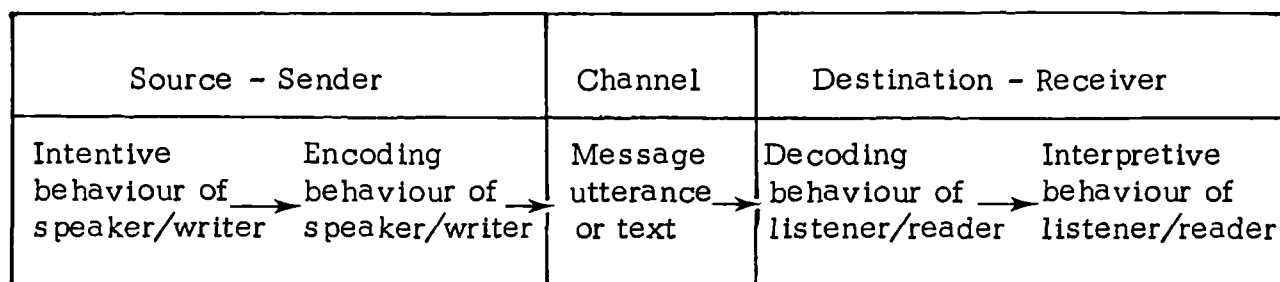


Fig. 5 : A Model of the Act of Communication in Arabic (Spoken and Written)

The 'code' in the strict linguistic sense would refer to the system of formal rules that manifests itself in the messages or texts, but, when the 'code' is used with reference to language teaching, it refers to the FL or L2, i.e. how to encode speech/writing or how to decode listening/reading in Arabic. In developing the listening and reading skills of Arabic, we are concerned with the reception of the message/text and its decoding and interpretation by the receiver (i.e. the right hand side of each of the above models). In developing the speaking and writing skills in Arabic, we are concerned with the selection of the message/text to be produced and its encoding for transmission (i.e. the left hand side of each of the above models). The teaching of Arabic has traditionally concentrated on making the learner aware of certain aspects of the code (i.e. phonological and morphological features, vocabulary, syntactic rules, etc.) without providing adequate practice in the selection of a message and in the process of encoding it for transmission. Therefore, in order to teach Arabic effectively, Arabic teachers also need to concentrate on intentive and encoding behaviour of the speaker/writer (i.e. the learner) since in an act

of communication the learner is influenced by environmental cues as well as by his/her own intentions which may be culturally based.

An act of communication, thus, involves more than knowledge of the code in Arabic. It involves the selection of integral patterns of elements of this code for the expression of an intention (i.e. how to express personal meaning) and the assembling of the necessary features without undue hesitation (i.e. the process of encoding). The process of encoding or the use of communicative abilities, according to Widdowson (1978), needs to be removed from a dependence on linguistic skills in the FL. For interpersonal communication to take place, there are also a number of psychological factors to consider namely: desire to communicate, comprehension as well as skill in expression, emotional and personality factors, and limitations of expression as well as tolerance of errors at the early stages (Rivers 1981:224-7). However, the instruction and practice that the learner receives in class or in a language laboratory can prove useful for facilitating spontaneous expression in Arabic, but ultimately the ability to converse or write in Arabic can be developed only by frequent practice in conversing or writing in Arabic. This would imply the learner's exposure to natural communication in Arabic should be maximized, in the sense that natural communication would mean that the learner focuses on the message being conveyed, not on the linguistic form of that message.

5.5. From Competence and Performance to CC and Actual Communication

In this section, an attempt is made to show how two important terms,

perhaps more important in FL teaching today than any other, originated in language teaching and how they developed over the last two decades. These two terms are known as 'competence' and 'performance', in linguistic terms, and how they have come to mean 'communicative competence' (CC) and 'actual communication', in applied linguistic terms.

It was Chomsky (1965) who introduced the terms 'competence' and 'performance' into modern linguistics mainly in response to and rejection of the behaviourist theories of stimulus-response learning, particularly the Habit-Formation Theory of Skinner (1957). Since then, these terms have been used frequently in discussions of FL teaching approaches. According to Krashen et al (1982:6), Chomsky upset the prevailing belief in the 60s that language is learned by imitating, memorizing and being rewarded for saying the correct things. However, Krashen et al (Ibid.) do not deny that these processes do have some role to play in language learning. Chomsky's (1966:10) basic formulation is that all human beings have internalized a complex "system of rules that relate signals to semantic interpretations of these signals" which can generate all the grammatical sentences of the language and this governs normal language use of native speakers. This is not in dispute here, but what is in dispute among recent applied linguists is the claims Chomsky made in his distinction between 'linguistic competence' and 'linguistic performance'. Campbell and Wales (1970), Greene (1972), Munby (1978), and Canale and Swain (1980) all point out that Chomsky (1965) uses these terms in both a weak and a strong sense. His weak sense of 'competence' refers to knowledge of grammar and other aspects of language, while 'performance' refers to actual use of

the language. Concerning Chomsky's stronger claim, Canale and Swain (1980:3) observe that:

Competence refers to the linguistic system (or grammar) that an ideal native speaker of a given language has internalized whereas performance mainly concerns the psychological factors that are involved in the perception and production of speech, e.g. perceptual parsing strategies, memory limitations, and the like.

Since Chomsky's notion of competence consists only of grammatical competence (i.e. knowledge of the language system), Campbell and Wales (1970:247) point out that his competence omits by far the most important linguistic ability: "to produce or understand utterances which are not so much grammatical but, more important, appropriate to the context in which they are made." Hymes (1972) also takes issue with Chomsky and criticizes his categories of competence and performance for not including contextual appropriateness in his theory and by defining language competence as a somewhat 'Garden of Eden' view for those who are concerned with language as a living thing used by individuals and societies. Hymes (1972:15) made this clear when he stated: "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless." Munby (1978:14) also makes a similar claim in the following statement:

The Chomskyan restriction of the concept of competence to the perfect knowledge of an ideal speaker-listener, in a homogeneous speech community, unaffected by sociocultural or psychological constraints, cannot account for the communicative function of language. Applied linguistics needs a theory that, in Hymes' words,

'can deal with a heterogeneous speech community, differential competence, the constitutive role of sociocultural features', that can cope with phenomena such as White Thunder (a forty-year old Menomini (cited by Bloomfield) who spoke no language tolerably), relativity of competence in two, three or four languages, (e.g. a Western Nigerian Muslim who speaks Hausa, Arabic and English as well as his mother-tongue Yoruba), contextual styles, etc., etc.

Therefore, it is clear that for Hymes, Munby and other applied linguists, Chomsky's narrower linguistic view of competence had to be redefined and enlarged to include the concept of communicative function. This is why Hymes in the mid 60s introduced the new term and named it 'communicative competence' (CC). Canale and Swain (1980:4) also agree with both Hymes and Campbell and Wales (1970) by proposing a broader notion of competence, that of CC, which includes not only grammatical competence (or explicit or implicit knowledge of the rules of grammar) but also contextual or sociolinguistic competence (knowledge of the rules of language use). But some applied linguists in recent times exclude grammatical (or linguistic) competence from the notion of CC and in so doing regard the grammatical as a non-essential component of CC. However, the view that CC should include grammatical competence is gaining in popularity and Canale and Swain (1980:5) argue very strongly for it:

Just as Hymes (1972) was able to say that there are rules of grammar that would be useless without rules of language use, so we feel that there are rules of language use that would be useless without rules of grammar.

But, nevertheless, they (Ibid.) still agree with Widdowson (1978) that in normal conversation native speakers will focus more on language use (the message) than on grammar. This is basically what the CA is all about: i.e. the concentration on the message by learners will help them internalize the linguistic forms required for this message in Arabic, through maximum exposure to natural language use in realistic situations and authentic communication purposes.

For Canale and Swain (1980:6), therefore, the term CC refers minimally to the relationship and interaction between grammatical and sociolinguistic competence. They refer to communicative performance as "the realization of these competencies and their interaction in the actual production and comprehension of utterances (under general psychological constraints that are unique to performance)". They have also distinguished CC from communicative performance mainly for the purposes of teaching methodology and testing and their reason for this is that "one cannot directly measure competence: only performance is observable" (Ibid.). Since the terms 'performance' or 'communicative performance' have been a source of much confusion in applied linguistics chiefly because of Chomsky's (1965:6) introduction of the strong and weak senses of the terms 'competence' and 'performance', Canale (1983:5) proposes the use of the term 'actual communication' instead of the terms performance or communicative performance. Regardless of this shift in terminology, the view in Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983:5) is that: "CC is an essential part of actual communication but is reflected only indirectly, and sometimes imperfectly (e.g. in random and inadvertent slips of the tongue, mixing

of registers) due to general limiting ... psychological and environmental conditions such as memory and perceptual constraints, fatigue, nervousness, distractions and interfering background noises."

Since all FL teaching programmes must include assessment and testing procedures, it seems only logical that a theory of CC should include a theory of actual communication. Chomsky and other descriptive linguists regard the phenomena of actual communication as something that is outside the domains of linguistic theory, but for applied linguistics this is not so. Thus, Wiemann and Backlund (1980:188) observe that: "unlike the linguistic view of competence and performance, the communication view considers performance as part of competence - not as a separate concept."

This view is also reflected in Habermas's (1972) definition of CC:

L2 Communicative Competence is a socio-linguistic strategy useful for helping the L2 user develop an 'interlanguage', which allows for meaningful communication in the TL between native/non-native interlocutors - it should prepare the L2 user for a better cultural understanding, a realistic ability to negotiate as well as the capacity for linguistic flexibility (both spoken and written).⁽¹⁾

(1) The term 'interlanguage' refers to the interim process whereby the learner develops a particular kind of intermediate Arabic which may be influenced by L1 interference (i.e. structure, style, etc.). It is, in fact, the learner's temporary version (or permanent, depending on the achievement in higher stages of learning) of Arabic which deviates from that of a native speaker in certain ways. See Selinger (1972), for more details on the interlanguage process.

5.6. Theories of Communicative Competence (CC)

In order to arrive at an adequate theory of CC, it is necessary and beneficial to consider briefly some of the theories of CC that have been proposed recently. In considering these theories, only those that include the important and necessary aspects of CC and their components are discussed. As in Canale and Swain (1980), first the theories of basic communication skills, then the more comprehensive sociolinguistic and integrative theories of CC are considered.

5.6.1. Theories of Basic Communication Skills

Most theories of basic communication skills tend to be designed more for general FL programmes than for specific ones (such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in science, commerce, industry, research, etc.). Canale and Swain (1980:9) characterize a theory of basic communication skills as: "one that emphasizes the minimum level of (mainly oral) communication skills needed to get along in, or cope with, the most common L2 situations the learner is likely to face." In spite of this characterization, they find that much of the research on basic communication skills tend to put less emphasis on two important aspects of CC: knowledge of the sociocultural contextual appropriateness of utterances and knowledge of discourse.

However, Canale and Swain (Ibid.) point out that perhaps the clearest statement of basic communication skills is provided by van Ek (1976) who

developed a 'Threshold Level'⁽¹⁾ as an objective for FL learning based on a model of descriptions of such objectives. The 'Threshold Level', in van Ek's (1984:79) words is:

... a detailed specification of what learners will be able to do in the FL, with, in addition, recommendations as to which words and grammatical structures may most economically enable them to do what is specified in the main (behavioural) part of the objective.

Although the 'Threshold Level' is a provisional specification of van Ek's model, it still provides a high degree of explicitness and "forms the basis for experimentation, innovation, and, in some cases, curriculum reform in various European countries" (Ibid. 81). Basically his model describes the various situations needed in general terms which include 'language functions'⁽²⁾ (or communicative functions) and 'notions',⁽³⁾ and considers what linguistic forms must be known to give expression to these functions and notions. These linguistic forms (words and grammatical

(1) The 'Threshold Level' was developed in the framework of the Modern Languages Project of the Council of Europe. For more details, see p.213 above.

(2) Language functions, as defined by van Ek (1984), are what people do by means of language, e.g. apologizing, requesting, expressing doubt, etc.

(3) Notions are semantic concepts, and the relations between them, which people use in verbal communication. They are, in fact, abstract relations such as dative and objective relations (as opposed to concrete relations when we speak of objects such as cars and houses).

structures) are fully related to and directly derived from behavioural specifications and are not considered "only in second place," as argued by Canale and Swain (1980:9). Some of the situations listed in van Ek's (1984:86-112) model of behavioural specifications follows:

1. General Language Functions: These include expressing and finding out intellectual, emotional and moral attitudes; imparting and seeking factual information; getting things done by someone (Suasion) and ... socializing.
2. Specific Language Functions: These include the above general functions but each one is specified. For example, under the heading, 'expressing and finding out emotional attitudes' are: expressing pleasure, dislike, surprise, hope, fear, want, etc.
3. General Notions: These include notions, entities, properties, qualities and relations. Each notion is specified in detail.
4. Specific Notions: These are derived from the topics (below) and they include personal identification, profession, occupation, etc.
5. Topics: These include home, travel, entertainment, food and drink, services, etc.
6. Roles: These include social roles namely stranger/friend, patient/doctor, etc., and psychological roles such as neutrality, sympathy, equality and antipathy.
7. Settings: These include school, outdoors, foreign country, etc.

In spite of these specifications, Canale and Swain (1980:10) observe that

"there is no description of any rules of language use bearing on the appropriateness of utterances, even though factors such as role, topic, setting, notion, and function are considered in the model."

However, they (Ibid.) suggest that it is important to consider two principles concerning the theoretical bases of the theories of basic communication skills which are:

- (i) whether or not these theories can be said to specify a minimum level of communication skills; and
- (ii) whether or not more effective L2 learning takes place if emphasis is put from the beginning on getting one's meaning across, and not on the grammaticalness and appropriateness of one's utterances.

In applying these two principles on some empirical data from the field of language testing bearing on the theories of basic communication skills and other studies, ⁽¹⁾ Canale and Swain (1980:14-5) come to the following conclusion which can be considered as certain aspects of their view of the theories of basic communication skills:

1. Emphasis on both Grammatical Accuracy and Meaningful Communication

"There seem to be no strong theoretical reasons for emphasizing getting one's meaning across over grammatical accuracy at the early stages of L2 learning."

However, they point out that these findings must not be interpreted to mean that grammatical accuracy should be emphasized over getting one's

- (1) These include studies on the psychological notion of the 'Threshold Level'; on childhood learning of L1; on adolescent and adults learning of L2; on learners errors and on universal conditions of appropriateness.

meaning across since there is evidence against this view from a number of sources. What is suggested is that there should be some combination of emphasis on grammatical accuracy and emphasis on meaningful communication from the very start of a L2 programme.

2. Early stages: Communicating more important than appropriateness

"There seems to be some reason to emphasize getting one's meaning across (or communicating) over explicit concerns about appropriateness (of one's utterances) at the early stages of L2 study."

Their primary motivation for this view is the assumption that the appropriateness conditions that hold for the most common communicative functions differ little from language to language in certain fundamental respects. They suggest that meaningful communication should be generally organized according to the basic communication needs of the learner and the communicative functions and social contexts that require the least knowledge of idiosyncratic appropriateness conditions in the L2.

3. CA ensures Communication Skills but a Grammatical Approach does not

"Finally, it would seem that unless a (basic, at least) CA is adopted for the classroom, there is little reason to expect that students will acquire even basic communication skills in a L2."

They point out that basic CAs such as the one adopted by Savignon (1972) would seem to be just as effective as grammatical approaches in

developing grammatical competence and more effective than grammatical approaches in developing CC. ⁽¹⁾

5.6.2. Sociolinguistic Theories of CC

Generally, research on CC from sociolinguistic perspectives has been of a more theoretical and analytic nature than work on basic communication skills. Since the work of Halliday and Hymes (as mentioned earlier in this chapter) in particular has inspired many of the CAs in recent years, it is necessary to examine some of the assumptions and components of their theories of language in its social context. Munby (1978:22) observes that both of them contribute major insights for the formulation of a theoretical framework of CC. "In particular, Hymes spotlights the vital factor of contextual (sociocultural) appropriacy and Halliday brings out the sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge. Both these factors have important pedagogic implications" (Ibid.).

For, Canale and Swain (1980:15), two aspects of Hymes' research are of particular interest: his theory of CC and his analysis of the ethnography of speaking. As noted earlier (5.5), Hymes rejected Chomsky's view of

(1) The CA adopted by Savignon (1972) includes grammatical skills (e.g. pronunciation, vocabulary, etc.); communicative tasks with respect to particular communicative functions (e.g. greeting, leave-taking, information-getting/giving, etc.); and other factors such as willingness to express oneself in the FL; resourcefulness in making use of limited grammatical skills and knowledge of kinesic and paralinguistic features of the FL (e.g. gestures and facial expressions).

competence because it was restricted only to grammatical competence and he proposed a theory of competence which includes the language user's knowledge of the rules of language use and the ability to use these rules. Therefore, Hymes (1979:19) recasts the notion of competence to include CC in the following statement:

If an adequate theory of language users and language use is to be developed, it seems that judgements must be recognised not of two kinds (i.e. grammaticality and acceptability) but of four. And if linguistic theory is to be integrated with theory of communication and culture, this fourfold distinction must be stated in a sufficiently generalized way. I suggest, then, that for language and other forms of communication (culture), four questions arise:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used or evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

Thus, for Hymes, CC involves the interaction of four types of knowledge and abilities. Munby (1978:15) summarizes the formulation of Hymes as reflecting the speaker-hearer's four areas of CC:

1. grammatical - formally possible,
2. psycholinguistic - feasibility in terms of human information processing,
3. sociocultural - social meaning or value of a given utterance,
4. probabilistic subsystems - actually occurring.

An important exception made here by Canale and Swain (1980:16) is that psycholinguistic competence should not necessarily be included in a model of CC for FL teaching, since psychological factors such as memory constraints and perceptual strategies would seem to impose themselves in a natural and universal manner for FL teaching rather than require conscious learning on the part of the learner. However, they (Ibid.) note that these factors may still be relevant to communicative syllabus design: for instance, concerning the sequencing of grammatical structures.

Turning now to the second part of Hymes' work. His analysis of 'The Ethnography of Speaking' (1968) is, in fact, a detailed description of sociocultural competence (i.e. the third component of his above definition of CC). Sociocultural competence refers to the appropriateness of a given utterance in a particular social context, i.e. the contextual appropriacy of utterances. Clark (1984:165) observes that: "Hymes following in the footsteps of Malinowski and Firth, attempted to pick out those features of a context that affect the choice of language." Hymes (1968), therefore, analyzes speech events in terms of their features or constitutive components into the following twelve types:

1. the participants - e.g. speaker and hearer, sender and receiver;
2. the physical setting - i.e. the time and place;
3. the scene - psychological or cultural;
4. the topic - i.e. what the message is about;
5. the purpose - i.e. goal, intention;
6. the code - i.e. language or variety within a language;

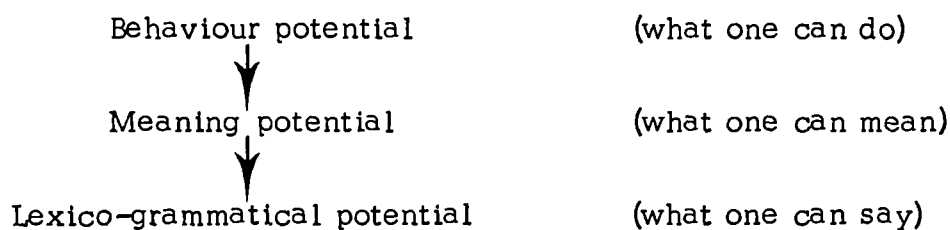
7. the attitudinal key - e.g. mock, serious;
8. the actual form of a message - i.e. a linguistic description;
9. the channel of communication - oral or written;
10. the norms of interaction - e.g. loudness of voice, when and how to interrupt, physical distance between participants;
11. the norms of interpretation - i.e. how different interaction or violations of them are interpreted; and
12. the genre or style - e.g. casual speech, poem, prayer, letter.

From speech events such as these, sociolinguistic research can establish what a speaker needs to know to communicate effectively in culturally significant settings. Thus, by his enlargement of a theory of CC and by his analysis of speech events, Hymes points the way to the necessary expansion of what a FL or L2 teaching programme must entail.

Halliday, on the other hand, reaches similar conclusions to Hymes but through a different route. As noted earlier, Halliday was strongly influenced by both Malinowski and Firth who were pioneers in developing a theory of 'context of situation'. Halliday (1978) concentrates on the sociosemantic aspects of language and language use to account for the language functions realized by speech. Central to this issue is his development of 'meaning potential'⁽¹⁾ approach to language which he

(1) Halliday (1978:21) fully defines the term 'meaning potential' as:
 Language is being regarded as the encoding of a 'behaviour potential' into a 'meaning potential'; i.e. as a means of expressing what the human organism 'can do', in interaction with other human organisms, by turning it into what he

considers "as sets of options, or alternatives, in meaning, that are available to the speaker-hearer" (Halliday 1979:27). These sets of options are involved in the process of language production in which a social system determines sets of 'behavioural options' which are realized as sets of 'semantic options' which in turn are realized as 'grammatical options'. For a clearer understanding, it is useful to represent Halliday's views in the following hierarchical stages (as in Yalden 1983:67):



These stages display systemic options at the disposal of the speaker. Each stage represents networks of systems and the choice of options at each stage will determine what actually occurs in verbal expression.

Concerning the similarities between the views of Halliday and Hymes, Halliday (1971) observes that his approach to linguistic interaction represented by his term 'meaning potential' is not unlike Hymes' notion of 'CC', but that Hymes defines this in terms of 'competence' in the Chomskyan sense of the speaker knows, whereas he is talking of a

'can mean'. What he can mean (the semantic system) is, in turn, encoded into what he 'can say' (the lexico-grammatical system, or grammar and vocabulary); to use our own folk-linguistic terminology, meanings are expressed in wordings. Wordings are, finally, recoded into sounds or spellings (the phonological and orthographic systems).

potential (what one can do, in the special linguistic sense of what one can mean) and thus avoiding the additional complication of a distinction between 'doing' and 'knowing'. Munby (1978) argues against this view of Halliday by noting that: "this appears to be a misleading representation of Hymes in that although Hymes does retain the notion of competence, he completely recasts it to include much more than Chomsky's 'knows', so that the resultant CC is in fact not unlike the notion of meaning potential, as Halliday remarks before severely qualifying his statement." However at a later date, according to Yalden (1983:63), in 1976 Halliday stated that the term 'meaning potential' was what he understood by Hymes' 'CC', except that he preferred his own term (for reasons just mentioned above, i.e. his interest in what the speaker can do, not in what he knows). Canale and Swain (1980:39) also observe that the models of language and communication proposed by both Hymes and Halliday are quite similar, except that Hymes (especially Hymes 1972) adopts a more psychological approach to the problem and Halliday, a more sociological one. This is a reasonable assumption to make since the general North American view of language and language learning is inclined more towards psycholinguistics (although Hymes is an exception because his work is mainly sociolinguistic and only partly psycholinguistic) whereas the European view, represented by Halliday, is inclined more towards sociolinguistics (or language as it is used in society, i.e. the interpersonal level). In recent years, these two important view-points from both sides of the Atlantic have begun to merge. This could prove vital to our future understanding of the language learning process and how it is used in society.

Since both Hymes and Halliday have been principally concerned with the interaction of social context, grammar and meaning (particularly, social meaning), Canale and Swain (1980:19) find that the sociolinguistic work of both Hymes and Halliday is important to the development of a CA. But, on the other hand, they also find that there is still little known about rules of language use and about the manner in which and extent to which semantic aspects of utterances are determined (and grammatical forms selected) on the basis of social context and, therefore, they suggest that research in these areas is crucial to the statement of specifications, objectives, and evaluation criteria within a CA.

5.6.3. Integrative Theories of CC

The theories of basic communication skills and sociolinguistics, in the view of Canale and Swain (1980:19-20), cannot be considered as integrative theories of CC since they devote relatively little attention to how individual utterances or texts may be linked at the level of discourse and they do not provide for an integration of the different components of CC.⁽¹⁾ However, they provide the following basic definition of what an integrative theory should consist of (Ibid.):

An integrative theory of CC may be regarded as one in which there is a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical

(1) Integrative theories of CC are discussed in the following works: Allen (1978), Allen and Widdowson (1975), Brumfit (1984), Candlin (1978), Johnson (1982), Johnson and Morrow (1981), Morrow (1977), Munby (1978), Savignon (1983), Shaw (1975), Stern (1978, 1983), Widdowson (1975, 1978), Wilkins (1976) and Yalden (1983).

principles, knowledge of how language is used in social contexts to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse.

A theory of CC may also be considered as integrative if it focuses on the four basic language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, rather than on a few of these skill areas. Concerning this, Widdowson (1978:142) observes that: "effective teaching of language as communication calls for an integrated approach which represents different skills and abilities as aspects of a singly underlying activity."

The most comprehensive integrative theory of CC put forward so far, according to Canale and Swain (1980:20), is that proposed by Munby (1978). Munby's model of CC in his theoretical framework consists of three major components (1978:22-7):

1. A Sociocultural Orientation: This component includes such areas as competence in a heterogeneous speech community, contextual appropriacy, and the specifications of learners' communication needs. This component is based mainly on the work of Hymes.
2. A Sociosemantic Basis of Linguistic Knowledge: This component deals with language as semantic options derived from the social structure (based on Halliday's concept of 'meaning potential' - in **which** grammatical options are derived from semantic options) and the categories of communicative functions in a CA (based on Wilkins's work on 'notions and functions').

3. Rules of Discourse: The third and last component includes the ability to use linguistic forms to perform communicative acts and to understand the communicative functions of sentences and their relationships to other sentences, and this occurs at the level of discourse (both spoken and written). For this, a knowledge of the rhetorical rules of use; the interpretive strategies of the language user, and the contextual meaning of utterances is needed.

Canale and Swain (1980:21) criticize Munby's second component of CC, i.e. his sociosemantic view of linguistic knowledge. They do not accept the view that grammatical options in the FL are best handled at the early learning stages as arising only from semantic options and indirectly from social behaviour options. They observe that grammatical forms must be screened at some point prior to the final selection of grammatical options, semantic options and social behaviour options. They suggest that this screening must be done in terms of the following six criteria (Ibid.):

1. grammatical complexity - for e.g. the structures and lexical items that must be mastered to produce a given form spontaneously;
2. transparency - with respect to the communicative function of an utterance;
3. generalizability - to other communicative functions;
4. the role of a given form - in facilitating acquisition of another form;
5. acceptability - in terms of perceptual strategies; and
6. degree of markedness - in terms of social and geographical dialects. ⁽¹⁾

(1) For additional criteria and discussion, see Johnson and Morrow (1977) and Morrow (1977).

Canale and Swain (1980:22), therefore, find that in many integrative theories there is a lack of emphasis on the role of factors such as grammatical complexity and acceptability (among other criteria mentioned above) and an overemphasis on the role of communicative functions and social behaviour options in the selection of grammatical forms. Since Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) have worked towards an adequate integrative theory of CC, their work is discussed in detail in the next section of this chapter (5.7).

5.6.4. Observations on the Theories of CC

After discussing the important features of the various theories of CC, it is useful to note here the general comments made by Canale and Swain (1980:25-6) as an observation of these theories of CC, i.e. the theories of basic communication skills, the theories of sociolinguistics and the integrative theories. These general comments are three in all, and they include other relevant work not included by Canale and Swain.

1. Communication Strategies

No theorists of CC, with the exception of Savignon (1972, 1983), Stern (1978, 1979), Clark (1984, 1984a) and Johnstone (1984), have devoted detailed attention to communication strategies (or strategic competence) that speakers employ to handle breakdowns in communication: for example, how to deal with false starts, hesitations, and other performance factors; how to avoid grammatical forms that have not been mastered fully; how to address strangers when unsure of their social status; etc. In other words, how to cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the

communicative channel open. Canale and Swain consider such strategies to be an important aspect of CC that must be integrated with the other components in an adequate theory of CC.

2. Range of Criteria

Few of the theories deal rigorously with a range of criteria sufficiently broad for establishing the sequencing of semantic concepts, grammatical forms and communicative functions in a CC. Each one of these criteria is listed separately for clarity:

- i. **Sequencing of Semantic Concepts:** These concern the learner directly (e.g. notions of time and place). They suggest that for this sequencing reference must be made primarily to theories of cognitive psychology (e.g. Piaget 1954).
- ii. **Sequencing of Grammatical Forms:** They observe that we need mainly theories in the following three areas -
 - (a) **Language:** Those by Chomsky (1965) and Halliday (1973).
 - (b) **Language Acquisition:** Those by Bates (1976), Bloom (1970) and Krashen (1982).
 - (c) **Psycholinguistics:** Those by Fodor, Bever and Garret (1974) and Slobin (1971).
- iii. **Sequencing of Communicative Functions:** It is not clear in the literature how these should be determined. However, they suggest that those functions whose appropriateness conditions are more universal, or at least more similar to those that hold for the learner's NL and culture, may be introduced before those functions having more idiosyncratic appropriateness conditions.

The four other important factors considered by Canale and Swain (Ibid.) for the sequencing of communicative functions are:

- (a) the generalizability of functions from one communicative event to another;
- (b) the complexity of grammatical forms appropriate to express the functions;
- (c) the range of sociolinguistic variables crucially involved in a function; and
- (d) the interrelationships among these sociolinguistic variables that must be known (i.e. the delicacy of content according to Morrow 1977).

Lastly, they observe that the sequencing of behavioural objectives in a CA must be based on the interaction of theories mentioned under this range of criteria.

3. Evaluation Criteria

Little serious attention has been devoted to the criteria for evaluation and levels of achievement/proficiency with respect to a given theory of CC, although relevant work in this area is slowly emerging. Carrol (1978) has suggested some evaluation criteria and definitions of levels based on the notion of 'target level'. He has distinguished three levels of performance (basic, intermediate, and advanced) with respect to the four skill areas of reading, writing, speaking and listening. These levels are defined with reference to ten evaluation criteria: five used mainly in test construction (i.e. size, complexity, range, speed and flexibility) and five used mainly in performance assessment (i.e. accuracy, appropriacy,

independence, repetition, hesitation). Morrow (1977) has suggested the use of discrete-point tests for assessing CC and also the use of 'communication tasks' to serve as integrative tests of the learner's competence to produce and understand actual communication in both the oral and written mode.

Other useful works in the field of testing CC have been proposed in Clark (1972, 1978, 1984), Jones (1977), Oller (1976) and Rivera (1984).

5.7. A Proposed Integrative Model for CC

In this section, the important and contributory research of Canale and Swain (1980) and further extended by Canale (1983) on a theoretical framework for an adequate theory of CC is discussed in detail. Although their theory is a tentative one, it is the most comprehensive, up-to-date and the most clearly defined theory available that could be applied to communicative language teaching in general and in particular to TAFL, but caution needs to be exercised concerning the choice of procedures relevant to Arabic. This section is in two parts: first, a set of guiding principles for a CA is discussed and second, the proposed theoretical framework for CC (which includes the general assumptions and the components of CC) adequate to support such an approach for FL or L2 teaching and testing is presented, together with other recent developments in this area.

5.7.1. Guiding Principles for a CA

Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) propose five important principles that must guide the development of a CA for a general FL

programme. The main goal of such an approach, according to Canale (1983:17), "is to prepare and encourage learners to exploit in an optimal way their limited CC in the L2 in order to participate in actual communication situations." Canale (Ibid.) also finds that the quality of communication at initial stages of L2 learning will depend heavily on three factors:

- i. the learners' CC in their dominant language (NL);
- ii. the teachers' and learners' motivation and attitudes; and
- iii. the effective use of communication strategies by both the learner and other participants in communication situations.

The five guiding principles are as follows:

(1) Coverage of Competence areas

CC must be viewed as minimally including four areas of knowledge, and skill in using this knowledge: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.⁽¹⁾ The inclusion of grammatical or linguistic competence is a basic departure of earlier definitions of CC, since in the view of Canale and Swain (1980:27) there is no empirical evidence that grammatical competence is any more or less crucial to successful communication than is sociolinguistic, discourse or strategic competence. In order to avoid an outcome that is likely to result from an over-emphasis on one area of competence over the others throughout a FL programme, they (Ibid.) note that the primary goal of a CA must be to facilitate the integration of these types of competence for the learner.

(1) The term 'strategic competence' was suggested by Palmer (1978) instead of the term 'communication strategies.'

(2) Communication Needs of Learners

A CA must be based on and respond to the learner's (often changing) communication needs and interests. These must be specified with respect to the following:

- (a) grammatical competence, e.g. the levels of grammatical accuracy required in different situations;
- (b) sociolinguistic competence, e.g. needs relating to settings, topics, communicative functions, etc.;
- (c) discourse competence, e.g. the type of texts to be dealt with; and
- (d) strategic competence, e.g. the compensatory communication strategies to be used when there is a breakdown in one of the other competencies such as verbal paraphrasing of lexical items that have not been mastered sufficiently.

Canale and Swain (*Ibid.*) follow Widdowson (1978) on personal communication by suggesting that communication needs in each of these above areas will be expected to be of two types: first, those that are relatively fixed and terminal and second, those that are transitional and interim, changing with factors such as age of the learners and their stage in the language learning process.⁽¹⁾ However, Canale (1983:18) observes that it is particularly important to base a CA at least in part on the varieties of the FL that the learner is most likely to be in contact with in genuine communicative situations, and on the minimum levels of competence

(1) For more discussion on the stages in the language learning process, see Stern (1979).

that various groups of native speakers (e.g. age and occupational groups) expect of the learner in such situations and that the majority of FL learners may be expected to attain.⁽¹⁾ Finally, methodologies for communication needs analyses have been suggested by Munby (1978), Richterich (1980, 1984) and Yalden (1983).

(3) Meaningful and Realistic Interaction in the FL

The FL learner must have the opportunity to take part in meaningful communicative interaction with highly competent speakers of the language, i.e. to respond to genuine communication needs and interests in realistic FL situations. This principle is a challenging one to teachers as well as programme designers, but is motivated strongly by the theoretical distinction between CC and actual communication. This principle, according to Canale (1983:18-9), is also important not only with respect to classroom activities but to testing as well. For instance, Clark (1972:132) argues that paper-and-pencil tests, tape-recorded listening and speaking tests, and the like do not allow the learner to try out his/her communication skills in a realistic communicative situation and thus cannot have the same psychological and instructional impact as do testing activities that directly involve more authentic and meaningful communicative interaction. Thus, Clark (1972, 1984) calls for the administration of more direct testing procedures (such as testing of role-play tasks, conversation topics, etc.)

(1) For more information on what the majority of learners may be expected to attain in learning a FL, see van Ek (1976) and Breen and Candlin (1980).

and stresses the disadvantages of indirect testing procedures for measuring communication skills. Carrol (1961) and also Oller (1978) have expressed similar points of view. However, Canale and Swain (1980) feel that exposure to realistic communication situations is crucial if CC is to lead to communicative confidence.

(4) The Learner's Native Language Skills

Particularly at the early stages of FL learning, optimal use must be made of those communication skills that the learner has developed through acquisition and use of the NL (or dominant language) and that are common to those communication skills required in the FL. For example, an adult or adolescent learner of Arabic possesses a higher degree of communicative knowledge and abilities in the NL (such as the psychological and social experience of expressing personal meaning, negotiation, enquiring, etc.) than say a child in primary school, therefore, the learner's NL knowledge needs to be utilized and not neutralized when he/she is learning Arabic. As Breen and Candlin (1980:93) observe: "In the past, it seemed easier to somehow separate the learner from the knowledge to be learned - to 'objectify' the target language as something completely unfamiliar to the learner," and thus treat the learner as a naive communicator or someone who evaluates communication in only a superficial way. Widdowson (1978:74) argues for the 'transference of abilities' that have already been acquired (NL) into a different means of expression (FL). For the presentation and practice of the FL, Canale and Swain (1980:28) propose that the more arbitrary and less universal aspects of communication in the FL (e.g. certain features of the grammatical code such as vocabulary) be presented

and practised in the context of less arbitrary and more universal aspects (e.g. the fundamental appropriateness conditions in making a request, the sociolinguistic rules involved in greeting a peer in Arabic, etc.).

(5) A Curriculum-Wide Approach

The primary objective of a communication-oriented FL programme must be to provide the learners with the information, practice and much of the experience needed to meet their communication needs in the FL. In addition, learners should be taught about language in general primarily (although not exclusively) in the L1 programme, i.e. taught, e.g. about grammatical categories, communicative functions, appropriateness conditions, rules of discourse, and registers. The learner should also be taught about the FL culture primarily (although not exclusively) through the social studies programme in order to provide them with the sociocultural knowledge of the FL group that is necessary in drawing inferences about the social meanings or values of utterances (Widdowson 1978). It is felt that such a curriculum-wide approach to the development of CC in the FL may facilitate a natural integration of knowledge of language in general, knowledge of the FL, knowledge of the FL culture and also continued study of the FL. ⁽¹⁾

5.7.2. Theoretical Framework for CC

This sub-section on a theoretical framework for CC is divided into two

(1) For further discussion on continued study and 'lifelong education', see Savignon (1972, 1983), van Ek (1976) and van Ek and Trim (1984).

parts. The first part, deals with the general assumptions made by Canale and Swain concerning the nature of language and a theory of CC, and the second, discusses Canale and Swain's components of CC in detail together with other recent and relevant developments in this area.

5.7.2.1. General Assumptions

These general assumptions are four in all and they concern the nature of communication, negotiation of meaning, information gap and the interaction between other systems of knowledge. Although there may be other general assumptions derived from the CA which have a direct bearing on this theoretical framework, these seem to be the most important that deserve mention here. Each one of these is briefly discussed below.

(i) Nature of Communication

Concerning the nature of communication, Canale (1983:3-4) follows Breen and Candlin (1980), Morrow (1977) and Widdowson (1978) by observing that communication is understood in the context of communicative language pedagogy to have the following seven features or characteristics:

- (a) Communication is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;
- (b) It involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message (content);
- (c) It takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances;

- (d) It is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions;
- (e) It always has a purpose (e.g. to establish social relations, to persuade, to promise, etc.);
- (f) It involves authentic, as opposed to textbook-contrived language; and
- (g) It is judged successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes and not on correctness (e.g. communication could be judged successful in the case of a non-native Arabic speaker who trying to find the train station in Rabat, uttered incorrectly 'كيف أمشي قطار؟' to a passer-by, and was given directions to the train station).

(ii) Negotiation of Meaning

Canale and Swain (1980:29) assume with Candlin (1978) that the relationship between a proposition (i.e. the literal meaning of an utterance) and its social meaning is variable across different sociocultural and discourse contexts, and that communication involves the continued evaluation and negotiation of social meaning on the part of the participants. This is done in line with the integrative theories of CC (as discussed above, in 5.6.3) and involves the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols; oral, written and visual modes; and productive and receptive comprehension processes.

(iii) Information Gap

Canale and Swain (Ibid.) agree with Palmer (1978) that authentic communication involves a 'reduction of uncertainty' on behalf of the participants; for instance, a speaker or student asking a (non-rhetorical) question, such as: 'من أخذ الكرة اليوم؟', will be uncertain as to

the answer but this uncertainty will be reduced when the answer is provided. In other words, for authentic communication to take place there has to be an 'information gap' in the communication process so that the participants have a choice in choosing the message that they want to put across (i.e. the concept of selection). The concept of doubt and the concept of selection is closely linked and crucial in conveying information. Concerning this Cherry (1957:168) observes that: "information can be received only when there is doubt; and doubt implies the existence of alternatives - where choice, selection or discrimination is called for." The importance of doubt in communicative processes is also recognized by Johnson (1982:151-2) who states: "the existence of doubt is a vital prerequisite to fluency practice." In the classroom application of this principle, communicative techniques of providing information to some students and withholding it from others is one of several ways of creating an information gap. After all, the purpose of communication in real life is to bridge this information gap.

(iv) Interaction with other systems of Knowledge and Skill

Finally, it is assumed by Canale (1983:6) that this theory of CC interacts in as yet unspecified ways with systems of knowledge and skill as well as with a theory of human action (dealing with such factors as volition and personality). Knowledge, for example, refers to what one knows (consciously and unconsciously, e.g. grammar and vocabulary) about Arabic and about other aspects of communicative language use; and skill refers to how the learner of Arabic can exploit this knowledge in actual communication manifested through the four basic language skills of

listening, speaking and reading and writing Arabic. Furthermore, it is assumed that the interaction of knowledge and skill in CC with other systems of knowledge (e.g. world knowledge) is observable only indirectly in actual communication.

5.7.2.2. Components of CC

The components of CC that are discussed here are those proposed by Canale (1983), a further development of that first put forward by Canale and Swain (1980). The more recent work of Clark (1984) and Johnstone (1984) and others in this area is also considered. This framework minimally includes four main areas of competence: grammatical (linguistic) competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse (rhetorical) competence and strategic competence. Competence, in each of these components, refers to the knowledge as well as the skills that enable one to use this knowledge in actual communication. These components of CC can be applied to the teaching and testing of Arabic as a FL or L2, in line with the five guiding principles for a CA (5.7.1) and the four general assumptions of CC (5.7.2.1) discussed above. The CA that Canale and Swain envisage for FL teaching and testing is thus an integrative one. Their research in developing this theoretical framework for CC owes much to the important and pioneering foundation-work in the development of communicative language teaching theory laid by the works of the following applied linguists: Allen and Widdowson (1975), Halliday (1970), Hymes (1967, 1968, 1972), Johnson (1977), Morrow (1977), Stern (1978), Wilkins (1976) and Widdowson (1978).

5.7.2.2.1. Linguistic or Grammatical Competence (LC)

Linguistic competence is concerned with the mastery of the language system or the language code itself (verbal and non-verbal). Since this term is concerned with the mastery of the language system, it can also be referred to as 'systemic competence' (Johnson 1982:8). LC in Arabic would consist of knowledge of phonological rules, graphological rules, orthographic rules, morphological rules, vocabulary, syntactic rules and linguistic semantic rules which determine the literal meanings of sentences.

LC as part of CC focuses directly on not only the linguistic knowledge but also the linguistic skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances or sentences and, as such, it is an important concern of any Arabic language course. Thus, LC concentrates mainly on the question of accuracy or correctness, or فصاحة in Arabic (cf. 5.2. for discussion). In this framework, LC is included within a theory of CC and is an inseparable part of it, whereas, earlier definitions of CC did not give much prominence to it mainly because of the sudden and sole focus of attention on only communicative functions and abilities. However, Canale (1983:7) points out that it is still not clear that any current theory of grammar can be selected over others to characterize this competence nor in what ways a theory of grammar is directly relevant for FL pedagogy.

To shed some light on this latter concern, we now turn to the work of Clark (1984:161-70) for a few important observations. Firstly, Clark

mentions that recent research evidence (Corder 1981) from both MT learning and FL learning suggests that the sequence in which learners internalize elements of LC may not be something that the teacher can control. Corder (1981) shows that learners who learn the same FL develop their grammatical competence in a remarkably similar order, whatever their original MT. Clark (Ibid.) further observes that this research seems to indicate that there may be some sort of natural sequence in the internalization of some of the grammatical aspects of LC in each language (which is yet to be discovered). If this could be discovered for Arabic, it would be a useful tool to apply for teaching purposes especially for short courses.

Secondly, Clark (1984:163) refers to Krashen's useful and important distinction between 'acquisition' and 'learning' in his 'Monitor Theory' and applies it to FL pedagogy. Krashen (1981) defines 'acquisition' as the subconscious internalization of aspects of a language to which the learner is exposed in real communicative situations, e.g. the way a child acquires his/her MT. He (Ibid.) defines 'learning' as the conscious study, practice and exploitation of bits of language, i.e. the formal learning process of a FL. Clark (Ibid.) observes that the teacher may control to some extent what is 'learnt'; what is acquired would appear to depend on two factors:

- (i) the learner's being exposed to real communication and actively processing it; and
- (ii) the learner's in-built syllabus, i.e. what linguistic information s/he is capable of assimilating and accommodating at the particular time.

Clark gives some credence to Krashen's view that time-constrained understanding and the initiation of spontaneous utterances are dependent upon what has been acquired; "the role of 'learnt' knowledge often being restricted to editing what emerges from the acquired source in order to improve it in circumstances where time permits" (Ibid.). In line with the CA, Clark (Ibid.) then suggests that for classroom application: "we must be concerned with feeding both the learner's acquisition-process and learning-process." If we accept this, then, he argues that we must re-structure our classroom practices to include a great deal more of FL teacher talk and more authentic spoken and written material to which learners can respond in an authentic way, and thus in doing so the acquisition-process is fed.

5.7.2.2.2. Sociolinguistic Competence (SLC)

SLC is defined as the knowledge of rules governing the production and interpretation of language in different sociolinguistic contexts. Thus, this component addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic or sociocultural contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction.⁽¹⁾ SLC is derived mainly from the work of Halliday and Hymes on a sociolinguistic

(1) Since SLC is concerned with appropriacy and appropriacy has been equated to بلاغة in Arabic in previous discussions (in 3.2. and 5.2. above), بلاغة is directly related to SLC in Arabic but in yet unspecified ways.

theory of CC (as discussed above in 5.5.2).

Appropriateness of utterances, from the above definition of SLC, refers to both appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form.

Appropriateness of meaning concerns the extent to which particular communicative functions (e.g. commanding, complaining, inviting), attitudes (including politeness and formality) and ideas are judged to be proper in a given situation. For instance, it would generally be inappropriate for a salesman in a store to command a customer what to buy regardless of how the utterance and communicative function (a command) were expressed grammatically.

Appropriateness of form, on the other hand, concerns the extent to which a given meaning (including communicative functions, attitudes and ideas) is represented in a verbal and/or non-verbal (or extra-linguistic) form that is proper in a given sociolinguistic context.⁽¹⁾ Appropriateness of forms is quite different in different languages and cultures. For example, Clark (1980:166) observes that the use of the command form in the German language (in shops, restaurants, etc.) appears to be rude in British culture and apologies for Israelis apparently seem difficult, since this involves losing face. Clark (1984:162) notes that: "appropriacy of language in certain sensitive areas (requests, apologies, when to speak and when not to speak, formal/informal situations, etc.) is more vital to

(1) For more information on the extra-linguistic factors of Arabic, see the introduction to Arabic semantics in Chapter Two (2.2.4).

"successful" communicative performance in terms of native-speaker tolerance than certain linguistic errors hitherto thought of as 'serious'." He (Ibid:166) goes on to observe that if things are so complex in similar cultures (as in the case of German and British), then, in cultures quite dissimilar very little can be taken for granted. This is true in the case of Arabic, since its language and culture is very different from the English language and its culture. Therefore, English speakers need to be aware of the sociolinguistic and sociocultural appropriateness conditions of utterances in the Arabic language if they are aiming towards native fluency or CC in Arabic.

LC alone is no longer recognized as sufficient for foreigners wishing or needing to interact with native Arab speakers. For meaningful communication to take place between foreigners and Arabs, learners of Arabic also need sociolinguistic and/or sociocultural information, or information on what Hymes (1979) calls "rules of speaking." Only then will learners of Arabic be able to communicate and understand an intended message without risking a misunderstanding of what they say in Arabic or what is said to them. For instance, modes of address in Arabic are quite complex and present a problem for foreigners. How a foreigner addresses an Arab is not a purely linguistic phenomenon; it also reflects a social aspect of behaviour. Aziz (1984:1026) observes that: "for an Arab deference has priority over intimacy." Thus, older people are never addressed by their first names; instead, if the relationship is formal, official or inherited titles may be used such as **أستاذ** so and so or **أبو فراس** and the like, while if the relationship is informal and close,

a kinship term may be used namely **عم** or **خال**. Female names are even more problematic: Mrs. (Miss) Jackson sounds odd to an Arab; he expects a female title to be used with a female name, e.g. Mrs. (Miss) Lynda. In addressing religious men and dignitaries, **أنتم** is used instead of **أنت**. An elderly person may refer to a young person as **ابني** or **بنتي** and so on. In addition to modes of address, there are other aspects of verbal and non-verbal (extra-linguistic) communication patterns followed by Arabs that need to be known by foreign learners of Arabic such as manners, values, interaction patterns, the use of gestures and facial expression in conveying lexical meaning, etc. ⁽¹⁾ In order to understand some of the rules of speaking in Arabic, D'Amico-Reisner (1984:1439) of the University of New Haven (USA) has analyzed Saudi Arabian telephone talk to contribute towards our cross-cultural knowledge which would be helpful to non-Arab learners of Arabic.

The notion of appropriateness of form includes what Richards (1981) and others have called 'interactional competence', which addresses appropriateness of kinesics and proxemics. These subject areas are more commonly known as paralinguistics or paralanguage, which is the use of non-verbal or extra-linguistic symbols in conveying a message such as the use of gestures, facial expression, body movements, changes in breathing, length of pause and so on. ⁽²⁾ The importance of

(1) For some teaching methods and goals in teaching Arabic values and norms, see Harb (1983).

(2) For more information on paralinguistics, see also Rivers (1981:154) and Widdowson (1978:99-100).

paralinguistic communication is stated very explicitly by Abercrombie (1973:31): "We speak with our vocal organs, but we converse with our entire bodies." These paralinguistic means and features of non-verbal behaviour differ from language to language and even from culture to culture. These need to be investigated in Arabic and exploited for teaching purposes. For example, the English language relies more on intonation patterns than on paralinguistic features as compared to European languages particularly German.⁽¹⁾ Concerning the importance of paralinguistic features, Rivers (1981:154) observes that: "no full comprehension of oral communication is complete without taking these aspects into consideration as further delimitations of the message."

5.7.2.2.3. Discourse or Rhetorical Competence (DC)

DC concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres or styles, as opposed to sentences in isolation. This third component of CC has come in to the limelight in compliance with the changing view of what constitutes the unit of a language. The basic unit of a language has in the theories changed through the centuries from the word, to the sentence and recently to discourse or text. Genres refers to different types of text: for example, oral or written narrative, a scientific report, an argumentative essay, a business letter or a set of instructions, each

(1) Haag (1984) reports, for instance, that many students confuse NL (English) paralinguistic features with FL (German) ones or they misuse the FL features themselves and, therefore, are misunderstood by native speakers.

representing a different style. Since DC is concerned with language at the textual level, this component of CC is also referred to as 'textual competence.'

The clearest and most directly applicable description of discourse for FL teaching is that discussed by Widdowson (1978:Ch.2). Widdowson makes a fundamental distinction between 'cohesion' and 'coherence' in spoken and written discourse. Canale and Swain (1980:20) observe that until more clear-cut theoretical statements about rules of discourse emerge, it is perhaps most useful to think of these rules in terms of Widdowson's distinction. According to this distinction, unity of a text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning (Widdowson 1978:52). Cohesion in form deals with how utterances are linked structurally and it facilitates interpretation of a text, i.e. the grammatical links; for example, the use of cohesive devices namely pronouns, synonyms, conjunctions, ellipsis⁽¹⁾ and parallel structures. These cohesive devices serve to relate individual utterances and also to indicate how a group of utterances is to be understood (logically or chronologically) as a text. Coherence in meaning, on the other hand, refers to the relationships among different meanings in a text which may be literal meanings, communicative functions or attitudes.⁽²⁾

- (1) Ellipsis or اسقاط in Arabic is the omission of a grammatical element that has been expressed previously: e.g. *علي ليس عنده الكتاب وانا ايضا*.
- (2) For a few remarks on cohesion and coherence in Arabic, see Chapter Two (2.2.4) above: Arabic Semantics, Meaning at the Textual or Discourse Level.

To illustrate this notion, let us take the following simple example in Arabic discourse:

يوسف	:	(سمعت) الهاتف
زينب	:	انا في الحمام
يوسف	:	طيب

In spite of the complete absence of cohesion, a reasonable interpretation can be provided to form a coherent discourse in the sense that the first utterance of *يوسف* functions as a request, that the reply of *زينب* functions as an excuse for not complying with the request of *يوسف*, and that the final remark of *يوسف* is an acceptance of the excuse of *زينب*. Canale (1983:9-10) reports that very insightful discussion of coherence is also provided by Charolles (1978: 11-20), who distinguishes four types of 'meta-rules' for achieving and judging coherence of a text. These 'meta-rules' are: repetition of meaning, to signal continuity; progression of meaning, to indicate development and direction; non-contradiction, to signal consistency; and relevance of meaning, to mark congruity. In Charolles' work also, the role of cohesive devices is to serve such 'meta-rules' of coherence.

It can be argued that this notion of discourse knowledge and skill can be confused with LC and also with SLC. Canale and Swain (1980:30) defend this argument by observing, firstly, that the focus of the rules of discourse in their framework is the combination of utterances and communicative functions and not the grammatical well-formedness of a single utterance nor the sociolinguistic appropriateness of a set of

propositions and communicative functions in a given context.

Secondly, that the rules of discourse will presumably make reference to notions such as topic and comment (in the strict linguistic sense of these terms), whereas, grammatical and sociolinguistic rules will not necessarily do so. Nevertheless, Canale (1983:10) points out that it is not clear in the literature that all discourse rules must be distinguished from grammatical rules (as concerns cohesion) and sociolinguistic rules (as concerns coherence). However, a discussion of the formal distinction between rules of grammar and rules of discourse is provided by Morgan (1981) and Williams (1977).

Instead of using the term DC, Clark (1984:164) prefers to use the term 'rhetorical competence' which seems plausible enough since it reflects insights from speech-act theory⁽¹⁾ and discourse analysis. Clark (Ibid.) defines rhetorical competence as competence that is: "broadly concerned with the language-user's ability to interpret and express intentions in coherent discourse according to the conventions of the discourse-type concerned." He (Ibid.) warns that for teaching and assessment purposes, any idea of concern with individual functions and notions must clearly be avoided since this will not take us very far. In order for a learner to adapt to other interlocutors and link utterances to what has gone before, he (Ibid.) observes that: "we need also to be concerned with how a speaker's intentions are linked together, and linked to the intentions of other interlocutors to create coherent discourse." Clark (1984:165) also

(1) Clark (Ibid.) refers to the speech-act theory of Austin (1962) and the related work of Grice (1975) on conversation.

touches upon the conventions of different discourse types , in particular the differences between spoken and written discourse. (1)

For a clear definition of the rules of rhetoric in Arabic, research in the field of علم البلاغة is needed to provide us with a clearer understanding of what DC or rhetorical competence consists of in the Arabic language and how it can be applied to TAFL. The great works in this area such as دلائل الاعجاز and أسرار البلاغة of عبد القاهر الجرجاني may be directly relevant to rhetorical competence in Arabic since عبد القاهر specifically deals with the concepts of فصاحة or فصحي and بلاغة in his theory of علم البيان which is considered as one of the three sciences of البلاغة . The other two are علم المعاني and علم البديع .

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- (1) Clark (Ibid.) observes that information is presented in quite different ways through speech and through writing in accordance with the different conditions in which they have to be interpreted. In speech, there is the presence of an interlocutor to provide feed-back and intonational clues, but there is also the problem of time-constraints and no chance to review and edit what has gone before. In written language, there is no interlocutor feed-back and punctuation is often an inadequate replacement of intonational clues, but there is no time-constraint and what has gone before can be reviewed and reinterpreted. There are also conventions in conversation which govern turn-taking, topic negotiation and information structuring to make interpretation easy. For more details about these conventions, see Brown and Yule (1983).

The first book of (دلائل الاعجاز) عبد القاهر is mainly concerned with علم المعاني and his second book (أسرار البلاغة) is mainly concerned with علم البيان . Arising from the previous discussions of فصحي and بلاغة , it was suggested that فصحي has a role to play in LC since it is concerned with accuracy and بلاغة has a role to play in SLC since it is concerned with appropriacy, but in DC or rhetorical competence both فصحي and بلاغة need to be combined in a wider application to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different styles .

The science of modern linguistics has proposed the new subject of 'Discourse Analysis' for the formulation of the rules of discourse. Since very little work of this nature has been applied to Arabic, much more research is needed to formulate the rules of Arabic discourse through the analysis of different discourse patterns in Arabic. This may be done, perhaps, in association with علم البلاغة. Canale and Swain (1980:21) report that there are other approaches to the analysis of discourse in the literature (in addition to those mentioned above, i.e. Widdowson, 1978 and Charolles, 1978) and these deserve mention here. Discourse as part of a theory of social interaction in the studies are those on: conversational analysis; analysis of classroom discourse; the definition and classification of speech acts, the role of discourse routines in language acquisition and interpretation of utterances; and the relation between the choice of utterances and social status. However, they (Ibid.) observe that all of this work is still at an embryonic stage. This suggests that there is still much to be discovered through research and empirical data

on DC or rhetorical competence and that a few insights into it all are only just beginning to emerge. This also indicates the complexity of interaction of the various components of CC itself.

5.7.2.2.4. Strategic Competence (SC)

The last component of CC is defined by Clark (1984:166) as simply the inability to cope with one's inadequate linguistic, rhetorical or sociolinguistic competence in the FL; whereas, Canale (1983:10-11) defines SC as composed of mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons:

- (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication (e.g. momentary inability to recall an idea or grammatical form) or due to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of CC; and
- (b) to enhance the effectiveness of communication (e.g. deliberately slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect).

Let us consider a simple example in verbal communication. For instance, how would one interpret the prosodic features in verbal communication of this sentence:

قال سليمان الحكيم محمد يساعدكم

We need to be aware of the stress and pitch patterns in Arabic to interpret this sentence in one of two ways:

١. قال سليمان ، الحكيم محمد يساعدكم

٢. قال سليمان الحكيم ، محمد يساعدكم

Since Clark's description of strategic competence includes, more or less, the same strategies that Canale describes, it is more convenient for purposes of clarity to consider Clark and Hamilton's (1984a:70) well-formulated and exhaustive set of strategies designed for dealing with difficulties in communication. They (Ibid.) outline twelve basic strategies applicable to all levels of learning a FL and these are:

1. Ability to predict the intentions of others, and to know their probable reactions to one's utterances.
2. Ability to infer from the total context what is intended by speaker/writer.
3. Ability to interpret gestures, facial expressions and any other paralinguistic features to help one understand what is said.
4. Ability to use appropriate mime, gestures and facial expressions to help to convey one's intentions.
5. Ability to guess the meaning of an unknown word or phrase from the linguistic context in which it is used.
6. Ability to use knowledge about the relationship between the MT and the FL (if any) to help to infer the meaning of unknown items.
7. Ability to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words through the beginnings of an understanding of word formation in the FL (e.g. roots, stems, affixes, infixes, suffixes, derivations, compounds, etc.).
8. Ability to get someone to spell a name or a word that one cannot grasp.
9. Ability to get someone to repeat, rephrase, simplify what has been said or written so that one can understand it.
10. Ability to find and put together simple linguistic forms in one's language

resource to paraphrase what one wishes to say, whether these forms be standard or learner-variety ones.

11. Ability to use one's knowledge of the relationship between the MT and the FL to create possible foreign words to convey one's meaning.
12. Ability to use one's knowledge of word-formation in the FL to create a possible foreign word to convey one's meaning.

Clark (1984:167) notes that assessors should be aware of such strategies in the assessment and testing of actual communication and give credit to learners who show that they can resort to them, without unduly interrupting the flow of events or annoying the participant. He (Ibid.) observes, further, that downgrading would seem appropriate and inevitable when learners show that they are unable to resort to these strategies, through painful silences and painfully hesitant speech. Other strategies in speech are the ability to cope with background noise, interruptions and other distractions; and the ability to use pause fillers to maintain conversation while searching for ideas or grammatical forms (e.g. the use of ف , و , طبعاً , نعم , على كل حال , etc. in Arabic).

The basic study and reference skills in learning Arabic can also be grouped under SC. These include understanding and use of: reference sources (e.g. dictionaries and grammars); graphic presentation (namely headings, sub-headings, bold print, footnotes, etc.); phonetic transcription and diacritical marks; table of contents and index; cross-referencing; bibliographies; note-taking skills; card catalogue and other library skills necessary for Arabic students to know about. Interesting discussion and

examples of communication strategies can be found in many recent works on the subject such as Stern (1978), Swain (1977), Tarone (1977, 1980) and Terrel (1980). Other studies draw attention to the role of affective variables in contributing to effective communication namely Hinofotis (1981), Lepicq (1980), Wiemann and Backlund (1980) and Wong-Fillmore (1979). For instance, Lepicq (1980) reports that in the view of native speaker judges, learners' confidence in themselves and willingness to communicate can compensate for their difficulties in grammatical accuracy. Johnstone (1984:151) also refers to the role of affective variables and calls them 'affective skills' essential for communication. A number of these 'affective skills' essential for effective communication to take place in FL learning are listed below from Johnstone (Ibid.):

- being relaxed enough to allow utterances to flow fairly freely from the internalized language competence (as opposed to attempting to filter everything in advance);
- being self-confident enough to be prepared to reveal true information (about one's home background, parental occupations, personal likes, dislikes, hang-ups, attitudes, intentions);
- being concentrated, receptive and unselfcentred enough to attend to what the other person says or writes (instead of paying only superficial attention and by superimposing a premature and possibly irrelevant 'personal response' of one's own);
- being outgoing enough to feel at ease when participating in paired or group activity with learners who may not be friends;

- being bold enough to speak (even when this means making mistakes of grammar, pronunciation or social usage that may be noted and perhaps even ridiculed by others);
- being secure enough not to be dismayed when in situations of real language use;
- being enterprising enough to enlist the support of other persons (e.g. teacher, FL assistant, a partner, native speakers of the FL) and to draw on reference-sources such as dictionaries, etc.;
- being co-operative enough to want to help others when they are having difficulty in expressing themselves; and
- being self-critical enough to monitor what one says with precision where this is appropriate (i.e. to be dissatisfied with ineffective communication and to want to express correct meaning).

There would possibly be other affective factors emerging as research, which has barely begun, continues in this area. However, Brown (1981:111) observes that the role of affective or emotional domain of human behaviour is crucial to the successful learning of a L2 and that research findings in the 1980's on affective factors will need to be carefully but cautiously applied to teaching materials and methods. ⁽¹⁾ All these affective factors can safely be grouped under the fourth component of CC, i.e. SC.

(1) See also Rivers (1981:88-90) for the affective element in FL teaching.

Finally, in concluding this last component of CC, Canale (1983:12) makes an important observation. He notes for example, that when a French teacher [or FL assistant] who does not know any English, teaches French as a FL to a group of learners whose NL is English, in order for the French teacher to be understood s/he has to rely on communication strategies (repeat, rephrase, paraphrase and so on) which are crucial for communication to take place at all. The point he makes is this (Ibid.):

If teachers are trained in the use of techniques to make themselves understood in the L2 by learners, then why should learners not also be instructed in such techniques?

There is strong validity for this point from research findings, e.g. Terrel (1980:9) reports that there is a striking resemblance between teachers' speech to L2 learners and the learners' own L2 output. But, in the case of Arabic, are most Arabic teachers trained in the use of communication strategies (including affective or emotional learning strategies, as outlined above) in teaching Arabic? This, most probably, may not be the case and, therefore, a further question needs to be asked high-lighting the importance of teachers' strategic competence in teacher training programmes:

If teachers are not trained in the use of communication strategies, then how can learners of a FL be expected to acquire them?

If most teachers teach Arabic the way they have been taught and if they have learnt Arabic through the G-TM, they would most probably teach it through this method.

This theoretical framework consisting of the four components of CC and the general assumptions about a CA is intended to be applied to the teaching and testing of Arabic in line with the five guiding principles discussed earlier (5.7.1). CC is, therefore, analyzed as composed of several separate components that interact with one another but the manner and order in which they interact has not been considered in detail. This is a matter for the application of the theory to Communicative Language Development (CLD) in Arabic in the areas of syllabus design, teaching methodology, testing, teacher training and materials development. Canale (1983:13-4) suggests that the reasons for distinguishing these particular areas of competence in this theoretical framework can be justified by assuming it as a working hypothesis, since it has been developed on the basis of a careful analysis of empirical and theoretical studies bearing on CC. Thus, this working hypothesis of CC derived from the essential foundation-work of the CA can be used as a practical reference tool in the relevant areas of CLD in Arabic. In its application to Arabic, however, we need to exercise caution by examining the nature of the Arabic language more thoroughly in relation to this working hypothesis and not just accept every new innovation in FL teaching blind-folded, since the teaching of Arabic cannot be precisely equated to the teaching of the European languages. The end-product, for immediate purposes, may result in a conservative application of this working hypothesis to TAFL especially because existing Arabic language departments which teach Arabic traditionally would not be able to bring about rapid radical changes overnight.

5.8. Summary and Conclusion

Since FL teaching in recent times has focussed both on theory and practice as essential activities for an effective FL teaching programme, this chapter discusses mainly a theoretical outline of the CA and the fundamental (minimal) elements necessary for such an outline in relation to Arabic. The foundation on which the CA rests is undoubtedly on the theories of CC and, therefore, these theories are discussed in some detail and a proposed integrative model of CC is considered with a view to its application to the teaching and testing of Arabic as a FL or a L2.

The preview of this chapter notes the current 'revolution' taking place in FL teaching which has resulted in the increase of the number of variables to be considered and a re-examination of teaching objectives and methodology when planning a course. The ability to manipulate the structure of Arabic is considered as only one aspect of what is involved in learning Arabic. The learner of Arabic needs to know the rules of use as well as the rules of grammar. This concept is elaborated in the next section (5.2) on *فصاحة* and *بلاغة* in Arabic, with a few relevant examples. The use of a communicative exercise in Arabic is suggested in Appendix D. In the CA, we find a major shift of emphasis concerning the view of language and its functions and since this shift of emphasis did not spring out of nothing, the historic movement towards this change is traced (5.3). This shift of emphasis has had a great impact on applied linguistics in Britain and elsewhere. The whole question of meaning, context of situation and language functions has been high-lighted by this impact and, thus, language is viewed as communication.

The discussion of the act of communication, in the next section (5.4), notes the emergence of psycholinguistics as a subject and the analyses of acts of communication. An adapted version of Carrol's (1953) organismic communication model is provided for both spoken and written communication in Arabic. This model indicates clearly the crucial elements that have been neglected in an act of communication in the traditional teaching of Arabic, i.e. the intensive and encoding behaviour of the speaker/writer or, in other words, the expression of personal meaning and the process of encoding it for transmission in Arabic. It is suggested that the ability to communicate in Arabic is developed only by frequent practice in its use through maximizing the learner's exposure to natural communication, i.e. focusing on the message being conveyed, not on the linguistic form of that message. The next section (5.5) discusses some of the most important terms in FL teaching: 'competence' and 'performance', and how they have come to mean 'communicative competence' (CC) and 'actual communication' in applied linguistics.

In the next section (5.6), some of the important theories of CC relevant to FL teaching are considered: theories of basic communication skills, sociolinguistic theories and integrative theories of CC. Under the theories of basic communication skills (5.6.1), van Ek's model (1976) of the 'Threshold Level' provides perhaps the clearest statement of basic communication skills, even though no descriptions of any rules of language use for the appropriateness of utterances are provided. Under the sociolinguistic theories of CC (5.6.2), the work of both Hymes and Halliday are considered as fundamental for the formulation of a theoretical

framework of CC. Hymes focuses on the vital factor of contextual (sociocultural) appropriacy, whereas, Halliday concentrates on the sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge. Under integrative theories of CC (5.6.3), it can be noticed that the theories of basic communication skills and sociolinguistics cannot be considered to be integrative, since they devote little attention to how individual utterances may be linked at the level of discourse and they do not provide for an integration of the different components of CC. Among other models of CC, Munby's model (1978) was found to be the most comprehensive integrative theory of CC available. His theoretical framework consists of three major components: a sociocultural orientation, a sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge, and rules of discourse. This section concludes with some observations on the theories of CC (5.6.4). Three important comments made by Canale and Swain (1980) were noted relating to communication strategies, the range of criteria involved in a CA and the necessary evaluation criteria in a CA.

In the final section (5.7), the main part of the chapter, the proposed integrative model for CC put forward by Canale and Swain is discussed in detail. First, the guiding principles necessary for the development of a CA in a general FL teaching programme and relevant to Arabic are considered and, then the theoretical framework for CC. The five guiding principles outlined are (5.7.1):

1. Coverage of competence areas
2. Communication needs of learners
3. Meaningful and realistic interaction in the FL

4. The learner's NL skills
5. A curriculum-wide approach

Under the theoretical framework for CC (5.7.2), firstly, the general assumptions about the nature of language and of a theory of CC are discussed and secondly, the four components of CC. The general assumptions concern (5.7.2.1):

- i. Nature of communication (7 characteristics)
- ii. Negotiation of meaning
- iii. Information Gap
- iv. Interaction with other systems of knowledge and skill

The four components of CC are the final and main end-product of the integrative model for CC and they are directly applicable to the teaching and testing of Arabic as a FL or a L2. These four components of CC identified by Canale and Swain and further elaborated by Clark are:

1. Grammatical or Linguistic Competence - LC (accuracy)

LC is concerned with the mastery of the language system (verbal and non-verbal) and thus, includes the linguistic rules of Arabic namely pronunciation, spelling, writing, vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation and linguistic semantics. The work of Clark (1984) and Krashen (1981) on the 'acquisition' and 'learning' processes are important as far as the relevance of a theory of grammar is concerned for FL pedagogy. LC is, therefore, considered as an essential aspect of CC, whereas earlier definitions of CC did not give much prominence to it. LC can be equated to فصحى, since it is concerned with correctness.

2. Sociolinguistic Competence - SLC (appropriacy)

SLC refers to the knowledge of rules governing the production and interpretation of Arabic in different sociolinguistic contexts. It is chiefly concerned with appropriateness of both meaning and form in different contexts and thus, SLC can be equated to بلاغة, although appropriateness of form also includes the paralinguistic means of communication.

3. Rhetorical or Discourse Competence (DC)

DC concerns the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different styles and thus, both فصحي and بلاغة are needed to be combined in a wider application than LC or SLC. The devices of cohesion and coherence are important in both spoken and written discourse.

4. Strategic Competence (SC) or Communication Strategies

SC refers to the ability to cope with one's inadequate linguistic, rhetorical and sociolinguistic competence in Arabic, as well as difficulties in actual communication. It is suggested that teachers as well as learners of Arabic should be trained in the use of communication strategies.

Since the main output of the proposed integrative model of CC are these four components of CC, the following table (pp. 274-5) provides an overview of some of the knowledge and skill required for each component in the context of a CA. This table can be considered as a tentative outline of communicative objectives in the teaching and testing of Arabic. The table is outlined in terms of both competence areas that teaching and testing must consider and the modes of listening comprehension represented by

(L), speaking (S), reading comprehension (R) and writing (W).

As far as the wider application of this theoretical framework is concerned, in addition to teaching methodology and testing, it can be applied to the other main areas of Arabic language pedagogy: syllabus design, materials development and teacher training. The working hypothesis proposed by Canale and Swain of the four components of CC (including the general assumptions about a CA) together with the five guiding principles provides a base on which to develop a CA for each one of the above five areas of pedagogy in the Arabic language. Finally, it is noted that, for immediate purposes, Arabic language departments may need to apply this working hypothesis conservatively or moderately.

TABLE 3: 4 COMPONENTS OF CC

LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE	SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE	DISCOURSE COMPETENCE	STRATEGIC COMPETENCE
<p>Mastery of language system - Accuracy (verbal and non-verbal)</p> <p>1. <u>Phonological rules</u>: pronunciation, stress, $\langle L, S \rangle$ intonation, etc.</p> <p>2. <u>Graphological rules</u>: writing conventions, punctuations, etc. $\langle R, W \rangle$</p> <p>3. <u>Orthographic rules</u>: graphemes, spelling conventions, $\langle R, W \rangle$ compounds, etc.</p> <p>4. <u>Morphological rules</u>: Word Formation case inflections, derivations, agreements, etc. $\langle L, S, R, W \rangle$</p> <p>5. <u>Vocabulary</u>: common to learners needs, basic meaning of content vocab., items in context, meaning of idioms in context and other vocab. items. $\langle L, S, R, W \rangle$</p>	<p>Mastery of appropriate language use in different sociolinguistic contexts</p> <p>Interpersonal or interactional competence</p> <p>1. <u>Production rules</u>: rules of speaking, rules governing speech events (communicative functions, attitudes, topics):</p> <p>- Expression of appropriate social meanings and forms for different functions and contexts (selected according to learners' needs and interests)</p> <p>- Understanding of appropriate social meanings and forms in different contexts $\langle L, S, R, W \rangle$</p> <p>2. <u>Interpretation rules</u>: Central to SLC are the appropriateness of meaning and forms:</p>	<p>Mastery of how to produce a unified text in different styles</p> <p>Common oral and written discourse selected according to analysis of learners communication needs and interests - central to DC are rules of cohesion and coherence:</p> <p><u>Rules of cohesion</u> - $\langle L, S, R, W \rangle$</p> <p>1. <u>Lexical cohesive devices</u> in context (e.g. repetition of lexical items, synonyms, etc.)</p> <p>2. <u>Grammatical cohesive devices</u> in context (e.g. conjunctions, ellipsis, parallel structures, etc.)</p> <p><u>Rules of Coherence</u></p> <p>1. <u>Oral discourse patterns</u>, e.g. normal progression of meanings (especially</p>	<p>Mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies</p> <p>1. <u>For Grammatical difficulties</u>: - use of reference sources (e.g. dictionary, grammar. $\langle S, R, W \rangle$) - Grammatical and lexical paraphrase $\langle S, W \rangle$ - Requests for repetition, slower speech, clarification $\langle S, L \rangle$ - use of non-verbal symbols (e.g. gestures, drawings) $\langle S, W \rangle$</p> <p>2. <u>For Sociolinguistic difficulties</u> - use of single grammatical form for different communicative functions (e.g. a statement, a question, a promise) $\langle L, S, R, W \rangle$ - use of neutral forms when uncertain of other forms in a given communicative situation $\langle S, W \rangle$</p>

6. Syntactical rules: Sentence Formation

Common sentence and sub-sentence structures selected according to learners communication needs and interests. $\langle \bar{L}, S, R, W \rangle$

7. Linguistic Semantic rules

Literal meaning of sentences with given structure and vocab. in context. $\langle \bar{L}, S, R, W \rangle$

-rules of meaning - how a particular utterance is to be interpreted in a particular context.

-rules of form - which forms are interpreted as appropriate in a given context, non-verbal paralinguistic features of communication. $\langle \bar{L}, S, R, W \rangle$

literal meanings and communicative functions in casual conversation $\langle \bar{L}, S, R \rangle$

2. Written discourse patterns e.g. the normal progression of meanings in a formal or business letter, etc. $\langle \bar{R}, W \rangle$

-use of NL knowledge about appropriate gram. forms or communicative functions in the FL $\langle \bar{L}, S, R, W \rangle$

3. For Discourse difficulties:

-use of non-verbal symbols or emphatic stress or intonation to show cohesion and coherence $\langle \bar{S}, W \rangle$

-use of NL knowledge about oral and written discourse patterns when uncertain of FL discourse $\langle \bar{L}, S, R, W \rangle$

4. For Performance Factors:

-coping with background noise, interruptions, distractions $\langle \bar{S}, \bar{L} \rangle$

-use of pause fillers to maintain conversation while searching for ideas of grammatical forms (e.g. و، ف، نسم، etc.) $\langle \bar{S}, \bar{L} \rangle$

CHAPTER SIX

COMMUNICATIVE SYLLABUS DESIGN

6.1. Preview

The previous chapter provides a working hypothesis of CC derived from the essential foundation-work of the CA. This working hypothesis consists of the four basic components of CC (i.e. LC, SLC, DC and SC) together with the general assumptions and the five guiding principles of a CA. It is suggested that this working hypothesis can be used as a practical reference tool in the following relevant areas of communicative language development in Arabic: syllabus design, teaching methodology, testing, materials development and teacher training. In order to bring about practical improvements in TAFL, we need to investigate each one of these relevant areas in relation to recent research findings so that each one of the problem areas in TAFL can be identified and looked into in more detail. The problem is, therefore, how to teach Arabic efficiently and effectively by adopting or adapting recent research findings in FL pedagogy. For immediate purposes, it seems that one of the ways of approaching this problem is to look at the wider issues of Arabic language pedagogy before investigating the narrower issues or individual components of Arabic language pedagogy (which are also very important). A study of the relevant and vital area of 'syllabus design' provides such an approach. Thus,, this chapter sets out to explore the designing of syllabuses from the CA point of view, with a view to its application to Arabic.

An attempt is made in this chapter to bridge the gap of the notoriously difficult area between the theory of the CA and its actual implementation in communicative syllabus design (CSD). Syllabus design theory has

been largely neglected in teaching Arabic, mainly because learning Arabic is considered as learning only the linguistic system. But in communicative language teaching, knowledge of the linguistic system is not sufficient and what is needed is knowledge of a wide range of skills required in using the linguistic system. It is for this reason that syllabus design theory has taken on such fundamental importance over the last decade or so in FL teaching. In order to design a communicative syllabus, consideration has to be given to ways of incorporating the four basic components of CC in the design process. In discussing the principles of syllabus design, Corder (1973) indicates that the design process involves many different considerations namely linguistic, pedagogic, sociolinguistic and psychological. But, he goes on to make the following important observation (Ibid:322):

One thing is certain: there is no such thing as a perfect, ideal or logical syllabus. The number of variables ⁽¹⁾ which are involved, particularly those relating to the learners for whom the syllabus is designed, are too numerous. Ideally, each learner requires a 'personalized' syllabus of his own. But we teach groups, not individuals. Any syllabus is bound, therefore, to be something of a compromise.

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- (1) Shaw (1975) discusses a number of internal and external factors or variables that influence or effect a FL course. He regards the aims, objectives, content, selection and arrangement of a FL syllabus as internal variables. External variables concern the characteristics of the learner, the teacher and the education system which directly concern the syllabus designer. He also considers other secondary external variables such as political, economic and sociocultural factors which have a direct influence on the planning of the course.

Language teaching is a social behaviour involving people at the personal and interpersonal level in which a realistic analysis of any actual teaching situation will differ, from one situation to another. For instance, the objectives, syllabus content, teaching methods, techniques, etc., cannot be the same for all children, adolescent and adult learners of Arabic. Language teaching is not a science in the sense that knowledge can be calculated, fixed or static for all times (excluding the linguistic system). Therefore, there can be no perfect syllabus just as there can be no perfect teaching method. The need for a compromise in syllabus design is particularly important whereby a syllabus can be made flexible and adaptable to different teaching situations. This need for a compromise is also stressed by Breen and Candlin (1980:106-7), Brumfit (1984:92) and Johnson (1982:66). But a practical set of basic principles within which to work is still needed as a guideline. The following sections of this chapter try to outline these basic principles by investigating some of the most important and relevant works in CSD. In this way, the most useful and necessary elements in CSD are brought together in an integrative model which can be easily understood and applied to Arabic.

6.2. Curriculum and Syllabus

Since there is often confusion in the literature as to what is exactly meant by the terms 'curriculum' and 'syllabus', these terms are clarified here. In North America, the term 'syllabus' is not used very widely and if it is used, it is often used interchangeably with 'curriculum'. One of the most satisfactory and clear definitions of the term 'curriculum' is

provided by Robertson (1971:564):

The curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of school and community through classroom instruction and related programs (e.g. field trips, library programs, work experience education, guidance and extra-classroom activities).

This definition is intended for general education and not specifically for the FL curriculum but, nevertheless, it is still valid. However, a suitable 'objectives model' for FL curriculum development is provided by Shaw (1975:73). This model consists of the following four main elements:

1. Objectives (aims and goals)
2. Subject Matter (content)
3. Method and Organization (organization and integration of learning experiences and content)
4. Evaluation

A 'syllabus', on the other hand, is regarded by Shaw (Ibid:76) as a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself (not referring to examination syllabus). He further regards the syllabus potentially as a plan for the first three elements of his 'objectives model' of FL curriculum development and to some extent for the fourth. This is clear from his following definition of FL syllabus (Ibid:96):

An implicit or explicit, partial or comprehensive, ordered or unordered summary or inventory of the objectives and/or content of the FL curriculum, potentially including indications of presentation, and of procedures and criteria for student evaluation.

In addition to this, Shaw (1977:217) also stresses the need to view the FL syllabus "in the context of an ongoing curriculum development process" rather than as a fossilization force. Yalden (1983:19) also expresses a similar view, particularly if the syllabus turns out to be imperfect in any way and, therefore, the syllabus should be able to make provisions for alterations in the classroom situation which are within the framework provided by the syllabus designers.

From the above discussion, a number of observations can be made. Although the syllabus is seen as a plan for any part of the curriculum (i.e. a part of the 'whole'), it can also be considered as a 'whole' in itself by including the four basic elements of FL curriculum development (i.e. objectives, content, method and organization, and evaluation). This is, in fact, the definition of the FL syllabus proposed by both Shaw (1975,1977) and Yalden (1983). But for CSD, Yalden utilizes these four basic elements of the curriculum to a greater extent than Shaw, as can be noticed in later discussions in this chapter. This definition of the FL syllabus is a practical and useful tool to apply to the teaching of Arabic at the school or university level and even outside the system of education. As such, this definition is the basic minimum definition for Arabic language course design and programme development, in the wider sense, adopted in

this thesis. As further discussions in this chapter indicate, there are many other relevant elements that may need to be taken into consideration, in addition to objectives, content, method and organization, and evaluation, when planning and developing Arabic language courses.

6.3. Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Research

In Chapter Three (3.2), the North American and European views of language are briefly discussed. It is noted that the North American view of language puts more emphasis on psycholinguistic research, whereas the European view puts more emphasis on sociolinguistic research. These two areas of current enquiry are discussed in Johnson (1982:129) who observes that, according to Widdowson (1978a), American interlanguage studies treat structure out of relation to use [of a FL] while the British communicative/functional movement concentrates on use and fails to link it in any meaningful way to structure. However, both these viewpoints, from either side of the Atlantic, have produced fundamental and important contributions to applied linguistics. The North American psycholinguistic research has resulted in new insights into the process of language acquisition and the European sociolinguistic research has resulted in the formation of communicative and functional syllabuses. Johnson (Ibid.) further observes that both these areas of research have so far failed to come together.

The problem is thus, fairly clear. Can both these frameworks work together and can the Arabic language syllabus designer or teacher benefit by taking into account the best of both these viewpoints? There are signs,

however, that both these viewpoints are gradually converging (Canale and Swain 1980 and Yalden 1983). Important work in this area is being done in Canada where there is a highly developed awareness of contributions to applied linguistics made from both sides of the Atlantic. At the forefront of this research are The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (Toronto) and Janice Yalden of the Centre of Applied Language Studies, Carleton University (Ottawa). Yalden (1983:63) observes that it is necessary to take both these frameworks (i.e. the psycholinguistic as well as the sociolinguistic) into consideration in applied linguistics and in designing L2 programmes. She emphasizes this point by observing the importance of the learner in this process (Ibid.):

The learner's individuality, as well as his membership in a social group must be considered, lest we leave ourselves open to the accusation that we treat students as puppets on the one hand or as though they were to live in isolation on the other.

Yalden further argues that the potential personal as well as interpersonal outcomes of the language learning process are vital components of the design, especially in working with adults and adolescents (Ibid:64).

In communicative language teaching, therefore, Yalden (1983) agrees with Canale and Swain (1980) that both the psychological and sociological components of CC must be taken into account in developing appropriate content for a syllabus and putting it into practice through an appropriate methodology. According to Yalden (1983:81):

Psycholinguistic theory suggests that language acquisition is more organic than learned (Corder 1978) and that more effective L2 learning will take place if the emphasis is on getting one's meaning across or understanding one's interlocutors rather than on formal accuracy.

In this way, it is assumed that the 'subconscious' process of language acquisition is activated by focussing on the message being conveyed and not on the linguistic form of that message (Krashen et al 1982).

Sociolinguistic research, on the other hand, has led to what Yalden (Ibid.) notes:

Sociolinguistic theory suggests that L2 teaching programs should be organized from a starting point of language needs and the kinds of meanings we can express through language rather than that of a priori analysis of the TL.

'Language needs' refers to the needs, wishes and desires of the learners in learning a particular FL. (1)

6.4. Arabic Language (AL) Programme Development

From the above discussion, it can be deduced that what we have today in applied linguistics are two theoretical approaches to communicative language teaching. One concentrates on the theories of L2 or FL acquisition and the other on syllabus design theory. Both of these are

(1) For more information on psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic research, see also Stern (1983).

important and relevant to TAFL in the wide area of AL programme development. In working towards a synthesis of communicative language teaching, Stern (1981:134) distinguishes both these approaches as linguistic and psychological or pedagogic approaches to communicative language teaching. Although Stern takes a different route to arrive at this distinction from Yalden (1983, 1983a), in the main, both of them are referring to the same area but in different ways.

However, Yalden (1983a:235) observes that in recent discussions of communicative language teaching there is a consensus of agreement on three basic points from both these strong currents of thought:

1. CC is an appropriate goal at all levels and that it is not confined to extra-institutional settings.
2. It is agreed that since CC is the goal of instruction, the message to be communicated is the point of departure in planning such programmes, and not the language forms to be used in communicating.
3. It is generally agreed that teaching should be learner-centred, although this is an area which is perhaps less simply dealt with than the others, since it comprises the notions of needs analysis or needs survey, of the autonomy of the learner, and of emphasis on the process of learning.

But just as with recent developments in any field, there are some unresolved issues in communicative language teaching. The most important issue concerns what is considered as the appropriate starting point in the design and implementation of a FL programme. There are two schools of thought on this question: one concerns the development of communicative

methodology and the other syllabus design. Beginning with the first school of thought, there are many versions of the argument for starting with communicative methodology. Lado (1981:230) refers to these versions as the "methodological proposals of the 1970's." Three of these versions are more prominent than others. The first is the 'Natural Approach' to L2 acquisition and learning as developed by Krashen (1981) and Terrel (1982). Both of them are primarily concerned with methodology and they concentrate on the process of language acquisition rather than the product of the FL.⁽¹⁾ The second version of the methodology school of thought is embodied in the 'immersion model' of bilingual education as practised in Canada and Wales. Immersion teaching of English and French started in Canada in the mid-sixties, and in Wales the teaching of English and Welsh started in the late-sixties. Immersion teaching in both of these countries has become increasingly popular. In this type of teaching, both languages are developed as though each was a MT. This is done by offering part of the school curriculum (usually half) or sometimes even the whole curriculum in the L2 and in this way the learner is immersed into a communicative setting in which the L2 is used naturally.⁽²⁾ Both the 'natural approach' and the 'immersion model' are

- (1) Krashen (1981) believes that there is no need to design an artificial progression since there is a natural process of L2 acquisition or a natural syllabus which will in any case emerge once suitable conditions for the development of CC are provided.
- (2) For more information on bilingual education in Wales, see Price (1978) and for work done in Canada in this area, see Stern (1980, 1983).

considered as naturalistic versions of communicative language teaching in which methodology is more important than syllabus design. The third important version of the argument for developing communicative methodology instead of syllabus design seems to be the strongest. This position is represented mainly by the sociolinguistic work of a few British applied linguists such as Breen and Candlin (1979, 1980). Their primary concern is for developing new types of language teaching materials without following any systematic syllabus mainly because they maintain that it is not possible to systematize language if language is being taught as communication, since communication by nature is unpredictable and unsystematizable, although they agree that it is possible to systematize language teaching materials if language is presented as form. Breen and Candlin (1979:8), therefore, observe that language teaching materials should be designed with the objective of facilitating learners' natural abilities of interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning. The need for a syllabus or an organizing framework in the above version is of secondary importance, though its importance is noted in their work.

The other methodological proposals referred by Lado (1981:234) are Asher et al's (1974) 'Total Physical Response',⁽¹⁾ Curran's (1972) 'Community

(1) The 'Total Physical Response' method introduces the FL in the form of commands that are executed first by the teacher and later by the students. At first, the commands are simple (such as "Stand up! Sit down! Walk! Run! Stop!" etc.) and gradually they become more complex. It is claimed that an entire FL can be introduced in this way and that the deep memory of the learners is reached more effectively.

Language Learning', ⁽¹⁾ Gattegn's (1972) 'Silent Way', ⁽²⁾ Lozanov's (1978) 'Suggestopedia', ⁽³⁾ and Postovsky's (1970) 'Delayed Oral Response'. ⁽⁴⁾ These recent and unusual teaching methods can be considered as different forms of communicative language teaching but

- (1) 'Community Language Learning' is based on experience with group therapy in clinical psychology. Basically, students are allowed to form a group or groups and they ask the teacher in their NL how to say things they wish to address to other students (in the classroom) in the FL. The sequencing of learning material thus becomes completely spontaneous. This method is also referred to as 'Counselling-Learning.'
- (2) In the 'Silent Way', an attempt is made to tap hidden learning powers by presenting new utterances only once. Since new material is not repeated, great effort has to be exerted by the students to learn it. However, students are allowed to speak at will as they attempt to learn new material.
- (3) In order to overcome the defence mechanisms that normally keep learners from freely using their untapped learning potential, Lozanov (a psychiatrist from Sophia, Bulgaria) proposes the use of relaxation techniques, including music and yoga, while listening to FL material.
- (4) In the 'Delayed Oral Response' method, in contrast to the 'Silent Way', the teacher presents new utterances orally as many times as needed. The learners are asked to remain totally silent and transcribe the material. It is claimed by Postovsky that after six weeks of intensive listening, learners soon outpace those who have been required to speak from the beginning in other methods of teaching.

essentially they still do not follow a systematic syllabus and are therefore concerned with the process of language acquisition, and not the product, goal or with the route to learning a FL. Yalden (1983a:237) observes that although the route and the process are important, "one cannot ignore the goal" or objective in learning a FL and therefore the problem of syllabus design has also to be considered.

From the above discussion, it is clear that the advocates of the first school of thought argue very strongly for the development of communicative methodology as a starting point in teaching FLs. The problem is, for the teaching of Arabic, should we follow this approach where a suitable syllabus or framework is not provided and also the content of the course is not adequately specified. There are many problems with this approach, if applied to TAFL. Although this approach may be suitable for short Arabic courses with limited objectives (such as the development of only the speaking skill), it cannot be considered satisfactory when planning large-scale Arabic courses, for example, at university level. A major problem is that not all Arabic teachers are trained or capable to teach without some sort of working framework. Another major problem is that in most, if not all, Arabic teaching situations, time is a constraint on what can be accomplished. Confronted with the problem of time, Yalden (1983a:238) observes that since time is a constraint: "it is necessary to pay attention to problems of management: i.e. how to cope with defining content and setting standards, as well as with classroom interaction." In the light of these problems, Yalden proposes what a CSD should entail by stating (Ibid.):

A communicative syllabus design is an instrument to be used to coordinate all these aspects of language teaching [i.e. defining content, setting standards and classroom interaction]. As such, it should not be rigid, but flexible; not closed, but open-ended; and not static, but subject to constant revision as a result of feedback from the classroom.

It seems that for designing effective large-scale Arabic language courses, we need to consider both schools of thought. From the advocates of communicative methodology, three major contributions can be obtained:

1. general principles governing classroom interaction;
2. access to the use of authentic samples of Arabic through work in discourse analysis; and
3. a wide range of teaching methodology.⁽¹⁾

From the theories of syllabus design, we can gain the tools with which to construct outline plans or frameworks for the content of Arabic language courses. Thus, syllabus design theory can fill the need for an organizing framework for all the data needed to provide for efficient and systematic teaching and learning of Arabic, on condition that we accept the practice of syllabus design as something complementary to

(1) The teaching methodology based on sound principles noted in the literature are:

1. ways of handling structures covertly instead of overtly (Terrel 1977).
2. using the TL as a medium of instruction rather than as a subject matter.
3. using communicative techniques or activities namely simulations, games, group-work, role-play, etc. to newer techniques and materials which involve problem-solving and inferencing abilities.

methodology and materials design and not in competition with it. In this way, the classroom teacher as well as the Arabic language programme planner or designer can gain deeper insights in TAFL by considering the tools provided by syllabus design theory and practice. The organizing framework proposed in this chapter considers syllabus design, methodology, materials design and other aspects of teaching Arabic as different stages of Arabic language programme development.

6.4.1. Components of a Communicative Arabic Syllabus

Before looking at the model for the overall process of AL programme development, it is necessary to examine and consider exactly what a communicative syllabus consists of. Yalden (1983:86-7) lists ten possible components which may be used to design a communicative syllabus in order to make up the deficit in previous syllabus types. These are adapted here to represent the components of a communicative syllabus in Arabic:

1. as detailed a consideration as possible of the purposes for which the learners wish to acquire Arabic;
2. some idea of the setting in which they will want to use Arabic (physical aspects as well as social setting);
3. the socially defined role the learners will assume in Arabic, as well as the roles of their interlocutors;
4. the communicative events in which the learners will participate: everyday situations, vocational or professional situations, academic situations, and so on;

5. the language functions involved in these events , or what the learner will need to be able to do with or through Arabic;
6. the notions involved, or what the learner will need to be able to talk about in Arabic;
7. the skills involved in the 'knitting together' of discourse:
discourse and rhetorical skills (بلاغة and فصحي);
8. the variety or varieties of Arabic that will be needed, and the levels in the spoken and written Arabic which the learners will need to reach;
9. the grammatical content that will be needed (including the sound and writing systems of Arabic);
10. the lexical content that will be needed.

In the traditional teaching of Arabic as a FL, only two of the ten components listed above (9 and 10) have been considered as essential while the others may have been included unsystematically because they were regarded mainly as unnecessary vocational skills. However, in recent years, many of the other components are slowly beginning to be incorporated in TAFL courses as can be noticed in Chapter Four. In addition to Yalden (1983), many other applied linguists such as Clark and Hamilton (1984), van Ek (1973), Munby (1978), Trim (1978), Wilkins (1976) and others consider these ten components as vital for the development of CC in FL teaching and learning. Since there is no universally agreed model of syllabus design available as yet, a number of communicative syllabus types have now emerged as a result of more emphasis on some of the above components than on others. The idea that a communicative

syllabus may not be restricted to just one type but several is a useful and practical one, especially as the constraints of any given teaching situation may have particular internal and external factors or variables (cf. p. 278, n. 1). The different types of communicative syllabuses are discussed in section five of this chapter.

6.4.2. Stages in AL Programme Development

The stages in AL programme development are derived mainly from the pioneering work of Yalden (1983), with the addition of other relevant works at each one of these stages. In the process of constructing communicative syllabuses, Yalden (1983:88) suggests that: "it is best to start at the next higher level in the language-learning/language-teaching process, that is by examining the overall process of planning a L2 program." What she proposes is in fact a general model for FL programme development. Since this model is general and applicable to all languages, it is adopted here for TAFL. Before examining this model in detail, it is useful to consider Finocchiaro's simpler framework for FL programme development as a comparison. Finocchiaro (1977:217) proposes five components in the form of the acronym "COMET" to remember all the programme components into which instructional changes should be incorporated:

C-urriculum

O-bjectives

M-ethods and Materials

E-valuation

T-eachers (preparation and skills)

This framework is an extension of Shaw's definition of FL curriculum development (as noted in 6.2 above), in that it includes the component of teacher training. But, the proposed model we have adopted for Arabic includes a few more important components in addition to those noted above. It consists of eight stages listed in the following table in which the syllabus is assigned a much wider role than traditionally assumed in the overall process of planning an Arabic language course.

An analysis of each stage in Table 4 follows. The stages in the Table (for Table 4 see next page) are represented as discrete operations for the sake of clarity and not an end in themselves. As such, they often overlap since there must be a constant flow of information from one stage to another.

Stage 1: Needs Survey

The first stage in the process of AL programme development involves carrying out a survey of the communication needs of the learners of Arabic for whom the programme is being prepared as well as a survey of the physical resources at hand (both of the learners' and the teaching environment). The concept of a needs survey comes from the Modern Languages Project of the Council of Europe. A major contribution of this project is that the focus of attention has moved from traditional teacher-centred education to learner-centred education. In traditional AL teaching, all the decisions are made by the teacher only but in learner-centred education, this decision making process has to be shared with the learner and other 'partners in learning' (such as parents, administrators,

Table 4 : Stages in AL Programme Development

Stage	Description
I	<u>Needs Survey</u> : profile of learners needs in Arabic and of the teaching environment
II	<u>Description of Purpose</u> : objectives to be prepared in terms of 1. student characteristics 2. student skills on entry to and on exit from the programme
III	<u>Selection or Development of Syllabus Type</u> : in terms of IV and physical constraints on the programme
IV	<u>The Syllabus Content (Proto-Syllabus)</u> : description of Arabic and Arabic use to be covered in the programme
V	<u>The Pedagogical Syllabus</u> : development of teaching, learning and testing approaches 1. development of teaching materials (as far as possible) 2. development of testing sequence and decisions on testing instruments
VI	(a) <u>Development of Classroom Procedures</u> 1. selection of exercise types and teaching techniques 2. preparation of lesson plans 3. preparation of weekly schedules (b) <u>Teacher Training</u> : briefings, workshops and in-service courses on 1. principles 2. desired outcome 3. exploitation/creation of teaching material
VII	<u>Evaluation</u> 1. of students 2. of teaching 3. of programme
VIII	<u>Recycling Stage</u> 1. consistency between goals set and student performance is determined 2. content is reassessed 3. materials and methodological procedures are revised

employers, friends, etc.). Richterich (1984:29), a major contributor to this project, identifies language needs as:

The compilation, treatment and exploitation for heuristic and didactic purposes, of certain information about an individual, group of individuals, institution, or society, in relation to the actual or intended use and teaching/learning of a particular language.

After extensive experimentation, criticism and re-evaluation, the whole concept of a needs survey has been considerably extended and enriched in recent years. It now includes the identification of the communication requirements, personal needs, motivations, relevant characteristics and resources of the learner. Thus, identifying language needs is a means of determining educational objectives with the learners of Arabic. It can be noticed from this broad definition that an extensive amount of information has to be gathered in a needs survey. The object in conducting a needs survey or analysis is to obtain as much information as possible about the learners and about their purposes in acquiring Arabic.

Richterich (1984:32) observes that the identification of language needs may be conceived in teaching/learning as: "a tool serving the learners, teachers and institutions in defining their objectives more clearly and selecting the learning conditions and contents through which they may be achieved." The problem is: how do we go about constructing such a tool or planning instrument for TAFL? Initially, some knowledge of data collection is helpful for preparing to carry out a needs survey.⁽¹⁾

(1) Among the various systems for dealing with the collection of data in a needs survey, those by Munby (1978) and Richterich and Chancerel (1980) are most highly elaborated.

The tool or planning instrument which is designed for use by the syllabus designer is called a 'checklist' and it is often used to guide a preliminary needs survey. Yalden (1983:103) notes that a 'checklist' should normally cover two broad categories: "who the learners are (what they bring with them) and what their purposes, needs and wishes are in learning the language (where they are going)." Richterich (1984: 35) lists a number of ways for obtaining information of the learners and their 'partners in learning', before and during a course. These may be in the form of questionnaires, personality and aptitude tests, attitude scales, interviews or even work-sheets and grids. The type of information may include the learner's personal identity; language background; educational purpose; general interest; the medium (receptive or productive), mode (monologue or dialogue) and channel (face to face, print, radio, TV, etc.) of communication needed; the course design constraints concerning the school or institution; the teaching staff; the equipment available; the class size; timetabling; etc.⁽¹⁾ In other words, we need a profile of the learner's overall AL needs and also a profile of the teaching environment. The advantage of a needs survey is that it can be applied to almost all types of TAFL programmes, from general long-term courses to specific special purpose short term courses.

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- (1) Yalden (1983:Appendix II) lists all the information to be gathered from a needs survey into three distinct checklists:
- Checklist I: Purpose and Setting for which TL is required.
 - Checklist II: Interaction and Instrumentality.
 - Checklist III: Course Design Constraints.

In this way, suitable AL programmes can be developed on communicative lines not only for general (long-term), remedial and short-term courses for different age groups (children, adolescents and adult beginners) but also for specific special courses such as Arabic for diplomats, tourists, businessmen, specialized research areas or even for *حجاج*, religious understanding, bilingual education and for making Arabic a living language for everyday use among non-Arab Muslims (i.e. for religious, academic and social purposes).

Stage II: Description of Purpose (Objectives)

After the needs survey, the next stage is to prepare a description of purpose of the AL programme. This stage is, in fact, a statement of the objectives of the AL programme in which the aims and goals are clearly stated in terms of learners' characteristics and the skills to be attained by them. The description of purpose is derived from the information collected in the needs analysis. In some cases, such as Arabic courses for commercial or vocational purposes, the description of purpose will be almost entirely dictated by the needs survey. In more general Arabic courses, such as those in a school or university setting, too close a specification of objectives may lead to a suffocation of initiative and interest.

An important and practical distinction made in Stage II is the proposal of two large functional groupings in FL teaching: occupational and

educational.⁽¹⁾ Yalden (1983:106) considers this distinction as having either a 'narrow' or a 'broad' focus. Courses which have a narrow focus are considered as those prepared for a highly homogeneous group of learners who may have very clearly defined AL needs in an occupational setting such as a diplomat going to work in the Middle East, whereas, AL courses with a broad focus may be classified as being for educational purposes such as the study of Arabic as a school subject or a university discipline. But, the problem in designing AL courses with a broad focus, as in general education, is that we do not know what our pupils or students may need Arabic for, since their future is still shrouded in the mists of time. Confronted with this problem of teaching FLs in general education, van Ek (1984:67) observes that:

"the usual answer - and I don't see there could be a better one - is that one tries to prepare them as well as possible for their future life whatever this may be, that one tries to equip them as well as possible for fulfilling their potential as individuals in a highly complex and constantly changing society." The central point of orientation derived from this view, which would seem to be a valid and worthwhile learning goal, is the ability to, at least, communicate in Arabic. Even if we choose this goal, it still does not provide us with a concrete objective let alone the grammatical elements, vocabulary and other aspects of the content of the AL course that will be most suitable to achieve this ability. For general learners

(1) Mackey and Mountford (1978) propose three functional groupings in FL teaching: occupational, vocational and academic.

of Arabic, we may wish to provide them with the ability to communicate in general circumstances about subjects of general importance and interest. But, the variety of such subjects or topics is very wide. However, van Ek (Ibid:68) observes that: "there is remarkable agreement on what topics are of really general interest and are therefore to be given a high-priority index. Most teachers, and, given the choice, most pupils rank such topics as 'identification of self and others', 'family and friends', 'interests and pastimes', 'food and accommodation', etc., high on their list of priorities." Thus, those responsible for planning AL programmes in general education may take these interests into account and see to it that, in practising these topics in communicative situations, the essential language functions and general notions as well as the most fundamental formal characteristics of Arabic are duly represented.

In preparing the description of purpose to be produced for a given AL course, the syllabus or programme designer may work in terms of broadly and narrowly focussed purposes, and educational or occupational categories. In certain situations, the AL syllabus designer might be obliged to add other elements such as the study of the AL culture which might not come out of the needs survey quite as directly as, for instance, the need to talk about what one likes and dislikes in his/her spare time or the need to order a meal in Arabic. The cultural aspect of Arabic is indispensable in the description of purpose, particularly if learners need to or want to control the language as native speakers control it, to such an extent that learners can understand the cultural influences at work in the behaviour of

Arabic speakers.⁽¹⁾ Concerning the student skills on entry to and on exit from the programme (i.e. Stage 11.2), reference can be made to the Foreign Service Institute's (USA) Proficiency Scales⁽²⁾ or even the more comprehensive Australian L2 Proficiency Ratings (ASLPR)⁽³⁾ for an idea of what skills could be aimed at or attained at different levels of TAFL.

(1) See Rivers (1981:Ch.2), for a detailed discussion of 'cultural understanding' in learning and teaching a FL. For cultural elements in Arabic, see Harb (1983), (١٩٨٠) جغمتجى and (١٩٨٠) بـهجت.

(2) For instance, the Foreign Service Institute's model of proficiency scales for the speaking skill are divided into the following five distinct levels: 1. Elementary Proficiency (S-1). 2. Limited Working Proficiency (S-2). 3. Minimum Professional Proficiency (S-3). 4. Full Professional Proficiency (S-4). 5. Native or Bilingual Proficiency (S-5).

Each of these proficiency levels is defined in full in Sollenberger (1978) and Rivers (1981:Appendix A) which also includes the reading skill.

(3) The ASLPR are described in Ingram (1982) as the following nine levels in terms of the basic linguistic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing for each level:

- | |
|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Zero Proficiency |
| 2. Initial Proficiency |
| 3. Elementary Proficiency |
| 4. Minimum Survival Proficiency |
| 5. Survival Proficiency |
| 6. Minimum Social Proficiency |
| 7. Minimum Vocational Proficiency |
| 8. Vocational Proficiency |
| 9. Native-like Proficiency |

Each linguistic skill at each of the nine levels is described with factors such as what communicative tasks the learner can carry out, the range of situations and functions needed, pronunciation features, vocabulary, syntax, discourse, etc.

Stage III: Selection or Development of Syllabus Type

The next stage in AL programme development and also in the design of the syllabus is the choice of a syllabus type which is best suited to the needs and characteristics of the learners. This choice can be made only after the objectives of the AL teaching situation (Stage II) is determined. Since there is no single universally agreed model of syllabus design, there have been many proposed solutions, based on the CA in recent years, ranging from a modification of existing grammatical/structural or literature-based syllabuses to a completely learner-centred approach in which there would be no 'input' syllabus at all, but only one which would emerge out of the situation as the programme continues. As a result of these solutions, what we now have in CSD are a number of communicative syllabus types which may place more emphasis on some of the components of the communicative syllabus (as discussed in 6.4.1 above) and less emphasis on others, depending on the needs and characteristics of the learners and the physical constraints on the programme. However, Yalden (1983:94) warns that the description of purpose (Stage II) will not automatically yield a description of syllabus type (Stage III) and it is up to the FL programme planner to decide ultimately what will be best at this point.

The procedures of CSD were originally designed for application to situations in which needs and objectives could be quite narrowly specified but, in recent years, they are also being applied to the preparation of more general courses. This is possible because, as Yalden (Ibid.) observes:

The model of syllabus design thus becomes a dynamic, not a static one, and it allows for constant feedback from a variety of points into the area of syllabus type and selection of content, as well as into other areas such as teaching procedures.

Yalden (Ibid.), however, favours a 'Proportional Syllabus' in the choice of a syllabus type, for two main reasons: firstly, because there is a balance between emphasis on form and emphasis on communicative functions and secondly, it is desirable in the majority of cases. A full discussion of eight different communicative syllabus types follows in the next section of this chapter (6.5). From these syllabus types, it is possible for AL programme planners and teachers to decide which communicative syllabus type (or types) is best suited to their local situation.

Stage IV: The Syllabus Content (Proto-Syllabus)

The next stage concerns the specification of syllabus content or what Yalden (Ibid:88) prefers to call with Alexander (1975): a 'proto-syllabus'. The specification of syllabus content actually begins in Stage III and continues into Stage IV and, thus, both these stages overlap. When the general syllabus type has been decided upon, one begins to produce the syllabus content in Arabic with the aid of a number of instruments in the form of lists and inventories. The production of the syllabus content is a complicated process since it involves the description of Arabic and the use of Arabic to be covered in a particular course. As a starting point, an examination of works such as The Threshold Level (van Ek 1975)

and Waystage (van Ek and Alexander 1977) may be useful since these works are considered as classic examples of the notional-functional proto-syllabus of the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project. However, before beginning Stage IV, Yalden (Ibid:138) observes that the syllabus designer should bear in mind the following three important considerations in deciding how or even whether to account for all aspects of CC:

1. It is not always either possible or desirable to include all aspects of CC, since much will depend upon physical constraints involved in a given programme as well as convictions about a syllabus type.
2. Consideration of the amount and quality of information available from the needs survey will aid in determining how many components the syllabus should have, and later on how these should be related to each other.
3. The specification of target levels should be given early attention and whether it is realistic to specify these levels very closely if no correspondingly fine-tuned instruments are currently available with which to measure them (such as the American Foreign Service Institute's Proficiency Scales or the Australian L2 Proficient Ratings, as noted above).

Yalden (Ibid.), therefore, suggests that it is appropriate to start mapping out the syllabus content, once some preliminary work has been carried out at this level, preferably in conjunction with other participants in the process (namely teachers, administrators and learners as well, if possible). This mapping process is usually done, as mentioned earlier, with the aid of a

number of instruments in the form of lists and inventories. These lists and inventories can be of various kinds such as word frequency lists; inventories of communicative functions, topics and settings; lists of lexis and structures including phonology, graphology and morphology; discourse and rhetorical skills or even dictionaries of various kinds. These lists and inventories are considered by Yalden (Ibid:140) as the 'tools of the syllabus designer.' These 'tools of the syllabus designer' are far from adequate in Arabic. The most urgently required lists and inventories needed in Arabic are in the areas of communicative functions, topics and settings; and also discourse and rhetorical skills of Arabic. The grammatical as well as the vocabulary content in Stage IV would also need to be selected and specified according to the learner's communicative needs. In this respect, there is also an urgent need for a good communicative grammar of Arabic, perhaps, on the lines of Leech and Svartvik's (1978) A Communicative Grammar of English.

In specifying the different areas of CC to be included in the syllabus content, other sets of checklists may be drawn up for Strategic Competence, including study skills.⁽¹⁾ These checklists are not questionnaires or blue prints but guidelines which are to be used by the AL syllabus designer and as such, they are considered as the raw version of a communicative syllabus. According to Yalden (Ibid.), these sets of planning instruments are designed to be used in three ways:

(1) In addition to providing checklists for language functions, discourse and rhetorical skills, Yalden (1983:Appendix II) provides an extensive checklist of study skills.

1. to make an initial definition of content for a projected programme;
2. to map out a syllabus already being used;
3. to carry out 'retrospective mapping', i.e. to record systematically what actually went on in a given course.

In providing proposals for a communicative content in a syllabus, Brumfit (1984:94-6) provides an interesting, useful and recent model to represent the different types of content specification in the following table:

Table 5 : Types of Content Specification

1. Analysis of Product

- | | |
|--|--|
| (a) <u>Formal analysis</u>
(linguists' categories): | phonological
syntactic
morphological
notional (semantico-grammatical) |
| (b) <u>Interactional analysis</u>
(social psychologists',
anthropologists', and
stylisticians' categories): | situational
functional
leading to: discursal, rhetorical,
and stylistic |
| (c) <u>Content/topical analyses</u>
(technical or general
categories) | i) socially directed: cultural
ii) educationally directed: inter-
disciplinary
iii) language directed: linguistics,
literature |

2. Analysis of Process

- | | |
|--|--|
| (a) <u>Communicative abilities</u>
(integrated skills): | conversation/discussion
comprehension (of speech or writing)
extended writing
(extended speaking) |
| (b) <u>Orientation:</u> ⁽¹⁾ | accuracy
fluency |
| (c) <u>Pedagogical mode:</u> | individual
private interactional (pairs or small
groups)
public interactional (whole class/large
groups + teacher) |

(1) The terms 'accuracy' and 'fluency' are discussed in Syllabus Type 2, in the next section of this chapter (6.5).

Stages V and VI: The Pedagogical Syllabus, Classroom Procedures
and Teaching Training

The next phase; after specifying syllabus content in Arabic, we need to produce a pedagogical syllabus and to consider its implementation for classroom interaction (Stages V and VI). Since Stage V and Stage VI overlap in this process, they are brought together here. This point is the culminating phase of the syllabus design process in which the syllabus designer shares his responsibility with the classroom teacher. One person may take on either role or both, but it is important to understand that the roles are differentiated. Yalden (1983:95) observes that the syllabus designer who works as an applied linguist is concerned not only with: "what is to be taught and how it is to be ordered (the syllabus), but also with the realization of the syllabus in the form of teaching materials such as textbooks, exercises, tapes, filmstrips and so - that is, with the presentation of the syllabus (Stage V), or what might be called the development of the pedagogical syllabus." On the other hand, the language teacher is also concerned with teaching materials but, in this process, he is concerned with them in a different way. The language teacher is mainly concerned with how to exploit the teaching materials in the classroom and thus, he concentrates on teaching techniques and artistry in the classroom (Stage VI).

For the development of a pedagogical syllabus in Arabic, we need overall approaches to teaching and learning (including teacher training) as well as to the whole testing programme. Just as there are various options available in the choice of syllabus types, so there are also alternatives

in the construction of a pedagogical syllabus but, the procedures adopted for the teaching, learning and testing of Arabic will be influenced by decisions taken in Stage III (i.e. the selection of a syllabus type). A particular syllabus type in Arabic will influence the format or construction of the pedagogical syllabus in the same direction. For instance, a communicative syllabus of the functional variety may make exclusive use of functional units but exclude any structural or grammatical units and thus, in this case, a purely functional procedure is adopted for the teaching, learning and testing of Arabic.

In order to avoid resembling the old-fashioned phrase book, Yalden (Ibid: 149) suggests the use of the pedagogical syllabus as a handbook. This handbook may be addressed either to the teacher alone, or for many teaching contexts, to both teacher and learner. The AL syllabus designer can produce a series of units for such a handbook by working from lists of situations, topics, functions and their exponents. To do this, lists can be broken up into sections or chunks and by fitting sections from each list together into a suitable unit. From each unit, a selection of suitable communicative activities and tasks will be derived. As mentioned above (Stage II), for general learners of Arabic in general education, Arabic teachers may need to provide them with the ability to communicate in general circumstances about subjects of general importance and interest. Since there is agreement concerning the topics or subjects of general interest in general FL education (namely personal identification, family and friends, food and accommodation, interests and pastimes, etc.), a unit on, for example, interests and pastimes may include a large number

of communicative activities and tasks such as hobbies, entertainment, transport and travel in an Arab country, general services available, etc.⁽¹⁾

In line with the democratic principles of the CA, the choice of communicative tasks and activities could be a matter for negotiation between the teacher and the learners of Arabic. Since a single unit can be treated repeatedly in such a handbook, the teacher can ensure that there is a spiral approach to the sequencing of topics, functions and forms in Arabic.

What are the implications for using this type of pedagogical syllabus or for that matter any other type of communicative syllabus compared to traditional structural Arabic syllabuses? The most significant change would be the role of the teacher, as well as the learner. In this learner-centred approach, the traditional Arabic teacher may need to abandon the position of authority figure and become a guide rather than a leader, or even the learners' peer, and thus adopt an activating role as the instigator of situations and participant in meaningful communication which allow students to develop their communication skills in Arabic. However, this role can be considered as complementary and not as an alternative role of the authoritarian teacher for he/she still has to teach some of the basic elements of Arabic, particularly at early stages. The learner also would be expected to assume a much more active role in a far more active process.

(1) For an idea of the topics and tasks currently being used in 'The Schools' Arabic Project', see Appendix C. For an extensive list of communicative tasks, activities, games, simulations, plays, etc., being used in general FL education, see Clark and Hamilton (1984).

Furthermore, this change in roles is in line with the current views on psychology of FL learning in which learner involvement is considered as the key to motivation. In order to achieve this altered balance in the classroom, both the teacher and the learner need to know more about what they are undertaking. The Arabic teacher, for instance, must accept current theories of FL acquisition and be prepared to use an approach which is rather different from the one traditionally associated with the teaching of classical languages. The teacher's success will depend upon the understanding of four basic questions:

1. Why the items in a particular syllabus have been selected? ;
2. Why a communicative methodology is essential? ;
3. What this methodology consists of? ; and
4. How to implement and encourage communicative activities?

This is why teacher training has taken on such great importance in communicative language teaching. The teacher of Arabic must have a fairly high level of CC in Arabic in order to carry out this role effectively. In addition to the initial training of new Arabic teachers in communicative language teaching, practising teachers as well may need to receive training in the form of workshops and in-service courses. These in-service courses may not only concentrate on fluency courses for those teachers who are not fluent in Arabic, but also on the different aspects and skills required in teaching through the CA as well as on the different levels of CC that learners need to attain (as discussed in Chapter Five).

An important factor for Stages V and VI, according to Yalden (1983:153), is the creation of information networks in the form of banks of material,

communicative activities, tasks, exercises, etc. Since the methodology used in communicative language is becoming increasingly more valid and rich with the large number of techniques that now exist, Yalden (Ibid.) observes that: "it will be necessary to depend on taxonomies of such techniques and on item banks. Documentation centres will need to create cross-referencing systems designed to identify rapidly activities which will correspond in an appropriate manner to a large number of variables such as learners' age, proficiency level, interest, and aims, as well as the topics, functions, focus, etc. of the course, and whether oral or written language is practised (or some proportion of each)."

The creation of information networks of this sort for the teaching of Arabic could be invaluable to any Arabic language department, be it at university or school level, providing that the sociocultural and linguistic aspects of Arabic are not overlooked in the accumulation and creation of such materials. A great source of valuable material accumulation for Arabic can be found through television, or what is popularly known today as 'Satellite TV'. By this system, an Arabic television station can be received directly from the Middle East through a satellite via an external antenna. The reception of broadcast would be the same as that bounced by a local station. Interesting programmes could be recorded on video tape, especially those with sociocultural content, and used later for teaching purposes in class or even for individual or group recreational purposes such as listening comprehension practice, etc. 'Satellite TV' is beginning to be widely used in British universities for teaching some of the major European languages. If Arabic is being taught at school

level, a countless number of programmes for children and adolescents could be recorded and used for teaching purposes. If 'Satellite TV' cannot be a reality for Arabic departments in the near future, there are various alternatives available for the accumulation of these types of audio-visual material. There are a few centres in London where AL video-cassettes and films on a wide range of subjects can be obtained and there are also a few Arab embassies and other organizations that lend or hire documentary films and video-cassettes.⁽¹⁾ In addition to this, there are also an increasing number of computer programs available in Arabic which could be used for teaching purposes, produced by Al Alamiah, Riyadh.⁽²⁾ All these new types of teaching materials add a great motivational force to the whole teaching/learning process of Arabic. The potential for creating banks of Arabic teaching material are there and the challenge to use these is an exciting one for the future.

Stages VII and VIII: Evaluation and Recycling Stages

The final phase in AL programme development, according to recent research findings, is the overall evaluation and recycling stages. The evaluation stage consists of firstly, assessing the students taking a particular course, then, the teaching procedures followed in class as well as the design of the whole course. The decisions on the methods

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- (1) A list of centres, embassies and organizations with addresses is provided in CILT (1984).
 - (2) The bilingual (Arabic/English) educational software produced by Al Alamiah which are directly relevant to the teaching of Arabic are catalogued in Appendix B (under audio-visual aids), according to subject matter and title of each program in Arabic.

and techniques of testing learners would have been taken in Stage V. The applied linguist and the classroom teacher must work closely at this stage or the classroom teacher working as an applied linguist must work closely with other Arabic teachers in evaluating student performance, teaching outcomes and the impact of the programme as a whole.

The final stage is called the 'recycling stage' because at this point the whole cycle can be started again and adjustments can be made anywhere in the whole system, based on the feedback provided to the syllabus designer. In this stage, one determines the consistency between the goals set and the final performance of the learners. If there are any inconsistencies, as there often may be, teaching materials and teaching procedures may be revised. This may result in the description of purpose (Stage II) being re-examined in order to establish whether or not Stage II should be adjusted or modified because of the results obtained at the end of the programme. Yalden (Ibid:96) stresses the point that as long as the recycling stage is retained, the model remains flexible and dynamic and without it, the procedure is rigid and irresponsive to any sort of change or reassessment.

The whole sequence of AL programme development outlined above is intended to be used as a guide to the overall process of planning an AL course or programme. At first glance, it may seem like a hindrance to anyone attempting it for the first time and indeed, one may feel one is being encouraged to start from scratch and give up everything one has been doing previously. The adoption of a communicative syllabus in Arabic does

not imply this. What is being advocated is the enrichment of current AL programmes by including essential aspects of language functions and communication skills in Arabic, and also by adapting the content as closely as we can to the language needs of specific or general groups of Arabic learners. Yalden (Ibid:97) suggests that: "in many situations in which the introduction of a CA to L2 teaching is being contemplated, it is more a question of having to modify an existing program than building up a whole operation from the beginning", and indeed, this is what is proposed by some of the communicative syllabus types in the next section of this chapter (6.5). In order to change an existing programme, Yalden (Ibid.) proposes the examination of an existing syllabus and this can be used as a basis for a revised syllabus which can have a different focus, depending on the needs of the learners and the internal and external constraints (or variables) on the programme. In this way, gaps in existing Arabic syllabuses can be filled in by selecting and producing appropriate teaching materials with appropriate teaching techniques to cover the areas which were previously omitted. ⁽¹⁾

6.5. Types of Communicative Syllabuses

Since there is a large choice of different communicative syllabus types available today in communicative language teaching, this section is an expansion of Stage III of AL programme development (6.4.2). Yalden (1983) discusses seven possible syllabus types which are considered as

(1) For exact procedures to follow in FL programme modification, see Yalden (Ibid:97-9).

fairly well-developed and representative of the different forms of proposed solutions available in communicative language teaching. These proposed solutions "range from a modification of existing structural syllabuses to a completely learner-centred approach in which there would be no 'prospective' or 'input' syllabus at all, but only one which would grow out of the situation as the course progressed" (Ibid:108). These are based on the following seven types: structural-functional, structures and functions, variable focus, functional, fully notional, fully communicative and lastly the proportional syllabus which is the one proposed by Yalden (1983). There are of course other syllabus types which can be regarded as communicative but they are not discussed here since they are still in a developmental stage. Nevertheless, one of these which is emerging to be fairly important is considered here: the procedural syllabus. For the adoption of these syllabuses to TAFL, Arabic language departments would need to investigate which syllabus type is best suited and easily applicable to their local situation, depending on the needs of Arabic learners and the resources available.

Type 1: Structural-Functional

The structural-functional or weak functional syllabus originally proposed by Wilkins (1974) seems to be the easiest solution to the problem of CSD, since he (1978) observed that it is possible to follow various paths in the design of an analytic syllabus constructed to teach language

use.⁽¹⁾ For Wilkins (1976:68), the weakest form of an analytic syllabus is to teach structure first, then functions. Thus, in such a structural-functional syllabus in Arabic, the two components of linguistic form and communicative function would be separated and taught separately. The teaching of communicative functions would come in at some point during the course but, according to this model, it would come in after linguistic forms are fairly well covered. In this model, therefore, communicative teaching is not integrated with linguistic form, but a further component is added to an already existing syllabus. This type of structural-functional syllabus could be a fairly easy model to use in readjusting an existing structural Arabic course and, thus, make the change towards the use of functional materials less drastic. For immediate purposes, this syllabus may be the only possible and applicable solution to employ where the teaching of Arabic is very much steeped in tradition.

Type 2: Structures and Functions

The second type of communicative syllabus represents a structural progression in a communicative framework. This syllabus has been

(1) In Chapter Three above (3.2), Wilkins's (1976) dichotomy between 'synthetic' and 'analytic' approaches is discussed in detail. It can be noticed there how a synthetic approach leads only to linguistic perfection since the syllabus is based exclusively on grammatical structures, whereas, an analytic approach could lead to CC if it is based on semantic-meaning based syllabuses.

basically put forward by Brumfit (1980, 1984) and Johnson (1982). The simplest proposal for Brumfit (1980:5) is: "to use the grammatical system as the core of the syllabus in a ladder-like series of stages and to be prepared to relate all other essential material to this series. Thus notional, functional, and situational specifications can be conceived of as a spiral round a basically grammatical core." The following figure describes Brumfit's model diagrammatically:

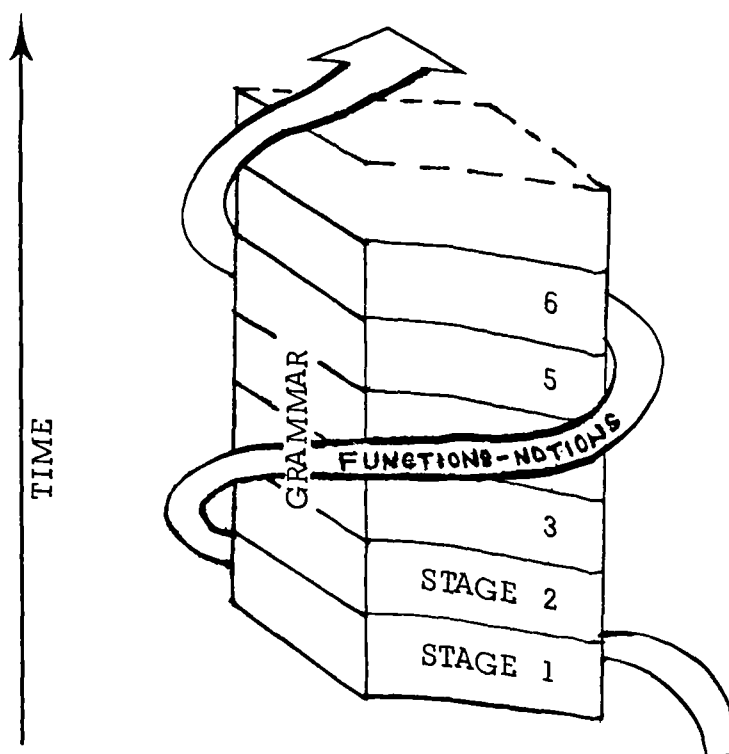


Fig. 6: Structural Progression in a Communicative Framework

(Brumfit 1980:6)

Thus, in Brumfit's model the organizing principle is to retain form (pronunciation and grammar) since it has a systematic basis with the inclusion of functions and notions which can be related appropriately to the grammatical exponents. In this way, a process of bargaining can

be introduced at each stage in the figure between the elements in the spiral and those in the grammatical core. The central issue in Brumfit's work (particularly Brumfit 1984) is the roles of fluency⁽¹⁾ and accuracy⁽²⁾ in a communicative methodology. He observes that "essentially, syllabuses are concerned with accuracy . . . , but students have to learn to be fluent as well as accurate" (1980:7). Therefore, he recommends the use of classroom activities both for accuracy as well as for fluency and yet he still maintains structural progression as the organizing principle of his syllabus type. Brumfit (1984:69) suggests further that: "accuracy activity may be aimed at conscious learning by students, but that the conversion of the tokens of the language thus learnt into value-laden systems with genuine communicative potential requires fluency activity in which the learners' focus is on meaning

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- (1) Brumfit (1984:56-7) regards fluency "as natural language use, whether or not it results in native-speaker-like language comprehension or production." He also views fluency in a different light and considers it "as the maximally effective operation of the language system" that can be acquired by a learner.
- (2) Concerning accuracy, Brumfit (Ibid:51) finds that "language display for evaluation tended to lead to a concern for accuracy" among other factors. 'Language display' is considered here as the demand to produce language work to the teacher for display purposes, i.e. demonstrating language usage instead of language use (in Widdowson's terms).

rather than form." Thus, he regards small-group work⁽¹⁾ and a 'natural' linguistic environment⁽²⁾ as the bases for fluency activity. This second model of the communicative syllabus is therefore not the same as communicative syllabus Type 1 above, since all the components of meaning are to be included from the start of a course and none are to be postponed.

Turning to the work of Johnson (1982), his argument for what he terms a communicative rather than a primarily functional syllabus fits into the same category as Brumfit's model. Johnson's (1982:107) major argument for a structural progression in a communicative framework is simply that a functional organization automatically implies structural disorganization.

- (1) Since much of language use is informal, Brumfit (1984:69) suggests the use of conversation groups which often involve learners participating in small groups of varying sizes. But he further observes that language use "will also involve relating to written texts, and to other modes of communication in which feedback is dependent mainly on the receiver such as recordings and broadcasts, and formal face-to-face interactions, such as lectures and speeches" in the FL.
- (2) According to Krashen et al (1982:14), when the focus is on the content of communication, the language environment is natural but when it is on the structure of the language, the language environment is formal. Brumfit (1984:87) finds that the prime value of group work lies in its ability to stimulate natural language activity in discussion and conversation as well as in reading and writing, in such instances as correction of written work or for preparation for reading.

But, he does not favour pure structural syllabuses because he finds that they do not allow one to see the practical applications of the language to real life. For the teaching of general or global FL courses, he proposes a gradual, small-scale development of functional materials to be integrated with existing FL teaching programmes. In order to do this, Johnson (Ibid:41-3) suggests a theme-area mode of presentation in the form of units which have a 'common core'.⁽¹⁾ For each unit, he proposes that: "it would be possible (e.g.) to move from theme-specific materials to what has been called 'language practice',⁽²⁾ return to theme-specific followed by functional materials, ending up with more language practice" (Ibid:102). Thus, this approach to structures and functions is very similar to Brumfit's snake and ladder approach described above. An important factor in Johnson's work is what he calls the 'unit of organization'. He (Ibid:55-69) observes that in a traditional structural syllabus the unit of organization is obvious - it is the structure of the FL, but in a semantic syllabus it could be functional, notional, thematic,

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- (1) By 'common core', he (Ibid.) refers to the areas or functions of common interest to all learners, whatever their particular situations or needs, i.e. functions associated with the general area of 'social life', rather than with any particular occupation, such as greeting, introducing, inviting, asking for information, giving information, enquiring about something, etc. These are the same functions and notions of general interest to general learners, as discussed above by van Ek (1984) in Stage II of AL programme development (6.4.2).
- (2) Johnson (1982:100) refers to 'language practice' as activities such as structural practice, comprehension exercises, pronunciation drills, etc.

topical, settings or even roles. A communicative syllabus such as this based on structures and functions could also be practically adopted by traditional Arabic departments, since a structural progression is retained throughout a course while moving increasingly towards a functional emphasis by the production of a richly varied series of units.

Type 3: Variable Focus

The most complete discussion of a communicative syllabus with a variable focus is found in the work of Allen (1980), who also provides the name for this model. Allen has formulated a three-level curriculum model for L2 education in Ontario, Canada. Originally, it was developed as a syllabus for teaching English as a L2 at the secondary school level, but Allen (1980:42) observes that it is easily adaptable to the needs of L2 education in general, for all stages of proficiency and for different age groups, as well as all varieties of FLs. In the following figure, he (Ibid:36) distinguishes three different levels of CC operating simultaneously for the production of materials:

Levels of Communicative Competence

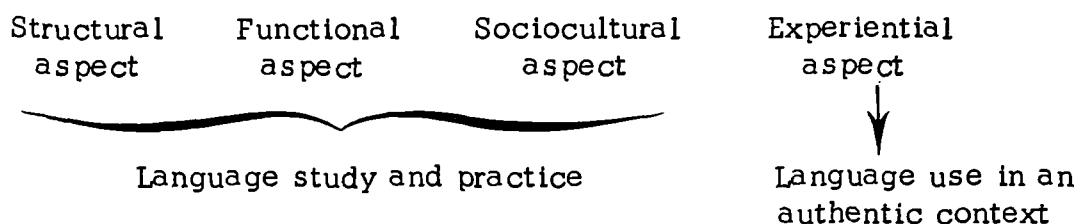
Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
<u>Structural</u>	<u>Functional</u>	<u>Instrumental</u>
Focus on language (formal features)	Focus on language (discourse features)	Focus on the use of language
(a) Structural control	(a) Discourse control	(a) Situational or topical control
(b) Materials simplified structurally	(b) Materials simplified functionally	(b) Authentic language
(c) Mainly structural practice	(c) Mainly discourse practice	(c) Free uncontrolled practice

Fig. 7: Three Levels of CC in L2 Education (Allen 1980:36).

In level 3, Allen uses the heading 'experiential' instead of 'instrumental' but elsewhere in his article, they are used interchangeably. Allen (Ibid:35) observes that this model implies that we can look at all the activities in a language training programme from three different points of view or three different communication levels. In communication level 1, learners are expected to focus primarily on the formal features of language, including pronunciation, sentence patterns and vocabulary. In communication level 2, the focus will still be on language, but emphasis will have shifted from sentence structure to a consideration of the rules of discourse. In communication level 3, the focus of instruction will no longer be on the formal or functional features of language, but on the natural unanalyzed use of language by the learners in achieving a particular set of social, vocational or academic goals. At levels 2 and 3, however, the other types of practice (structural) remain in the background ready to be used as the need arises. Allen (Ibid:39) observes that by making use of a variable focus technique, "we give recognition to the fact that there are three types of practice (structural, functional, experiential) which interrelate, which are interdependent, and which co-exist at all levels of language learning."

Stern (1981:142) commenting on Allen's model, observes that his three-level curriculum scheme builds up on the structural approach of the 1960's and it combines it with a communicative element which clearly identifies linguistic, psychological and pedagogic approaches to communication but omits an important element: the sociocultural. Stern (Ibid:143), therefore, modifies Allen's three-level curriculum model and visualizes FL curriculum

for the 1980's (as well as the interpretation of CC) as fourfold:



The importance of sociocultural and sociolinguistic (appropriacy) aspects of CC are discussed in Chapter Five above (5.7.2.2.2). The experiential aspect in Stern's interpretation of CC above, in addition to the use of the FL for natural communicative purposes, would also imply the use of the FL as a medium of instruction. This type of communicative syllabus based on a variable focus is the one currently employed to teach Arabic at PCL, since the focus is on language study and practice as well as using Arabic as a medium of instruction. ⁽¹⁾

Type 4: Functional

In a communicative syllabus of the functional type, the objectives are stated primarily in terms of communicative functions, not in terms of linguistic items or in terms of ideational content (semantico-grammatical). The objectives determine the functions needed, and the functions determine the selection and sequencing of grammatical materials. The unit of organization in this syllabus is, therefore, functional. Thus in a purely functional syllabus, functional units will be used exclusively and any structural or linguistic units will be excluded, although the appropriate

(1) For more information, see TAFL at PCL in Chapter Four.

grammar and vocabulary will be selected for each functional unit.

This type of syllabus is beginning to be increasingly used for teaching Arabic for occupational purposes to diplomats, businessmen and other government officials going to work in the Middle East or North Africa.

Short Arabic courses based on the functional syllabus are currently being offered at SOAS, UKAS, PCL and Salford University.⁽¹⁾ The functional communicative syllabus is also being used by the American Foreign Service Institute to teach Arabic (Ryding 1984).

Since language use is derived from the objectives of the learners, this type of functional syllabus leads to Johnson's (1982) complaints of structural disorganization (as discussed above in syllabus Type 2).

In designing AL courses for specific purposes based on the functional syllabus at Salford University, Holes (1986:13) refutes this claim by arguing that: "real learners, as opposed to idealised ones, need bits of grammar and parts of the lexicon fed to them as and when they need and are ready for them; they rarely need to have mastered the whole of the past tense before being allowed to move onto the present or the imperative. Equally obviously, no learner can hope, and most never need, to have mastered the whole of the grammar (let alone the vocabulary) of any single code." In the production of a functional syllabus, a central function may be chosen for each unit or teaching exercise (such as agreeing/disagreeing) with subsidiary functions to support it (such as greeting, requesting, suggesting, eliciting and giving information, etc. in Arabic). These

(1) For more information about these courses, see Chapter Four above.

functions may then be matched to a general or real situation (e.g. giving instructions to staff in Arabic) and to specific topics (such as face to face interaction, speaking effectively on the phone in Arabic, etc.). The units or exercises are then filled out, often in the form of a role-play, dialogue or simulations. Only those linguistic forms and vocabulary items which will be minimally needed to achieve these objectives in spoken and written Arabic are introduced in the units. Although the functional syllabus has been criticized for providing 'phrase-book language' or for teaching only 'language-like behaviour' rather than developing CC in the wider sense, this type of syllabus can be extremely efficient in situations where a highly functional variety of Arabic is needed quickly.

Type 5: Fully Notional (Semantic)

In communicative syllabus Type 1, the structural-functional syllabus is in Wilkins's view the weakest form of an analytic syllabus. He considers the fully notional syllabus as the strongest form.⁽¹⁾ Wilkins (1976:18) observes that the starting-point in a notional⁽²⁾ syllabus is not the grammatical item to be taught as in a structural syllabus, but the desired 'communicative capacity' in which the content of learning (rather than the form) is specially adapted to the conditions of learning. He further

(1) Johnson (1982:115-8) also discusses the weak and strong claims for the notional syllabus.

(2) Wilkins (1976:18) borrows the term 'notional' from linguistics where grammars based on semantic criteria are commonly called 'notional grammars'. He, therefore, regards notional and semantic syllabuses as being largely synonymous (Ibid:24, n.3).

observes that in drawing up a notional syllabus: "instead of asking how speakers of the language express themselves or when and where they use the language, we ask what it is they communicate through language" (Ibid.). What the speaker or learner communicates through language is meaning and so the fully notional syllabus attempts to derive from an initial analysis of language, all types of meaning that can be expressed through language. Thus in Wilkins's (1976:21-4) view, all types of meaning in a notional or semantic syllabus can be represented by three general categories of meaning and use: semantico-grammatical, modal and communicative function. These are considered as the components of a notional syllabus. The semantico-grammatical category refers to the semantic relations expressed by the forms within the sentence which express concepts or conceptual meaning. This conceptual meaning has been diversely called 'cognitive', 'ideational' or 'proportional' meaning, but in general terms, it is the type of meaning that is expressed through grammatical systems in different languages. The second category is modal meaning or modality in which the perceptions and experience of the speaker (or writer) are expressed in attitudes towards what one is saying (or writing). This type of meaning is expressed by many linguistic devices such as grammatical (e.g. different moods or tenses of a verb), lexical or phonological (e.g. through intonation and stress). The third type of meaning identified by Wilkins are the categories of communicative functions⁽¹⁾ which are intended to handle the use of language by expressing

(1) The categories of communicative function is the most important part of his discussion of the three types of meaning and it is the least familiar to syllabus designers. He (Ibid:44-54) recognizes that there

functions or functional meaning (i.e. the social purpose of the utterance or sentence). This concerns the interactive process of what we do through language and not what is being reported or described, since for Wilkins what people want to do through language is more important than mastery of the language as an unapplied system. Thus the strongest form of an analytic syllabus, in the view of Wilkins, is reflected in his statement (Ibid:24):

... it is correspondingly possible to think in terms of a functional syllabus and a conceptual syllabus, although only a syllabus that covered both functional (and modal) and conceptual categories would be a fully notional syllabus.

Johnson (1982:142-3), on the other hand, finds that according to this strong claim the notional syllabus is a replacement for the structural syllabus and it "becomes a specification of means rather than ends; a set of 'excuses' to teach language rather than a list of areas of use for which a need to be taught has been identified." However, the Threshold Level (van Ek 1975), Waystage (van Ek and Alexander 1977) and other Council of Europe documents exemplify the fully notional syllabus in all its complexity. Yalden (1983:115) finds that the work of Munby (1978)

are six types of communicative function in the things that people do with language which are: judgement and evaluation; suasion (getting things done); argument; rational enquiry and exposition; personal emotions; and emotional relations. The categories may to some extent overlap one another and some functions could be placed equally well within more than one category in the system.

is an extension and elaboration of the works of Wilkins and van Ek by providing a further model for generating a fully notional syllabus, although it is suitable for learners whose proficiency in the FL has to be specified for very particular and essentially narrow purposes. A contemporary version of a fully notional syllabus is presented by Maley (1980) in which all components (such as linguistic, semantic, sociocultural as well as psycho-pedagogical) are braided together as in the following figure:

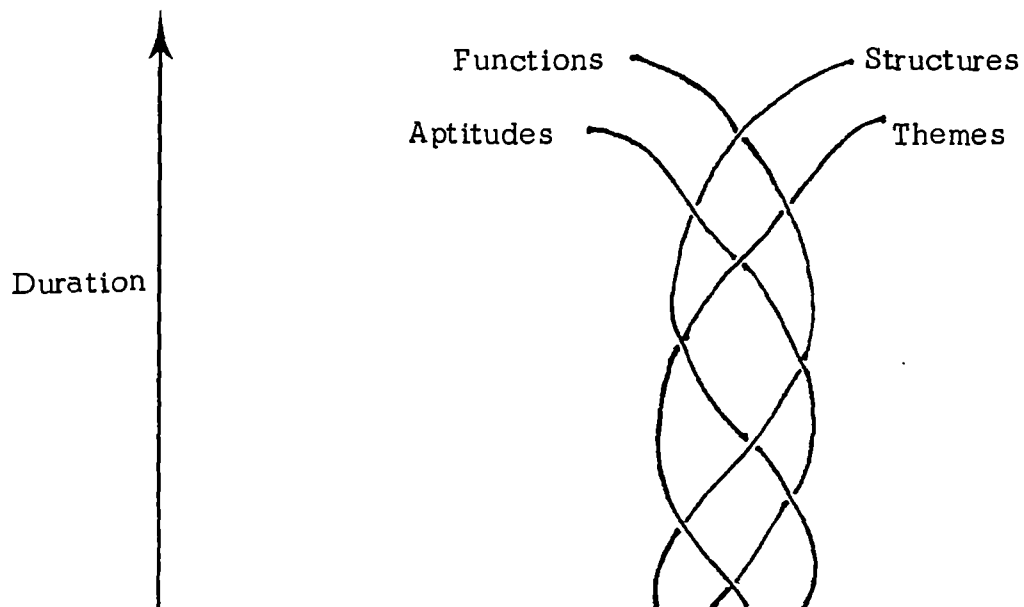


Fig. 8: A DNA Model of a Fully Notional Syllabus (Maley 1980:13)

Maley (Ibid:14) envisages this syllabus as "resembling a DNA model in which there are a number of interwoven strands, with nodes linking each strand to others." The strands, for Maley, would represent such components as structures and lexis; functions; skills; cognitive styles; personal and social development goals; themes; and so forth. The major focus in a given unit of material could be any one of these strands but

inter-connections with other strands could be made from any linking node. ⁽¹⁾ Thus, for Maley, in a course moving forward in time, it would be inevitable that much of the ground would be covered several times, but from different angles. In this model, Maley looks at the syllabus as an organic growth from the units of activity, and control over what is taught would be exercised by means of checklists of the items to be found on each of the strands. ⁽²⁾

Type 6: Fully Communicative

Yalden (1983:115) refers to the fully communicative or learner-centred/generated model of syllabus design as the 'end of the continuum' of the proposed solutions available. As suggested earlier, this type of

- (1) Maley (1980:14) provides an example of a unit in which the major focus could be developing the skill of deducing contextual/social features from a piece of conversation. "The piece of conversation could, however, also be thematically linked to a foregoing unit (to take a banal example, shopping), and functionally linked by focussing on the speech functions used by the participant" (Ibid.). In this way, structures, functions, themes and other components would be available to the teacher who would not necessarily have to exploit all of these options.
- (2) Maley (1980:14) refers to the checklists of items as those listed by Munby (1978:Ch.7). Munby presents a taxonomy of 260 language skills sub-categorized into 54 groups. The items in these groups cover such areas as sounds, intonation, stress, expressing/interpreting attitudinal and conceptual meaning, communicative value (function) of sentences and utterances, discourse, etc.

syllabus would have only the most minimal input syllabus, or none at all. Yalden (Ibid.) observes that the fully communicative syllabus has arisen principally out of a concern with methodological problems and their solutions as pointed out by Alexander (1975), Allwright (1979), Candlin and Breen (1980), Holec (1980), Newmark (1966, 1979) and others (mainly European applied linguists). Alexander (1975) indicates that in the Council of Europe documents (such as Threshold Level and Waystage), the syllabus designer has to develop his own framework or syllabus type for a course in which situational and behavioural specifications, language functions and general notions are provided. In developing a framework or syllabus type, Alexander (Ibid.) stresses that all courses based on 'functional-notional' models must take as their starting point that communication must be taught and is therefore the primary objective.

Concerning the lack of emphasis on the input syllabus, Yalden (1983:117) observes that: "in attempting to implement the CA in general education in which needs and target levels are hard to describe, some applied linguists ... generally show a strong preoccupation with methodology, teacher preparation and learner autonomy, considering these to be the cornerstones of language teaching, rather than the input syllabus."

These concerns are demonstrated in work of Newmark (1966, 1979).

Newmark (1979:162) basically argues that the isolation and abstraction of the learner from the contexts in which language is used (such as disconnected structural exercises) constitutes serious interference with the language learning process. For instance, he observes that in natural

FL learning, complete bits of language are learned a whole chunk at a time, particularly in the case of children speaking as native speakers in a foreign country. He (Ibid.) recognizes that learners have "the exponential power available in learning in natural chunks", thus, he prefers not to separate parts of the language from the whole. He makes an important and yet simple observation (Ibid:163): "as human beings we have always known how to teach other human beings to use a language: use it ourselves and let them imitate us as best they can at the time."⁽¹⁾ He states further that with either children or adults, we have no compelling reason to believe that this method is not both necessary and sufficient to teach a language. Finally, he (Ibid:165) discusses ways of making both the learning and acquisition process (in Krashen's sense)⁽²⁾ as independent of live teachers as possible with complete self-instruction in the use of the FL.

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- (1) Newmark (Ibid.) suggests that students learn by imitating someone else in the use of drama in the classroom in the form of 'imaginative role-play', 'acting out' dialogues and other forms of dramatic behaviour which provide natural contexts for the FL to be used in the classroom. He also stresses the need for controlling the size of the chunks of language displayed for imitation. Generally, smaller chunks could be used for attaining accuracy in learner's imitation and gradually larger chunks could be introduced, as the learner progresses in his skill in imitation.
- (2) Krashen's (1981) learning and acquisition distinction is discussed in Chapter Five (5.7.2.2.1).

In defence of a minimal language teaching strategy, Allwright (1979: 167) observes that for many years now 'communication' has been accepted as the proper aim for language teaching. He extends this argument by suggesting that if communication is THE aim, then it should be THE major element in the process of language teaching. He presents the argument in another manner:

Are we teaching language (for communication)?

or

Are we teaching communication (via language)?

Allwright observes that the two questions are not incompatible, but that there is a logical relationship between them that demands attention:

"it is the same relationship as that which holds between linguistic competence [LC] and communicative competence [CC]" (Ibid:167-8).

He recognizes that LC is part of CC (as indicated in our discussion of CC in Chapter Five (5.7.2.2)) but he stresses that if we focus on linguistic skills only, a large part of CC will be left untouched (in fact, three of the four areas of CC will not be covered, i.e. SLC, DC and SC), whereas if we focus on communication skills, most areas of LC will be developed. For language learning to take care of itself, Allwright (Ibid:170) suggests that the 'management activities'⁽¹⁾ of language teachers

(1) 'Management activities' of language teachers are explained by Allwright (Ibid:169) as activities directed at achieving and producing learning by ensuring the occurrence of selected 'samples' of the TL and selected forms of 'guidance' thought most appropriate by the teacher. By 'samples' of the TL, he refers to the spoken or written forms of teachers and learners language or teaching materials which may or may

be directed exclusively at involving the learners in solving communication problems in the TL in the form of games and other types of communication practice, both receptive (listening and reading) and productive (speaking and writing).

Yalden (1983:118) notes that the point of view represented by Allwright leads away from the concept of a well-developed plan of action in the form of a syllabus, to the point where it is difficult to consider it an approach to syllabus design in the usual sense at all. However, she (Ibid.) includes the possibility of negotiated syllabuses for adult learners, in which the learner would have a good deal to say about content and about learning strategies. In this case, Yalden agrees with Holec (1980)

not be intended as 'modal' samples, but they may simultaneously function as 'guidance'. By 'guidance', he refers to those concerning the nature of the TL. He (Ibid.) explains three main types of 'guidance':

- a. Rules, more or less explicit verbal formulations of characteristics of the TL (eg. the rich triliteral verb forms of Arabic).
- b. Cues, hints that draw the attention of the learner to features of the TL, but do not provide a rule or an explicit explanation (e.g. the use of underlining in blackboard work to draw attention to structural similarities or differences between two sample sentences).
- c. Simple knowledge of results, feedback that informs the learner about success or failure, from which the learner may be able to make inferences about the TL.

that self-direction would be necessary at all stages, including the definition of objectives and the choice of pedagogical techniques, as well as the monitoring of learning procedures. Finally, Yalden (Ibid.) views a fully communicative syllabus as: "a radical proposition with far-reaching implications in methodology, and it has been suggested, first, that it is not possible during the early stages of language learning, and second, that learners have to be led towards autonomy as they are not accustomed to it nor do they expect it in language learning situations."

Type 7: Procedural

The 'procedural' or 'task-based' syllabus is a communicative syllabus type proposed by Prabhu.⁽¹⁾ This syllabus has been reported extensively by Johnson (1982) as the procedural syllabus and by Brumfit (1984) as the 'Bangalore Project'. Prabhu's (1982:2) central hypothesis, which forms the basis of the project, is that: "structure can best be learned when attention is focussed on meaning." This hypothesis is an explicit formulation of what many communicatively-orientated teachers practise in which the primary focus of attention is on the performance of a task rather than on the language needed to perform it. This is presumably

(1) Prabhu (British Council English Study Officer in Madras) and the staff of the Regional Institute of English (Bangalore, South India) began an experimental project on the procedural syllabus in 1979. Johnson (1982:114, n.1) reports that a number of experts were directly or indirectly involved in the initiation of this project (including Widdowson), but due credit must be given to Prabhu and his colleagues for this stimulating work.

what occurs in L1 acquisition. There are two important consequences of this central hypothesis. The first, involves the abolition of any kind of linguistic syllabus and, the second, is to avoid any formal teaching procedures (such as drilling and error correction) in which the primary attention would be focussed on 'form' rather than 'meaning'.

The replaced linguistic syllabus (i.e. the procedural syllabus) is a 'syllabus of tasks' which are graded conceptually and grouped by similarity. The linguistic content is not specified but the tasks or activities needed in the content of lessons are specified and planned in advance. The communicative activities in this syllabus include a variety of tasks involving map reading, the interpretation of timetable, solving whodunits, etc. In the task of map reading, for example, maps and plans of a house, town or district are provided and learners are asked to follow directions (oral first, then written) of how to go from one place to another. The responses of the learners are also intended to be oral at first, then written. The tasks are usually preceded by pre-tasks in which the teacher performs a task similar to the one that learners will be asked to perform themselves, in interaction with the class, using whatever language seems appropriate for this purpose. In all situations, the teacher controls his classroom language in the same manner that an adult controls language in conversation with a child. The teacher, thus, avoids difficult language items beyond his audience, and consequently explains in simple language at early stages, freely glosses, rephrases and paraphrases structures and texts. By using these strategies to compensate for breakdowns in communication, this syllabus partly applies one of the four components

of CC, i.e. strategic competence (SC), as discussed in Chapter Five above (5.7.2.2.4). Prabhu (1982:3) observes that the materials of the syllabus have been written to exploit the following abilities in the learner:

1. the learner's natural desire to meet a challenge (i.e. to solve a problem to prove that he can do so);
2. the preoccupation with meaning or thinking which such problem-solving necessarily brings about; and
3. the incidental struggle with language-use which such activity engenders.

Concerning informal evaluation of the procedural syllabus, Brumfit (1984: 104) observes that following the pre-task and the main task, there is normally some direct evaluation in which learners discover whether they have successfully solved the problem, but they receive no intentional evaluation of the English they have produced. According to Johnson (1982:138), this project utilizes an interesting concept, that of 'incubation'. The learners do not hear and practise the linguistic items in a systematic way, since the methodology avoids any drilling practice of such items and also because they are not specified. Concerning this, Johnson (Ibid.) states that: "the result may be a long period of 'incubation' between the time that an item is first heard and its mastery by the student." Johnson makes a second point concerning exposure to the language, which he regards as a potential criticism of this syllabus. He (Ibid.) claims that there is no way of ensuring adequate coverage of the language, in the absence of any structural or semantic planning. As regards structures, however, he (Ibid:139) notes that the criticism is convincingly met by the

argument that: "since the grammatical system is finite and generative, its main areas are certain to be covered (over a period of time) by any set of activities." He (Ibid:144) develops this argument and observes that: "any structure which does not occur in a range of communicative activities is unlikely to be of central importance." An important feature of the procedural syllabus is that the minimum of technology is used. There is no need for modern language laboratories, tape recorders, and other expensive equipment, only pencil, paper, blackboard and chalk are required.

Commenting on the results of the project, Johnson (Ibid:139) observes that towards the end of the first year learners were beginning to use structures which they had apparently not been taught in their previous years of English, and to which there was little likelihood of them having been exposed outside the classroom. "The results of an evaluation test are impressive, but the experimenters are cautious in their claims and are well aware of the evaluation problems⁽¹⁾ associated with large-scale experimentation" (Ibid.). However, Johnson finally notes that more important perhaps than any formal evaluation is the experimenters' conviction that the approach is succeeding.

(1) One of the problems of experimental evaluation is the 'Hawthorne effect' which is a situation in which learners try their best to perform better (than in normal situations) in a test because they know they are being tested as part of an experiment.

Type 8: Proportional (Interactive)

As a means of reconciling the views presented in the first six types of communicative syllabuses above, Yalden (1983:Ch.7) proposes a tentative solution in the form of a single framework for FL syllabus design. Yalden calls this type of syllabus or framework a 'balanced' or 'proportional approach' and elsewhere she (1985) refers to it as an 'interactive approach' to syllabus design. Yalden (1983:120) observes that a communicatively oriented language teaching programme need not be dominated by any syllabus types discussed above (i.e. referring only to the first six types), although she recognizes the possibility of choosing one or another of these types for very short courses. But, for longer courses such as those for schools and in higher education, she looks for a solution elsewhere to provide guidance for FL teachers as well as syllabus designers. This is exemplified by the following statement (Ibid.):

For longer courses, or for sequences or levels of instruction within a structural curriculum, a balanced or proportional approach would seem to allow the syllabus designer the most freedom to respond to changing or newly-perceived needs in the learners, and at the time provide a framework for the teacher who may not be able or willing to 'go fully communicative' and enter the classroom with nothing save a collection of authentic material. A proportional syllabus

comprises a large number of possible variations and can be implemented in most of the L2 teaching situations with which we are familiar. ⁽¹⁾

Leading up to the development of the proportional syllabus, Yalden (Ibid:120-3) suggests the use of an important principle, 'the principle of balance', by which stages of both formal and functional areas of language can be reached in a balanced progression. She illustrates this principle in four separate figures: the first figure represents the elementary level of CC in a balanced system; the second, represents the intermediate level; the third, represents the advanced level; and

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- (1) Janice Yalden is currently applying this approach in a large-scale and enterprising project at the Centre for Applied Language Studies, Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada (Yalden 1985). This project was established by the Senate of Carleton University in January 1981, as the CALS Frameworks Project. CALS is presently carrying out a number of functions relating to the design and implementation of specific-purpose courses (especially to government institutions and private business), as well as responsibilities toward the Modern language departments of the university and their more general FL courses. In addition to this, CALS includes work with the School of Continuing Education to set up non-credit courses in many other languages (over 30 languages are offered, including Arabic). Since Arabic is included as one of the languages in this project, CALS is of particular interest to this thesis in providing validity of the CA to the teaching of Arabic mainly because no large-scale empirical research has been done so far on the application and testing (experimental) of the CA to TAFL.

the fourth, represents the three levels all together. Since the fourth figure represents all the three levels of CC put together, it is the one shown below to describe this principle clearly:

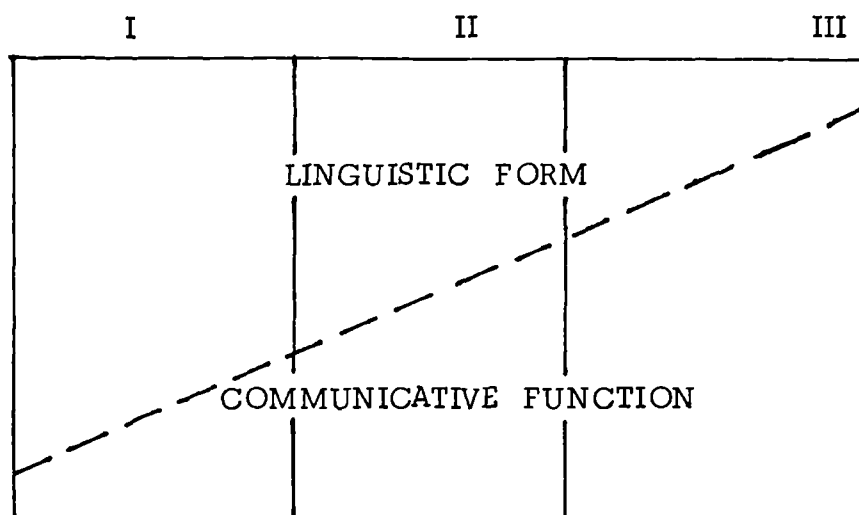


Fig. 9: Three Levels of CC in a Balanced System (Yalden 1983:122)

The basic assumption of this principle is Yalden's conviction that once one is committed to the teaching of communicative function in a FL programme, it becomes almost impossible to postpone such teaching for very long. For example, if we are designing a general Arabic language course at an elementary level (Level 1 of figure) of CC, this principle recommends beginning with grammar and pronunciation (the formal linguistic area) only, but work on the language functions (interpersonal area) and discourse skills (textual area) in Arabic must be introduced fairly early, and in time emphasis on this component can be increased. In Level 1 then, the teaching of the linguistic system of Arabic would receive more attention than the teaching of communicative function (functions and discourse skills). In Level II, the linguistic system

still occupies an important place, but communicative function (interpersonal and textual areas) gains increasing prominence as the course progresses. In Level III, linguistic form may be considered only when the need arises while work on communicative functions continues to receive more and more attention. Yalden (Ibid.) observes that while both formal and functional areas have their place, "linguistic form is gradually de-emphasized and communicative functions and discourse skills are given more prominence as teacher and student progress toward the end of the advanced level (Level III)." The whole area^{of} notions and topics (also situations and themes) is not shown in the figure above as a separate component, since a needs survey undertaken as part of the process of planning the syllabus will indicate this in the case of adolescents and adults.

In the application of a balanced syllabus to Arabic, the teaching of formal and functional areas may not be strictly separated. The divisions shown in each level of the above figure represent differences of proportion in time allocated to the teaching of each component of Arabic. "They do not indicate that the two must be kept separate; indeed, it is assumed that it is for the most part impossible to do so" (Ibid:123). Another principle adopted by Yalden, leading up to the development of the proportional syllabus, is that which permits shifts of emphasis or focus onto different components of CC⁽¹⁾ or different pedagogical strategies,

(1) In addition to LC and DC, SLC and SC are discussed in Chapter Five above (5.7.2.2).

according to circumstances. Thus, Yalden (Ibid.) observes that:
 "in this conception the selection and implementation of different approaches to syllabus design at different points in the preparation of an overall language-teaching program is permitted."

Turning now to the proportional syllabus itself, Yalden (Ibid:124) provides the following model:

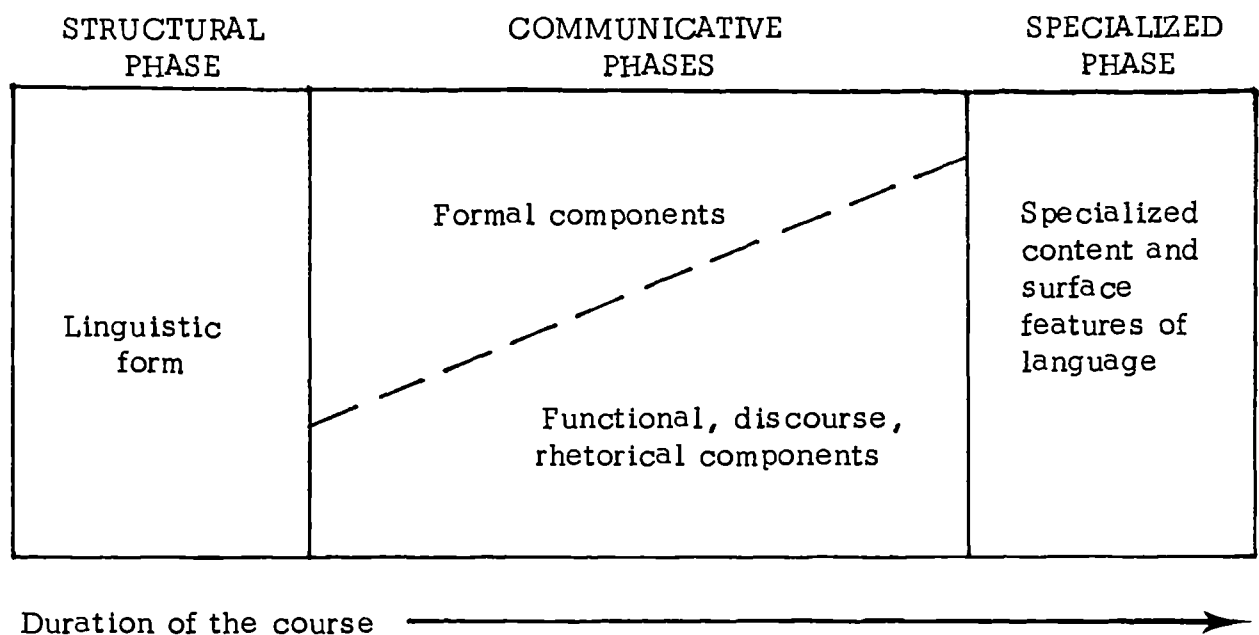


Fig. 10: The Proportional Syllabus (Yalden 1983:124)

For complete beginners or ab initio learners of Arabic, this model provides an initial structural phase mainly for formal and ideational layers of meaning.⁽¹⁾ Yalden finds it essential to provide some basic knowledge

(1) The ideational layers of meaning are the semantico-grammatical category of Wilkins, as discussed in syllabus Type 5 above.

of the systematic (i.e. linguistic) or categorical side of language before one can expect learners to go on to a more interactive mode of learning and this phase may not last long. In agreeing with Allwright (1979:170) that absolute beginners cannot be expected to solve communication problems, Yalden (1983:124) provides the basic assumption of the initial phase by adopting "the position that although CC includes LC, it is possible to teach grammatical competence before teaching sociolinguistic competence." By including the idea of a balanced progression, as shown in Figure 9 above, the proportional syllabus allows a shift of emphasis to teach speech acts and discourse skills in oral language at a relatively early stage (i.e. the communicative phases). Yalden (Ibid.) observes that once communicative work in oral language has been attended to sufficiently (in the communicative phases), emphasis could be shifted once more at the more advanced levels to rhetorical functions (especially in written language) as well as on recurrently troublesome features of surface language (in the specialized phase). Once communicative performance is under way, a return to some work on form is permitted. Finally, this model can be extended to include more purely instrumental or experiential learning in subject areas (as in immersion education where other subjects are taught in the FL) or the FL itself as a medium of instruction.

Yalden (Ibid:124-37) also considers four important questions directly relevant to the proportional approach to syllabus design in which an attempt is made to 'braid together' all the different components of CC. These questions concern the selection and sequencing of linguistic items,

the system and non-system of the FL, and ways of varying the proportions and methodology in this model. Each question is taken in turn and discussed with other relevant research in this area.

1. Selection and Sequencing of Linguistic Items⁽¹⁾

Concerning the selection and sequencing of linguistic items to be taught in a particular communicative course in Arabic, lists and inventories have been suggested (in Stage IV of AL programme development above) for their selection but the question of their sequencing or arrangement (also referred to a 'grading' or 'gradation') in the syllabus specifications still remains. Yalden (Ibid:125) points out that exactly what kind of progression should be followed in arranging linguistic items is not yet resolved, but there is still support for approaching the linguistic component of CC systematically rather than unsystematically. Yalden, therefore, finds that it is more economical to arrange for systematic treatment of the formal component and, in line with Corder (1973:97) and Shaw (1975:235), suggests that the treatment should be spiral or cyclical rather than linear in order to accommodate other components of CC. Shaw (Ibid.) observes that spiralling may be used for sequencing: "whereby communicative objectives are initially taught with relatively simple linguistic realizations and with successively more difficult realizations at successive stages." Yalden (Ibid.), on the other hand, reports that a

(1) Shaw (1975:Ch.2) deals with this question thoroughly. He also discusses the selection and sequencing of lexical items and suggests a useful checklist.

good deal of research in verbal behaviour supports the spiral approach and notes that: "the practice of an item distributed over a period of time leads to better retention than if the item had been practised once and then set aside. Recall is strengthened, furthermore, if an item is encountered in a different context each time." (1)

Other criteria for the sequencing of grammatical forms have been suggested by Canale and Swain (1980:21-2). These are noted in Chapter Five above (5.6.3). As mentioned there, they (Ibid.) have suggested six criteria including that of grammatical complexity. Yalden (1983:126) finds that grammatical complexity remains one of the main difficulties for the FL learner and it ought to be carefully considered in relation to other aspects of the syllabus. According to Yalden's model of FL programme development, a needs survey would reveal these other aspects of the syllabus, therefore, she notes that it is not possible to provide any more clear-cut guidance at present but, she observes that: "tried and true handbooks of grammar will very likely continue to be used by syllabus designers, teachers and learners as before" (Ibid.). This will presumably have to be the case for Arabic, as long as they are used for reference purposes and not an end in themselves, particularly in the absence of a communicative grammar of Arabic. Yalden (Ibid.) warns

(1) Another interesting piece of research done by Corder (1981) is of interest to us here. As discussed in Chapter Five above (5.7.2.2.1), this research indicates that some sort of natural sequence in the internalization of some grammatical aspects of LC are present in each language.

that if the linguistic system is not approached systematically and the learner's progress goes unmonitored, there exists the potential for fossilization at too early a stage, and progress towards a desirable standard of grammatical accuracy may be forestalled. In the communicative phases of this model, there would be a variety of exercises and activities in which formal exercises from the structural core would make up only one type. Concerning this, Yalden (Ibid:127) makes the following statement in which the concept of changing focus is central to this approach of syllabus design:

... in the proportional syllabus, there will be a range of exercise types including formal exercises treating linguistic structures and formal exercises focussing on functional aspects of language (including rhetorical skills); as well as communicative activities focussing on either structural or functional or semantic aspects of language.

2. System and Non-System of the FL

For Arabic, the system would refer to the highly systematic element of CC, the linguistic component, while the non-system would refer to a number of unsystematic elements of CC in Arabic such as meaning, speech acts, speech events, communicative functions and discourse skills which have not yet been sufficiently studied and described in detail. In discussing this question, Yalden is concerned with how to sequence the elements identified as necessary or useful from the system and non-system into the content of the FL syllabus. Yalden (Ibid:127) finds that probably Johnson (1980) provides the best solution to this problem by discussing

the importance of Candlin and Breen's (1980) 'nature of communication' arguments which lead one to think in terms of some combination of the system and non-system of a FL. In the light of this solution, Yalden (Ibid:128) thus suggests that the kind of combination required is one in which teaching is redefined in order to make sure of two things:

- i. that more learned language (in Krashen's sense, i.e. conscious learning) finds its way into the acquired system (i.e. subconscious learning) by providing more effective kinds of classroom language.
- ii. the acquired language needs to be used and consolidated.

Although communication itself is unsystematic and unpredictable, systematically learned and organized language is used to achieve it and thus, she (Ibid.) suggests that: "this systematically-learned language needs to become part of the language system used as unconsciously as possible." To achieve this, she observes that communicative activities now being proposed in the literature provide us with the 'activation techniques' which have so far been missing from teachers' repertoire.

Johnson (1980), on the other hand, provides a 'sequential' solution to the problem of these systematic and non-systematic components, whereby the non-systematic areas could be treated in terms of the needs survey which would reflect the learner's own wishes and desires and the language needs this learner would have as a potential member of an occupational or professional group.

3. Varying the Proportions

On the third question of varying the proportions in a proportional syllabus, Yalden (Ibid:129) suggests that since the proportional syllabus consists

of a number of segments, the boundaries between formal and communicative teaching approaches may be varied to suit the local requirements of the situation, and also the time devoted to the systematic component of CC and the non-systematic ones may be similarly varied. As Johnson (1980) suggested above that the non-systematic areas could be treated in terms of the needs survey, Yalden (Ibid.), on the other hand, points out that a variety of helpful suggestions have been offered on the sequencing of these non-systematic components. One of these is to label the non-systematic components as 'interactive skills' in which appropriate functions can be chosen and connected into a text. Yalden (Ibid.) suggests that teaching skills of this nature may be approached primarily through the classification of communicative functions, in which predictability could be a possible continuum. The most predictable functions can then be chosen and emphasized. For instance, Yalden (Ibid.) observes that the most predictable functions in speech are firstly, ritual functions, then, initiating functions and lastly, response functions which are least static since they build on what one's interlocutor has said. Another important solution for the sequencing of the non-systematic components of CC is suggested by Guntermann and Phillips (1981). They provide three criteria for selecting functions:

- i. immediacy of need (classroom functions);
- ii. generalizability (to other situations); and
- iii. complexity (of form).

For general courses, Yalden (Ibid:130) observes that this criterion is a practical approach which could be very helpful in the process of syllabus

design and it provides flexibility to the question of sequencing functions. However, there is the danger in the teaching process of treating the functions in isolation. To prevent this, Yalden recommends following Widdowson's (1978) advice that teaching activities should be related to authentic samples of discourse, since research in discourse analysis is indicating how FL teaching can be enriched by including exercises and activities based on real texts, spoken as well as written. Accordingly, the types of texts studied will provide an insight for work on discourse skills and rhetorical functions.

4. Varying the Methodology

As for the fourth and last question on varying the methodology, Yalden (Ibid:131) observes that there are many unexplored areas left in syllabus design, including the question of how prescriptive one ought to be about methodology in preparing the syllabus content and the pedagogical syllabus (Stages IV and V of AL programme development). She states that: "clearly one can no longer talk in terms of 'the' syllabus or 'the' method. But as long as we think in terms of shifting focus or emphasis in the proportional syllabus, we must also think of shifting or varying methodology." As can be noticed above in syllabus Type 3: Variable Focus, Allen (1980) suggested three focuses: structural, functional and experiential or instrumental, and Stern (1981) suggested one more: sociocultural. It seems that each one of these requires different teaching methodologies, and teaching techniques may be devised which will treat all four types variably as well. Thus, Yalden suggests that major concerns regarding the selection of teaching techniques to be used in any given

segment of a proportional syllabus should be the provision for variety and for shifting the focus, together with some consideration of Krashen's observations on the encouragement of language acquisition rather than language learning. The linguistic system of Arabic, for example, may be taught early in a programme and all of it may be covered in varying degrees, but the other components of CC should also be taught to enrich the teaching programme.

Just as it can be noticed above how the different communicative syllabus types could be ranged on a continuum, in the same manner, Yalden (Ibid:132) finds that the enormous variety of classroom techniques available today to the FL teacher also reflect this continuum, but warns that choices of classroom techniques have to be made at the level of implementation which are consistent with the overall approach adopted. Yalden (Ibid.) observes that Littlewood (1978) provides a convenient framework for looking at the question of methodology when he identifies three fields that are currently being explored in the search for an approach appropriate to the CA. These three fields consider retaining old techniques, new teaching techniques and communication as a primary technique. Each one of these proposals is discussed below.

A. Retain Old Techniques

The first proposal in search of communicative methodology is concerned with how to retain old techniques by adapting them to reflect the functional component of meaning more clearly. Yalden (Ibid.) finds that this is a widely adopted position, familiar by now particularly in North America.

Among these techniques still used extensively are dialogues and drills. The focus has moved partially to function from form, which makes the FL a little more realistic to learners. In most cases, however, the dialogues and drills are still controlled, i.e. they are close-ended in which questions, answers, responses, etc. are restricted to the use of certain type of language only and, therefore, they are not open-ended. In other cases, the dialogue frames have been opened up for more open-ended answers and responses by the learners. These old techniques have been derived from the A-LM, as discussed in Chapter Three above. The teaching of Arabic in American universities is currently following this pattern.

B. New Teaching Techniques

The second proposal in search of communicative methodology considers the possibility of developing new teaching techniques in which the learners are given opportunities for using the FL more naturally in the classroom. This represents the mainstream view of communicative language teaching today. Communicative activities are a major focus in these new teaching techniques in which the classroom is made to resemble the FL environment for language acquisition to take place in a natural way. Materials in the FL may have to be specially produced and the content can be graded in various ways. Some of the main communicative activities are adequately described by Yalden (Ibid:133) below:

The chief techniques now being employed are communication tasks and games, and simulations and role play. In the former, there are two basic principles: information gap among the learners themselves, and a reason for bridging the gap. In the latter, real-life situations are simulated and the learners are assigned specific roles to play and goals to reach.

More recent techniques include problem-solving and inferencing abilities. Some of these techniques have begun to be used to teach Arabic at Salford University (Holes 1986 and Mustapha 1986), on 'The Schools' Arabic Project' (Appendix C) and the American Foreign Service Institute (Ryding 1984). The literature on communicative language teaching techniques is increasing in books and articles in journals of applied linguistics. Among recent publications which describe these techniques are Johnson (1982), Johnson and Morrow (1981), Littlewood (1981), Maley and Duff (1982), Olsen (1982), Brumfit (1984) and Clark and Hamilton (1984). Since communicative activities can be a problem in the early stages of FL teaching, Yalden prefers a little delay in the introduction of communicative work in her proportional syllabus. In all situations and at all levels, however, she agrees with Alexander (1979) that the teacher may need considerable skill as a manager to conduct these activities successfully. Thus, we notice again that the CC of the Arabic teacher is crucial in communicative language teaching.

C. Communication as a Primary Technique

The third field currently being explored considers communication as a

primary technique. This technique is completely outside the traditional framework of presentation, practice and free expression common to most methodologies and some of them are even outside applied linguistics and language teaching. Yalden (1983:134) observes that according to this view, the answer to the question of what we are doing as language teachers is not that "we are teaching language through communication," but that: "we are teaching communication through language." Thus, no attempt is made in these techniques to present any aspect of the elements of communication in a systematic way since the focus is off language completely. The methods which exhibit a tendency towards communication as a primary technique noted by Yalden (Ibid.) are Gattegno's Silent Way, Curran's Community Language Learning, Asher's Total Physical Response and Lozanov's Suggestopedia.⁽¹⁾ Bilingual Education or immersion teaching of French in Canada and Welsh in Wales could be said to belong in this area also, since there is no instruction on linguistic form at the early stages.⁽²⁾ Immersion teaching is considered as a natural version of the CA.

Turning to the question of which method and techniques to choose for the proportional syllabus from the three proposals discussed above, we now ask whether old techniques be retained, or new ones introduced or whether to adopt only communication as a primary technique in teaching Arabic. Yalden

(1) Each one of these methods is briefly discussed above in this chapter (6.4) as the methodological proposals of the 1970's.

(2) Immersion teaching is also briefly discussed above in this chapter (6.4).

(1983:136) believes that there is no reason at present to adopt only one or discard any of these possibilities for FL teaching, as long as they fit into the overall conception of a given syllabus. Therefore, she suggests that the syllabus designer working within a proportional approach will use materials from all three methodological camps. When choices are being made, the following factors will be taken into account: "the level of a particular course, its purpose, its target criteria, the characteristics of the learners, the degree of preparation of the teacher" (Ibid.). The guiding principles for Yalden are rich variety and concern for the characteristics of 'intake',⁽¹⁾ and a certain amount of tracking⁽²⁾

- (1) The term 'intake' is borrowed from Krashen. Krashen (1978:22) defines 'intake' as: "that input language that acquirers can actually utilize for language acquisition." According to Yalden (1983:137), Krashen speculates that 'intake' may have the following four characteristics:
1. it is understood by the acquirer;
 2. it is slightly in advance of the acquirer's current stage of grammatical competence;
 3. it gets progressively more complex (though the optional sequence is not obvious, and it is not possible to derive it from a linguistic description only); and
 4. it is natural communication.
- (2) Yalden (1983:137) observes that charts in the form of tracking grids will be required to ensure that a course is progressing within the suggested framework. Examples of guide charts are provided in Jupp and Hodlin (1975), Finocchiaro (1979) and Alexander (1975). Yalden also provides three examples of tracking grids in Appendix V (Ibid.) which may serve as guides for mapping or tracking components of a given syllabus and to inspire the production of teaching materials. The first grid is on 'rolesets and topics'; the second, on 'combining exercises and rhetorical, discourse and study skills'; and the third, on 'language programme modification.'

to ensure that a course is progressing within the framework suggested by the syllabus designer. However, she (Ibid.) warns that: "to adhere exclusively to one or other of the methodological alternatives would be unwise, and would impair both the flexibility and the balance of the proportional approach."

Finally, Yalden (Ibid.) envisages the proportional model as being three-dimensional rather than two-dimensional, so that all the strands of components of a communicative syllabus are combined as well as the provision for the necessary variety of learning activities. The three dimensions are listed below for clarity:

1st Dimension : the duration of the course,

2nd Dimension : the true balance achieved among the components of CC (as shown in Fig. 9 above); and

3rd Dimension : the range of methodological techniques used to implement the syllabus - which can also be regarded as a stage subsequent to the preparation of the syllabus content, i.e. as a pedagogical syllabus.

6.6. Summary and Conclusion

After considering the important and essential elements of the CA in the previous chapter (Chapter Five), this chapter on communicative syllabus design (CSD) attempts to bridge the gap between theory and practice by investigating the wider issues of Arabic language (AL) pedagogy: that of syllabus design. In designing AL syllabuses, according to recent research findings, we cannot restrict our choices to teaching only the

linguistic system of Arabic. The number of internal and external variables involved in planning an overall AL course or programme are too numerous. Since language teaching is a social behaviour and thus cannot be an exact science, the increase in the number of variables has led to the assumption that there can be no perfect syllabus or even a perfect teaching method in TAFL. Therefore, the need for a compromise is essential so that the teaching of Arabic can be adapted to different teaching situations. The compromise factor has given rise to a practical set of basic principles in CSD to be used as a guideline for the development of FL teaching programmes. This chapter, therefore, adopts some of the most relevant elements of this guideline as a basis for developing the overall process of designing communicative Arabic syllabuses.

In the second section of the chapter (6.2), the use of the terms curriculum and syllabus is defined and clarified. It is suggested that although the syllabus is seen as a plan for any part of the curriculum (i.e. a part of the 'whole'), it can also be considered as a 'whole' in itself by including the four basic elements of FL curriculum development (namely the objectives, content, method and organization, and evaluation). These four elements are considered as the minimum requirements for AL course design and programme development, in the wider sense. The next section (6.3) considers the importance of both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic research in designing AL programmes. Psycholinguistics is suggesting ways of activating the subconscious process of language acquisition by focussing on the message of communication rather than the sole or traditional focus on linguistic form and thus, it is suggesting theories of

FL acquisition. Sociolinguistics, on the other hand, is suggesting ways of designing FL courses by beginning with the needs of language learners and the description of communicative functions that can be expressed through language use in a particular social context (i.e. the rules of communication) and therefore, it is suggesting theories of syllabus design. In applied linguistics, both these research areas are considered as two theoretical approaches to communicative language teaching. Research in these new, important and relevant disciplines in FL teaching and learning is still in its infancy, let alone having an impact on TAFL. In order to teach Arabic more efficiently, systematically and objectively, we need to examine closely both the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of TAFL in relation to recent research findings in these areas.

The fourth section of the chapter (6.4) deals with the overall process of AL programme development. Both the theories of FL acquisition and syllabus design are considered relevant to this process and both these viewpoints have agreed on three basic points: that CC is an appropriate goal at all levels of instruction; the common language forms to be used in communication; and that teaching should be learner-centred. However, there is one major point of disagreement: the appropriate starting point in the design and implementation of a FL programme. The first viewpoint generally advocates beginning with communicative methodology and the second, with syllabus design. It seems that although for short-term specific purpose AL courses, the first viewpoint may be applicable, for

large-scale general AL programmes, we need to consider both viewpoints. From the advocates of communicative methodology, we can obtain three major contributions: general principles of classroom interaction; access to the use of authentic samples of Arabic; and a wide range of teaching methodology. From the theories of syllabus design, we can gain the tools for the construction of outline plans of the content of AL courses. The sub-section (6.4.1) proposes ten vital components of a communicative Arabic syllabus and these are considered as essential for the development of CC in Arabic. The second sub-section (6.4.2) is concerned mainly with the eight stages of AL programme development. Each one of these stages is briefly and adequately described in Table 4. These stages are intended to be used as a guide to the overall process of planning an AL course and not as an end in themselves. Therefore, in many situations, existing Arabic programmes may need to be modified by including previously omitted stages instead of starting from scratch. In simple terms, this would mean the inclusion of essential aspects language functions and communication skills in Arabic, and also by adopting the content of the syllabus as closely as possible to the language needs of specific or general groups of Arabic learners. Although all of these eight stages are vitally important in designing AL courses based on the principles of the CA, the following stages need special attention since they might have been neglected or overlooked in the past: needs survey, selection of syllabus type, teaching training, evaluation and the recycling stage. The last stage seems to be crucial to the overall success of an AL course and indeed, Yalden (1983:96) observes that as long as the recycling stage is

retained, the model remains flexible and dynamic and without it, the whole process is rigid and irresponsive to any sort of change or reassessment.

The fifth section of the chapter (6.5) is an extension of Stage III (i.e. selection or development of syllabus type) of AL programme development. It discusses eight well-developed communicative syllabus types available today in communicative language teaching. These range from a modification of existing grammatical or literature-based syllabus to a completely learner-centred approach in which there would be no specified syllabus at all. The eight communicative syllabus types are: structural-functional, structures and functions, variable focus, functional, fully notional (semantic), fully communicative, procedural, and the proportional (interactive) syllabus. From these syllabus types, it is possible for AL programme planners and teachers to decide which communicative syllabus type (or types) is best suited to their local teaching situation. However, it seems that in most practical situations where Arabic is taught on a permanent basis such as those in an academic setting, the proportional syllabus may be the best solution to adopt since it emphasizes the principle of balance between linguistic form and communicative functions, as well as focussing on the different components of CC.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH NEEDS

7.1. Main Conclusion

The main issue confronted throughout the thesis is concern with the problem of how to teach Arabic actively and as a living language. In many quarters, Arabic is still taught as a classical mental discipline, resulting in inadequate teaching methods and practices. Should we be content with the current state of affairs or should we be thinking of alternatives?

In the past, it was assumed that since the nature of the AL was different from the teaching of other FLs (particularly European languages), the teaching of Arabic could not benefit from the success of teaching a European language or even teaching English as a FL. Although the teaching of Arabic cannot exactly be equated to the teaching of a European language, the evidence in the literature on FL acquisition indicates that the learning processes that an individual learner goes through are practically the same in all languages. It seems that the traditional methods of teaching Arabic have created more serious untreatable learning problems than the nature of the AL itself. The exclusive use of the G-TM, as in traditional Arabic textbooks, actually inhibits production of speech because students are trained to think in terms of paradigms. Also, the dangers of presenting Arabic grammar as an object in itself (in its decontextualized form) or as a decoding system, postpones the development of the learner's ability to communicate in Arabic and divorces language learning from its essential interpersonal nature.

In order to bring about genuine and constructive improvements in TAPL, we

need to examine seriously the field of applied linguistics and other modern linguistic sciences so that we can capitalize by reaping the success in these areas and by adopting or adapting the relevant areas to AL pedagogy. The work covered in this thesis represents some of the essential foundation-work necessary to bring about such improvements in TAFL by providing solutions to some of the problems which arise in the course of planning, organizing and implementing an AL programme. This thesis is, therefore, intended as a practical guide or a tool to be used by AL programme developers, syllabus designers and teachers so that they are aware of the enormous complexities involved in TAFL today and what exactly needs to be done by developing their own judgements and defining their own theoretical and practical positions in teaching Arabic.

Let us now consider what we have done to add to our knowledge of teaching Arabic as a FL or a L2. Chapter One introduces the importance of looking at TAFL from a wider perspective than had previously been assumed. We have done this by investigating the nature of language and language teaching, and the values and objectives of FL study. This chapter provides us with a synoptic view or a 'map' to guide us along the path of good language teaching practice by looking at TAFL from a comprehensive point of view. The discussion on the nature of language (1.2) indicates that in Arabic, we are confronted by a finite or systematic (i.e. the linguistic system of Arabic) and an infinite or an unsystematic aspect (i.e. linguistic creativity or communication). Both these aspects of Arabic are discussed in the subsequent chapters of the thesis. The discussion on the nature of language teaching (1.3) suggests how other disciplines impinge on TAFL.

We need to consider the role of four disciplines which are necessary for teaching Arabic namely psychology for the theory of learning in general, psycholinguistics for the theory of learning Arabic, sociolinguistics for a theory of using Arabic in society, and general linguistics for a theory of the AL itself and its description (Fig. 1). Linguistics alone cannot be considered as a sufficient basis for teaching Arabic. In addition to this, we need a conceptual framework that also considers the practical aspects of teaching Arabic such as methodology, organization and other factors which consist of the substance of AL pedagogy. This conceptual framework is represented by a general model for L2 teaching (Fig. 2). The most important feature that can be obtained from this model is to view the problems of TAFL not as a single-factor or a single-discipline approach, but as a multifactor, multidisciplinary and multilevel approach. Although we are still far away from developing an adequate and fully comprehensive theory of TAFL, this model also points to the importance and the complementary roles of theory, research and practice. Some of the important aspects of this model are taken up in other chapters of the thesis. The section on the values and objectives of FL study (1.4), provides us with an insight on how to plan our objectives in teaching Arabic as a living language. In view of the fact that today's learners, whose attitudes and interests have grown much wider than before, expect much more than the ability to only read Arabic, carefully planned and clearly defined objectives are of paramount importance in designing efficient AL programmes. One cannot ignore lightly the findings of a world-wide survey of FL learners' goals which overwhelmingly rated oral

communication as a primary objective of most FL learners. In addition to this, we need to ask our own learners what they expect in learning Arabic so that appropriate measures can be taken to try and accommodate their needs.

Chapter Two outlines the nature and importance of the AL in a wide context. From the nature of the AL, we gain access to one of the basic tools or reference sources of AL pedagogy: the finite or systematic aspect of Arabic, i.e. the linguistic rules. The linguistic description of Arabic can be divided into four parts: phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. The first three parts seem to be well-developed and adequately described in the literature but Arabic semantics seem to be the least developed part of Arabic (i.e. excluding meaning at the word level). We have attempted to provide a brief view of Arabic semantics and have also indicated some research areas that need to be developed so that we can have a better understanding of different categories of meaning in Arabic (both written and spoken) such as communicative functions, contextual and cultural factors affecting meaning, rhetorical and discourse rules, and prosodic and paralinguistic features of communication in Arabic, without which a description of the language is incomplete. In the traditional teaching of Arabic, the describable part such as words and structures are taught to students as an end in themselves without taking into consideration contextual factors and appropriacy. It was assumed that at more advanced stages, the student would pick up on his own how to use that which has not been described (i.e. linguistic creativity or communication). This was too optimistic

a view to take for, in the majority of cases, this did **not** occur. It seems that by stripping Arabic apart and teaching it in its decontextualized form, we might be doing the learner a disservice by not putting it back together in meaningful contexts. In teaching Arabic as communication, we need to think of more meaningful contexts and situations where the linguistic system can be used appropriately right from the beginning of a course.

The discussion on FL teaching approaches and methods in Chapter Three provides an important historical perspective to our arguments for teaching Arabic as a living language. For an understanding of the language teaching background, we need an analysis of the history of language teaching (Fig. 2) to provide us with an insight into present-day thought and trends in order that we can find directions for future growth in TAFL. We have noticed how the teaching of Arabic has fallen prey to the G-TM in Britain and the A-LM in the USA. The history of FL teaching indicates that teaching methods generally followed a single-factor and single-discipline approach by oversimplifying the issues and in quest for the best method concept. The result has been the concentration on certain procedures and techniques at the expense of learners' needs, content and objectives of FL study. This approach is represented by the formalist views of language and language teaching (Fig. 3) which aim mainly at linguistic perfection or LC through teacher-centred learning. Opposing this view is the functionalist view which had made itself heard throughout this century. The functionalist view of language and language teaching had been slowly gaining momentum, and the emergence of modern linguistic

sciences resulted in the breakaway from the method concept towards the mid 1970's and the formulation of a new approach known as the CA. Since the best method concept has not proved satisfactory in the long run for FL teaching in general, in teaching Arabic we cannot look in this direction for solutions but towards the new approach that most of FL teaching is moving to.

Chapter Four represents an analysis of the contemporary background of TAFL itself. Since TAFL has evolved against a background of existing and past developments in AL pedagogy, we need an interpretation of the current 'state of the art' so that we can understand our own situation more clearly and be in a position to bring about the necessary changes required to improve and update TAFL by learning from the success in other places. As an interpretation of the current 'state of the art', we have taken TAFL in Britain as an example. Since the development of views on FL teaching approaches and methods has directly or indirectly influenced TAFL, this chapter is placed after Chapter Three for a clearer perspective in the order of presentation. This does not imply that the other chapters are not relevant to Chapter Four. For improvements to the 'state of the art', we need to draw on the important elements from the other chapters as well, particularly Chapters Five and Six. However, our interpretation of the 'state of the art' is not complete. We have only concentrated on the situation in Britain in some detail, although referring to developments in other countries in passing. In order to interpret the 'state of the art' in TAFL on a more comprehensive basis, we also need to probe and evaluate the 'state of the art' on a world-wide basis so that

we may be aware of and learn from any new innovations in TAFL being used elsewhere. For immediate purposes, future research projects would need to concentrate on TAFL in the USA and TAFL in the Arab World, where interesting and exciting work is being done. Appendix B is proof of what is going on in the Arab World.

The major areas from which TAFL can receive practical direction are Chapters Five and Six. Chapter Five represents the culmination of attempts by the functionalists to teach FLs actively. In the CA, we find a major shift of emphasis concerning the view of language and its functions. The learner as well as the teacher is also viewed in a new light. The adoption of a functional orientation in which syllabuses can be based on notions or semantics rather than on linguistic form alone seems to mark a major watershed in FL teaching and it is considered as the beginning of a truly original approach. Linguistic perfection is, therefore, no longer considered as the sole aim of FL teaching but CC in a wider sense which is divided into four main components: LC, SLC, DC and SC (Table 3). These four components of CC are considered as the main end-product of the CA and as such, they can be considered as a tentative outline of communicative objectives in TAFL. The CA is still in its infancy since it has just entered its second decade of development. There is no finality as yet to its theory, research and practice and it will probably take a few more decades for our knowledge in this area to stabilize and for a comprehensive theory of FL teaching and learning to emerge. In any case, there can be no absolute finality because each teaching situation would require its own planning and

organization owing to the increase in the number of variables concerning the learners, their needs and the teaching environment which may change from time to time. The application of the CA to TAFL, therefore, would need to be flexible and not binding and consequently, we would need to review each TAFL situation again and again, in the light of new research findings, in order to avoid stagnation and professional decline. In the meantime, TAFL can take direction from the various communicative language teaching projects set up in Britain to teach other FLs. The teaching of French at the high school level seems to be the most advanced in this field producing an enormous amount of communicative course-books, teaching materials, teachers' guides and assessment schemes. Some of these projects have passed the pre-pilot and pilot stages and the materials produced have begun to be used on a large scale.⁽¹⁾ A good

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- (1) For an idea of the amount of work, effort and commitment involved in a project of this kind, some information on one of these projects is provided. One of the largest of these projects at the high school level in Britain developed the Tour de France course produced by the Scottish Central Committee on Modern Languages (1982). This course is in 5 stages and each stage includes the following materials: pupil's book, workbooks, flashcards, tapes/cassettes, filmstrips, reproduction masters (remedial and extension work) and a teacher's book. In addition to this, the progress of each pupil is closely monitored by the use of diagnostic tests completed after each 'topic', and by graded attainment tests at the end of each 'theme' of the course on all four linguistic skills. A major feature of this project has been its collaborative nature. Not only were the majority of the members of the Joint Working Party practising school-teachers (also included College of Education lecturers and members of the

sign is that 'The Schools Arabic Project' (cf. Ch. 4 and Appendix C) has been influenced by these developments in its syllabus design. The initiation of this project is considered a major breakthrough for TAFL in Britain at the high school level. Unfortunately, the Arabic course produced by this project, which is currently being piloted in its first experimental year (86/87) in England, is only a one-year course with the result that it cannot achieve many of the objectives of the CA. This course needs to be expanded over at least a two-year period or more for the different components of CC to be adequately covered and assessed. However, we look forward to the outcome of this pilot course which may provide the profession with some measure of the validity of the CA to TAFL.

In order to meet the needs of prospective university students who would have received instruction in French through the CA at high school level (particularly the Tour de France course which may take up to five years to

Scottish Curriculum Development Service), but also, through the developmental stages of pre-piloting (2 years) and piloting (2 years) stages, the views and experiences of over 100 teachers played a decisive role in the development of the final product. This project has been independently evaluated and the results indicate that pupil motivation has increased greatly and also the ability to use all four linguistic skills in communication, but some teachers have not fully understood the importance of assessing the four components of CC (Parkinson et al 1982, and Johnstone et al 1984). This course is currently being used by over 100 schools in Scotland.

complete), the Scottish Universities French Language Research Association (SUFLRA) have mounted two communicative language teaching research projects to keep pace with the work being done at schools. These projects are known as SUFLRA Project A and SUFLRA Project B. Since these projects are the first large-scale projects of their kind anywhere investigating the feasibility and validity or reliability of the CA for the teaching of a FL (i.e. French) at the university level, they are briefly described here so that we can take note of the scale of work required for TAFL at the university level, if we are committed to bringing about constructive and systematic improvements in the teaching of Arabic. Both these research projects are defined in Coleman (1983:109) as follows:

Designed to develop CC and therefore starting from an oral stimulus, but integrating oral and written work in the form of projects, the syllabus is aimed initially at 2nd year university students; the intention is, however, when experience has been gained, to extend the method to 1st year and to Honours level. The strategy is to divide categories of communicative function over some eight modules based on fully authentic oral and written materials, each dealing with a specific theme.

Subsidiary projects will include preparation of remedial material on clearly-defined grammatical problems, the possible application of computer-assisted learning and video-tapes, and work on communicative grammar.

Thus, the purpose of Project A was to create from scratch a notional/functional, multi-media French course at 2nd year university level, based on the concept of CC, and the aim of Project B was to create materials for communicative teaching and assessment at Honours level (Taylor 1983).

Project A, Lyon à la une, started in 1983 and after extensive pilot-testing, modifications and elaboration, the full-course was produced in 1986 consisting of written materials, audio tapes, video tapes, computer-assessed materials and a teacher's manual. The project team consisted of about ten distinguished French specialists and applied linguists who were involved in planning and designing this course from the universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Heriot-Watt and Stirling, and also in conjunction with the French Embassy. In addition to this, many other lecturers assisted by providing useful comments during the pilot-testing in the Scottish universities and elsewhere. The success of this project can be attributed to the fact that it has been academically recognized on a world-wide basis since it is currently being used by over fifty universities and colleges of higher education in five countries, including Britain. Project B, En fin de compte, began in 1982 by another project team from the universities of Dundee, Heriot-Watt and St. Andrews. The final pilot stage of this project has just been completed in March, 1987 and it is currently being formally evaluated by the Godfrey Thomson Unit of Edinburgh University's Department of Education. This is the first time that a FL university course has been independently evaluated anywhere, based on educational and scientific principles. Following this, the course materials will be further revised and published in 1988, for general use in universities and polytechnics world-wide. Even before the final report of the independent evaluators, the course has already begun to be used by thirteen universities and colleges in Britain, and two in Australia and one in New Zealand, and since Project B is on a much larger scale than Project A (more financial support and a stronger educational

and scientific base), the end-product of this course could have a greater impact than Project A. The course consists of ten modules and each module consists of four documents: one video and three printed texts. The proposed methodology of this course focusses on six basic techniques:

1. Intensive receptive practice;
2. Extensive language activities;
3. The learning cycle-recycling language work through reading, listening, speaking and writing;
4. Involvement of short and medium term memory;
5. Development of social skills and social confidence; and
6. Motivating the student: the class situation.

To meet the needs of those students taking Arabic at the high school level, particularly the CA as used in 'The Schools' Arabic Project', Arabic language departments would jointly need to mount a similar project or projects as the above.

As suggested in Chapter Five, the proposed integrative model for CC (5.7) consisting of the five guiding principles for a CA, the four general assumptions, and the four components of CC provides a base on which to develop a CA for each one of the five important areas of AL pedagogy: i.e. syllabus design, teaching methodology, materials development, testing and teacher training. Since the first step in any AL teaching programme must surely be to design a syllabus, we have concentrated on a detailed analysis of CSD in Chapter Six. In doing so, we have examined the overall process of planning an AL programme or course which not only

explores the options available in designing communicative syllabuses but also provides an overview of the role of the other important areas of AL pedagogy, as represented in the Stages of AL Programme Development in Table 4. However, since the role of each of these other areas from the CA point of view has not been analyzed in this thesis in detail as to their feasibility and validity in relation to TAFL, they would need to be the topic or topics of future research projects. In order to keep up with the rapid progress being made in the teaching of other FLs, AL teachers, lecturers and other specialists would need to get together and plan seriously and systematically for the future of TAFL, if they want TAFL to come out of the clutches of the classical tradition and be taught as a living language.

7.2. Specific Further Research Needs

Many research areas which are directly connected to TAFL have been identified throughout this thesis. We have attempted to investigate some of these important areas in detail in relation to the collective knowledge that is available in the vast literature on FL pedagogy and the disciplines that impinge on it. Other areas, also of equal importance, have been considered in lesser detail since the important aspects of AL pedagogy could not all be analyzed in detail within the scope of this thesis. What we have done can be considered as just revealing the tip of the iceberg of what really needs to be done in TAFL by joining resources, pooling efforts and avoiding duplication of individual initiatives. It seems that the most urgent areas of AL pedagogy to which we need to apply

the proposed integrative model of CC (5.7), after CSD, are the four vital areas in TAFL: communicative teaching methodology, communicative materials development, communicative testing techniques and communicative teacher training. Future research would need to consider the practicality and adaptability of these areas in much more detail than we have done in relation to TAFL. These areas are briefly outlined below for the benefit of future research and practice.

7.2.1. Communicative Teaching Methodology in TAFL

The overall pedagogical goal in learning and acquiring Arabic should be through task-directed interactive activities rather than through grammatical and error analysis alone, although a small percentage of class time may be essential for formal grammar lessons for adolescent and adult learners. It is recommended that the linguistic skills of Arabic be initially introduced in their natural order of development, i.e. listening first, then speaking, reading and writing. But, since these skills do not exist in isolation, they would need to be integrated into language activities at later stages such as listening and interpreting simultaneously, reading and taking notes, etc. Each communicative language activity (including paired and group-work activities, problem-solving, information gap, role-play, simulations, etc.) would require its own methodology or set of methodologies.

Teaching communication skills in Arabic is very different from the more widely practised art of teaching translation skills. Acquiring communication skills makes different demands on the learner and the

teacher alike. Learners would have to overcome a natural lack of self-confidence at communicating with their classmates and the teacher in Arabic and thus the development of communication skills requires a learning atmosphere which gives learners a sense of security and value as individuals. In developing communicative teaching methodologies in TAFL, we would need to provide learners with the scope to contribute their own personality to the learning process by providing sufficient motivation and opportunity to express their own identity and to relate with the people around them. As a consequence, learners' egos are protected in the CA particularly at handling their errors. The attitude to error, therefore, is considered as an inevitable consequence of experiment and risk taking and also as a natural part of the development process of the learner towards full command of Arabic and indeed, recent research findings indicate that correction of errors does not always help students to avoid them.

In the CA, students are not spoon-fed, as in traditional teaching, but they are made aware of the learning process and about their responsibility for their own learning. Since the CA is a democratic, learner-centred approach, the learner takes on a central role in this didactic enterprise by organizing and directing his own learning, by building on previous knowledge and on his own learning strategies, and by developing his own autonomy. This radical change in the learning process does not mean that Arabic teachers would need to resign and take a back seat, on the contrary, their role would be diversified and become less formal and authoritarian than in the past. The teacher would have to take on several

roles in order to facilitate learning and co-ordinate communicative activities and interaction by becoming an adviser, general overseer, organizer, classroom manager, resource person, instructor, collaborator, etc. in students' learning. The teacher would also need to use Arabic effectively for classroom management and the students may also need to express some of these such as commands, questions, exclamations and short appropriate utterances, explaining what is going to be done, expressing students' problems, asking permission, attracting teacher's attention, apologizing, asking for information, asking the teacher to do something, organizing paired and group-work activities, and so on.

7.2.2. Communicative Materials Development in TAFL

In order for teaching materials to help learners develop a wide-ranging ability to use Arabic, teachers would soon realize that traditional materials would need to be fundamentally redesigned or modified. Just as each language activity, task or objective would require a particular type or types of methodologies, in the same manner, each methodology and even language objective may stipulate particular types of teaching materials. In developing communicative materials in Arabic, we need to include aspects of the proposed integrative model of CC (5.7), particularly the four components of CC, and the four linguistic skills would also need to be integrated in the materials since they are normally integrated in real life. Integrating linguistic skills in the CA is considered almost synonymous with reinforcement. The process of integration involves linking the skills together in such a way that what has been learnt and

practised through the exercise of one skill is reinforced and extended through further language activities which bring one or more of the skills into use. Thus, oral work leading onto reading and writing activities can be one of the techniques for organizing learning materials into 'units' or 'modules' in which different AL skills are linked together in appropriate contexts in as natural a way as possible. In order that the reinforcement principle can lead to acquisition of Arabic, we need to devise a chain of learning experiences or activities which would generate an open-ended use of authentic materials to achieve a particular language objective, instead of using one or two types of materials only. A chain of learning experiences centring on each language objective could be in the form of background presentation (English and Arabic), audio presentation (tapes), audio-visual presentation (video and filmstrips), paired and group-work activity, various flashcard activities, diagnostic listening and speaking tests, etc. This is just a glimpse of what current communicative materials can offer TAFL. There is also the need for the creation of a communicative grammar of Arabic which would highlight not only functional aspects of Arabic at the sentence level but also at the level of extended discourse by indicating the devices of both cohesion (linguistic links) and coherence (semantic links) in Arabic. This would imply the development of an Arabic grammar of extended discourse, both spoken and written.

7.2.3. Communicative Testing Techniques in TAFL

Testing, assessment or evaluation of learners is an essential component of the language learning process. If we want to adopt the CA to TAFL,

we would also need to investigate CC approaches to FL proficiency assessment and apply them to Arabic. The four components of CC as identified in Chapter Five (5.7.2.2) could serve as a useful tool for testing CC in Arabic. Testing has a variety of functions to play in the language learning process and may be carried out in a number of ways at different stages of learning Arabic and, according to the CA, it has meaning only if it is closely related to the description of purpose or the specification of learners' objectives, as mentioned in Stage II of AL Programme Development (6.4.2). If testing is closely related to the specification of learners' objectives, it can perform a variety of roles in an AL programme such as the use of placement tests, diagnostic or progress tests and attainment or achievement tests. Placement tests can indicate what the learner can do in Arabic and thus the learner can be placed on a particular course or routed to another appropriate course or allocated to an appropriate group of learners, etc. Diagnostic or progress tests provide information to the teacher as well as the learner as to whether learning is taking place as planned, so that the course can be modified or different options exercised such as remedial work, extension work, accelerated courses, etc. Attainment or achievement tests indicate whether the learner has achieved the terminal course objective of a course or not. This information is valuable to learners for motivational reasons, and for planning their next step, and to syllabus designers and teachers in assessing the overall success, and particular weaknesses and strengths, of the course or whether or how far it can be adapted for future use.

These types of tests may provide us with the reason why we should test. But, in order to develop balanced and feasible test batteries in TAFL, we would need to answer many more questions such as: what to test, how to test, who tests, what type of tests to use, what is the function of oral tests, etc. The CA has introduced many new testing techniques in FL pedagogy namely criterion-referenced assessment (as opposed to norm-referenced assessment) integrative tests (as opposed to discrete-point tests), continuous assessment, proficiency testing, diagnostic testing and self-assessment, etc. James and Rouse (1973), for instance, list 128 types of tests in their valuable work. One of the great motivational forces in recent years has been the use of self-assessment forms and record cards by which learners can monitor their own progress on the basis of continuous assessment in class (Oskarsson 1980).

7.2.4. Communicative Teacher Training in TAFL

One of the most important issues in communicative language teaching is the preparation of teachers to work within a communicative framework, for ultimately the success of a TAFL course based on the CA will depend on the teacher's ability to use Arabic at native or native-like levels, to create and exploit authentic materials and to stimulate interaction both inside and outside the classroom by providing adequate natural exposure to Arabic and also adequate motivation and opportunities to communicate through it. This is why the teacher's role would require a radical reorientation in communicative language teaching and if the teacher is

well prepared to face the challenges of the CA, everything else in AL pedagogy would fall into place namely CSD, communicative teaching methodology, communicative materials development and communicative testing techniques. Thus, in order to bring about the desired change in TAFL programmes based on the CA, we would need to concentrate on the purposes and needs for initial and further training of Arabic teachers at various levels of teaching Arabic.

Edelhoff (1984:187), one of the members of the Modern Languages Project of the Council of Europe, describes the purposes of teacher training as acts of adult professional learning in attitudes, knowledge and skills, and not only in methodology. One of the main problems of implementing the CA is how to change teachers' attitudes towards the new way of thinking. Edelhoff (Ibid.) observes that this requires above all an attitude of open-mindedness on the part of the teacher who will be aware that his own role in FL communication is not different from that of the learner's in principle but only in degree, and that this will only be possible if the teacher is prepared to look at learning, including his own learning, as a never-ending process of continuing endeavour and enrichment. Knowledge refers to the specific knowledge teachers should have of the nature of learning, of the learners and their conditioning, of both the MT and Arabic and the sociocultural connotations. The skills of the teacher will have to match attitudes and knowledge so that he or she is able to understand "learner-centredness, the idea of needs, the role^{of} assessment, self-directed learning, the relations between language as a tool of communication and language as a system, the concept of learning strategy,

the concept of functional teaching, the idea that all mistakes are logical" (Porcher 1980). The teacher's CC in Arabic and the skills required to share and exploit this competence with learners including communication skills would seem to be of vital importance in this respect. According to Edelhoff (1984:188), "the overall skill, then, to be achieved by way of trial and error and constant participation in experimentation is that of handling innovation, not a set of recipe rules."

Before prescribing what type or types of initial (pre-service) and further training (in-service) programmes or courses to provide for Arabic teachers, we would first need to assess the teaching-profession as a whole to see where inadequacies lie concerning the attitudes, knowledge and skills required for TAFL through the CA. We would also need to consider the extent to which the pattern of Arabic language studies in higher education provides an adequate preparation for future language teachers. After assessing the situation, we can then provide appropriate programmes and courses to fill in the gaps in teachers' attitudes, knowledge and skills. Pre-service teacher training programmes would need to concentrate on the overall process of AL pedagogy, with an adequate exposure to both the theoretical and practical bases of FL pedagogy. The University of Salford's Department of Modern Languages has just begun a two-year MA in TAFL or TASL programme specifically aimed at achieving this objective (cf. Ch.4). Since this is the first major attempt in Britain at providing a teacher training programme in TAFL based on modern applied linguistic principles, the University of Salford should be given all the financial support to further develop its experimental work in TAFL into the area of

in-service teacher education and training. If AL departments would wish to keep up with the progress in the FL teaching-profession, various periodic short-term in-service courses would need to be set up to help Arabic teachers to bring a gradual change towards the CA, perhaps on a local, national and international basis. Each in-service course could focus on one important area at a time of AL pedagogy such as how to design a communicative syllabus, how to use communicative methodologies, how to develop and produce communicative materials, how to evaluate and modify existing course books, how to adopt communicative testing techniques, how to master the knowledge and skills required for each component of CC, how to attain native or native-like fluency, etc. Since all Arabic teachers are ultimately committed to presenting the subject matter in the most effective and rewarding manner, the road ahead is a long and arduous one and we have barely begun to exploit the vast resource of accumulated knowledge available for the benefit of TAFL.

الحمد لله أولاً وآخراً
وعليه توكلت واليه أنيب

APPENDICES

APPENDIX AA Selected List of Arabic Teaching Materials and Aids

This list is intended to be as exhaustive as possible for materials used for teaching the Arabic language in Britain, USA and elsewhere. The list thus contains only those materials designed for English-speaking learners, although some institutions which also use Arabic grammars and dictionaries are also included. Materials produced in other languages are not included in the list. Other recently produced materials which may or may not be used for teaching Arabic are also included. Only materials used in teaching standard Arabic are included and none of the materials used in teaching the dialects is included. They are too diverse and varied to be included in such a list. The list contains bibliographical data and annotations with a brief description and assessment of the materials, wherever possible. Those materials which can be used for self-instruction are marked (SI). The list is divided into the following nine sections:

1. Arabic Writing and Sound Systems
2. Courses and Textbooks
3. Basic Reference Grammars
4. Readers
5. Supplementary Materials
6. Dictionaries
 - (a) Bilingual
 - (b) Monolingual

7. Word Counts and Word-Lists
8. Tests
9. Audio-Visual Aids
 - (a) Audio Tapes , Cassettes and Records
 - (b) Computer Programs
 - (c) Dictionaries
 - (d) Flash Cards
 - (e) Video Cassettes
 - (f) Other Aids

1. Arabic Writing and Sound Systems

Abdo, Daud A. (1965) A Course in Modern Written Arabic for Adults: Book One. Ad-Dawḥa, Qaṭar: The Shell Company of Qaṭar, Ltd. Training Centre, 98pp. Arabic title: نحن نقرأ الصحف لتعليم الكبار
 [Not for public distribution but teachers may request a copy from the company]

——— and Salwa N. Hilu (1968) Arabic Writing and Sound System. Beirut.

[The writing and sound systems are introduced simultaneously. Drills in pronunciation, writing and reading. Designed to be used with Modern Standard Arabic: Elementary Level by the same authors (cf. 2). Carefully prepared and useful].

Al-Ani, Salman H. and J.Y. Shamma (1967) Phonology and Script of Literary Arabic. Montreal: Institute of Islamic Studies, McGill University. 118pp. Audio tapes.

[The writing and sound system are taught together. Various types of imitation and production drills, including reading and writing of typed and hand-written materials. Well-prepared and useful].

- Ayyad, A.T. (1982) Teach Yourself Arabic: Rules of Reading and Writing. London. Ta-Ha Pub., 114pp. (SI).
 [A modified prototype of the basic method of teaching Arabic to Arab students is used. An elementary and simple guide to the rules of reading and writing Arabic with exercises. Suitable and useful for adult learners or at the school level but not for university students].
- Cadora, Frederic (1975-) The Phonology and Script of Arabic. Ohio: Ohio State University.
- Foreign Service Institute (1964) Classical Arabic: The Writing System. Beirut: American Embassy. 100pp. Mimeographed.
- Habib, Nassim (1956) Introduction to Arabic. Cairo: American University of Cairo.
- Hakim, S. and F. Imam (1979) Arabic Handwriting. London: Oxford University Press. (SI).
 [A series of four graded writing-practice books for beginners. The script used is a modified form of Naskh, the common printed form. A useful practical guide for making the hand acquainted with the mainly clock-wise motion required to write the Arabic script].
- Hanna, S.A. and N. Greis (1965) Writing Arabic - A Linguistic Approach: From Sounds to Script. Salt Lake City: University of Utah Printing Service, 61 pp. Audio tape.
 [An introduction to the sound and writing systems. Repetition, writing and recognition drills are provided. The most useful feature of the book are the recognition drills. Accompanied by a tape. Limited usefulness].
- Kapliwatsky, Jochanan (1953) Arabic Language and Grammar: Vol. 1 - Phonology and Script. Jerusalem: Rubin Mass, 170pp., 4 vols.
- Kaledy, Nouri (1964) Arabic for Beginners: Writing and Reading. Portland, Oregon: Middle East Centre. 79pp. (SI).

∟ This book and accompanying writing workbook are designed to teach beginners to read and write the cursive script of Arabic. The sounds and letters are first presented and a few grammatical notes are included later in the book. A useful guide for beginners∟.

McCarus, Ernest and Raji Rammuny (1970) A Programmed Course in Modern Literary Arabic Phonology and Script. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Center for Research on Language and Language Behaviour, 202 pp. (SI). Audio Tapes.

∟ Contains pronunciation (with tapes), reading and writing exercises, and tests. Materials are well planned and co-ordinated, with clear and accurate descriptions, but too long and not meaningful to learners∟.

Mitchell, T.F. (1953) Writing Arabic: A Practical Introduction to the Ruq'ah Script. Oxford: OUP, 1981 (Reprint of 1953 edn). (SI).

∟ Letters are presented in the Arabic alphabetical order with similar letters grouped together. The sounds and letters are described with well explained notes. Reading and writing drills. A useful guide but the order of presentation may be disputed∟.

Nasr, Raja (1978) Learn to Read Arabic. Beirut: Libraire du Liban; Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre, 40pp. (SI) Audio cassette.

∟ Designed to give beginners a concise presentation of the alphabet and writing system, with drills in reading and pronunciation (23 exercises) on an accompanied one-hour cassette. This small book includes useful sections on Arabic velarization, length (gemination), stress and intonation patterns∟.

Rice, Frank A. (1964) The Classical Arabic Writing System. Cambridge Mass.: The Center for Middle Eastern Studies, Harvard University, 48pp.

∟ Designed to teach the reading of Arabic handwritten script. Each letter is presented in order of the difficult sounds and it is used in words which the learner is taught to read. Useful∟.

Saad, George N. (1979) Arabic Sounds and Letters. Amherst, Mass.: University of Massachusetts.

Sommer, Francis E. (1942) The Arabic Writing in Five Lessons with Practical Exercises and a Key. New York: F. Unger, 1978 (3rd printing), 20pp. (SI).

∟The letters are grouped in order of similarity of shapes, from the simple to the difficult shapes. A simple and concise guide to the Naskh script∟.

Tufail, S. Muhammad (1982) The Qur'ān Reader, Delhi: Taj Company, 122pp.

∟An elementary course in reading the Arabic script of the Qur'ān, with exercises. The special orthography and punctuation signs of the Qur'ān are carefully explained. A useful book, but not well presented. It has one significant error throughout the book, the phoneme thā' — ﺚ is pronounced as sā, which indicates the Indianized pronunciation of this phoneme∟.

2. Courses and Textbooks

Many of the courses and textbooks begin with the sound and writing systems.

Abboud, Peter et al (1968) Elementary Modern Standard Arabic (EMSA).

Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 3 vols. + 23 audio cassettes, revised ed. 1976. (Also pub. by CUP, 1983, 2 vols. without cassettes).

∟This course professes to use the A-LM but in practice the main skills of the A-LM (listening and speaking) are less well-developed than the traditional skills of reading and writing. The course is divided into 45 lessons. Each lesson contains a basic text, vocabulary, grammar notes and extensive drills, including oral and written comprehension passages. The vocabulary is controlled and the basic structures, texts and cultural content are carefully graded and extensively covered. Produced by the American

Association of Teachers of Arabic (AATA) for American college students but is also used by a few British universities and in other countries 7.

—— (1971) Modern Standard Arabic: Intermediate Level, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 3 vols. and 7 audio cassettes.
 7 Sequel to EMSA above. A-LM partly used as above. Same format as EMSA except that the new vocabulary of each lesson is introduced in preparatory sentences which present the new item in a meaningful context in a connected narrative or discourse 7.

Abdo, Daud A. (1962-64) A Course in Modern Standard Arabic. Beirut: Khayat's, 2 vols. with audio tapes.
 7 Designed to teach the student to read Arabic newspapers. Basically reading-translation method. Carefully controlled vocabulary items according to frequency of occurrence. Useful but almost totally political in content 7.

—— and Salwa H. Abdo (1967) Modern Standard Arabic: Elementary Level. Urbana, Indiana: University of Illinois Press.
 7 Designed to provide a reading knowledge of modern standard Arabic and is intended to follow Arabic Writing and Sound System by the same authors (cf. 1) 7.

^c Abdul-Rauf, Muhammad (1977) Arabic for English Speaking Students. 5th printing 1983, London: Shorouk International, 434pp. (SI).
 7 A simple and easy guide for adult learners in 30 lessons, without the complexities of traditional grammars. Each lesson consists of a table of sample examples or preparatory sentences followed by brief and concise notes, a summary of information and exercises. This represents the inductive method of teaching. Useful appendices 7.

Assimil (1979) Arabic with Ease. Chennevieres S/Marne, France: Assimil Nelis Pub., 2 vols. with 4 audio cassettes or 12 records.
 7 Each lesson begins with a dialogue followed by notes (sometimes comments) and exercises. Useful grammatical notes are

introduced gradually as the course progresses. Although this course is designed for travellers, all the dialogues in the books are recorded in standard Arabic. Inductive method used.]

- Beeston, A.F.L. (1982) Written Arabic: An Approach to the Basic Structures. Cambridge: CUP, reprint of 1968 edn. (SI)
 [Designed only to provide a reading knowledge. Limited usefulness].
- Bishai, Wilson B. (1962) Modern Literary Arabic (1), Grammar and Exercises (11). Washington DC: School of Advanced International Studies, John Hopkins University.
 [Traditional G-TM used. Too heavy reliance on grammar per se and on vocabulary. Limited usefulness].
- (1971) Concise Grammar of Literary Arabic: A New Approach. Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall-Hunt Pub. Co.
- Cowan, David (1982) An Introduction to Modern Literary Arabic. Cambridge: CUP, reprint of 1958 edn.
 [G-TM used. Each lesson contains notes and paradigms, followed by exclusive translation drills. Usefulness limited for reference purposes and for developing only LC].
- Defense Language Institute (1975) Modern Standard Arabic: Aural Comprehension Course. Monterey, California: Defense Language Institute, 20 vols.
 [Extremely useful course for developing the listening and speaking skills of Arabic through the A-LM. Designed especially for very intensive language instruction to American army personnel, about 6-8 hours per day. Proven results. Available on microfiche].
- Department of Defense (1954) A Handbook of Written Arabic. Washington DC: Department of Defense, 206pp.
- Elder, Earl E. (1950) Arabic Grammar, with Exercises. Cairo: American University of Cairo, 356pp., 2nd edn.

Ferguson, Charles and Mouktar Ani (1964) Lessons in Contemporary Arabic: Lessons 1-8. Washington DC: Center of Applied Linguistics, with audio tapes, 160pp.

∟ Designed to teach the rudiments of modern standard Arabic. Semi-A-LM used and it is one of the first attempts to move away from the G-TM. Very condensed and too heavy on vocabulary. A second part was planned to complete the grammar coverage but was never published∟.

Furrukh, Omar (1964) Qur'anic Arabic (the language of the Qur'an): An Elementary Course in Arabic for Non-Arabs. Beirut: Khayat's.

Frayha, Anis (1953) The Essentials of Arabic. Beirut: American University of Beirut, Khayat's, 344pp.

∟ Text divided into ten parts, including minimum grammar, newspaper Arabic, literature selections, spoken Arabic, vocabulary, etc. No consistency in material presentation. Limited usefulness∟.

Hanna, Sami A. (1964) An Elementary Manual of Contemporary Literary Arabic. Boulder, Colorado: Pruett Press. (accompanied by Flash Cards, cf. 9d).

∟ Designed to teach college students modern standard Arabic. Attempts to use A-LM but is more traditional, with few varied drills. More concentration on morphology and less on syntax. Limited usefulness∟.

——— and Naguib Greis (1968) Introductory Literary Arabic. Salt Lake City, Utah: University of Utah Printing Service. Preliminary edn.

∟ To be used as a sequence to Writing Arabic (1965) by the same authors (cf. 1)∟.

Haywood, J.A. and Nahmad, H.M. (1982) A New Arabic Grammar of the Written Language. London: Lund Humphries. 1st pb. 1962, Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

∟ A contemporary adaptation of Thatcher (cf. below). Traditional G-TM. Despite a large number of errors in the first half of the book, it is still a widely-used textbook. Designed to provide a

reading knowledge of pre-modern and modern written Arabic.

Usefulness limited for developing only LC 7.

Kapliwatsky, J. (1953-57) Arabic Language and Grammar. Jerusalem: Rubin Mass, 4 vols. (cf. 1).

∟Volumes 2, 3 and 4 on language and grammar. Designed only to provide a reading knowledge of Arabic by a systematic coverage of grammar. Each lesson on grammar is followed by 2 or 3 reading exercises and translation drills. Unsuitable for classroom use 7.

Linguaphone (1983) The New Modern Standard Arabic Course. London: Linguaphone Institute. (SI)

∟This new elementary course consists of 30 lessons in 6 textbooks and 4 audio cassettes or 21 records. Each lesson contains a narrative, conversation and additional sketches. A full description of the textbooks is given in Chapter Four (4.3.2). A useful course and one of the best proven conversational courses for developing elementary CC.

Khoury, J.F. (1961) Arabic Teaching Manual, with analysis of the Major Problems American High School Students Face in Learning Arabic. Provo, Utah: University of Utah Press.

∟Experimental manual to teach Arabic at high school level. A-LM used with an inductive approach to grammar. Exercises and language activities follow each of the 52 lessons. Culturally, well presented. All the 4 linguistic skills are adequately covered and suitable at the high school level. Only the bare minimum of grammar used. The vocabulary of everyday conversation is presented in standard Arabic. Very useful for high school students and could be effectively used for 1st year university students 7.

— and M.T. Musa (n.d.) Second Level Arabic. Salt Lake City, Utah: State Department of Public Instruction, 196pp., mimeo.

McCarus, E. and A.I. Adil (1962) Elements of Contemporary Arabic. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Ann Arbor Pub., 273pp.

∟A-LM used to provide oral practice in the use of modern standard Arabic through dialogues and audio tapes. Limited coverage of grammar. A useful course∟.

McCarus, E. and Raji Rammuny (1964) First Level Arabic: Elementary Literary Arabic for Secondary Schools. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 341pp.

∟A one-year course designed to provide speech, reading and writing practice to high school students. A-LM used. Accompanied by audio tapes and a teacher's manual (26pp.). A useful course∟.

McCarus, E. et al (1975) First Lessons in Literary Arabic. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

MECAS (1965) The MECAS Grammar of Modern Literary Arabic. Beirut: Khayat's.

∟Although G-TM used, it is a practical introductory grammar with exercises closely related to MECAS selected word list (cf. 7), MECAS reader (cf. 4) and McLoughlin's vocabulary exercises (cf. 5). A useful course, if all these materials are used together but the grammar on its own is limited for reference purposes∟.

Nasr, Raja T. (1967) The Structure of Arabic: From Sound To Sentence. Beirut: Libraire du Liban.

Said, Kamil T. (1965) Arabic, Modern Standard: Basic Course. Monterey, California: Defense Language Institute. 3 vols., rev. edn.

Scott, G.C. (1962) Practical Arabic. London: Longmans.

∟Designed to teach newspaper Arabic. The G-TM is used with too much emphasis on morphological patterns. Limited usefulness∟.

Smart, J.R. (1986) Teach Yourself Arabic. London: Hodder & Stoughton (SI)

∟This is the new edition of Tritton (1954) below. A slightly revised version but still based on the G-TM∟.

Smith, Harlie L., Jr. (1969) Modern Written Arabic. Washington DC: Department of State, Foreign Service Institute.

Thatcher, G.W. (1956) A Grammar of the Written Language. New York: Frederick Unger, 461pp.

∟ Designed to provide only a reading knowledge of pre-modern standard Arabic. The G-TM is used to introduce grammatical notes, vocabulary and translation exercises. Used by successive generations of Arabists. Usefulness limited for reference purposes∟.

Tritton, A.S. (1954) Teach Yourself Arabic. London: English Universities Press. (SI)

∟ Designed to teach the language and grammar of pre-modern standard Arabic. Too heavy emphasis on grammar and written Arabic, with little or no emphasis on spoken Arabic or conversational skills∟.

Wickens, G.M. (1980) Arabic Grammar: A First Workbook. Cambridge: CUP.

∟ Designed to give the beginner the essential features of Arabic, dealing with the basic rules rather than the exceptions. Aimed at providing only a reading knowledge of Arabic. Although the book contains useful hints on learning Arabic, it lacks sufficient examples and unity of grammatical material∟.

Wright, O. (1979) Arabic Course. London: University of London (SOAS). 4 vols. + 12 audio cassettes.

∟ The revised version is in 5 volumes with 15 audio cassettes (n.d.). Designed to familiarize the 1st year students at SOAS with the basic structures of modern standard Arabic through an extensive set of exercises which are designed specifically for use in the Language Lab., but integrated with a written course. This course has proved quite useful for the 1st year intensive course at SOAS (about 20 hours per week)∟.

Ziadeh, F.J. and B.R. Winder (1957) An Introduction to Modern Arabic. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 298pp. Audio tapes and records.

∟ Designed to provide the student with a reading and writing knowledge of modern standard Arabic through the inductive method of grammatical presentation. Divided into 35 chapters. Each chapter consists of an illustrative text, grammatical analysis, practice text and exercises. The grammar is condensed but the vocabulary is carefully controlled, introducing the learner to just over 1000 words. Limited usefulness∟.

3. Basic Reference Grammars

Some of the textbooks noted above (cf. 2) namely Cowan (1982), Haywood and Nahmad (1982), MECAS Grammar (1965) and Thatcher (1956) are currently also being used by some universities and colleges as reference grammars. In addition to these textbooks, there are a few other works used as basic reference grammars. Two of these are in Arabic which are used mainly by PCL.

الجارم ، علي وآخرون (١٩٦٦) النحو الواضح. القاهرة ، ٦ أجزاء .
حسان ، عباس (١٩٧١) النحو الوافي. القاهرة ، ٥ أجزاء .

Wright, W. (1967) ed. Grammar of the Arabic Language. Cambridge: CUP, 2 vols. (Translated from the German of Caspari, 3rd rev. edn. by S.W. Robertson and M. J. de Goeje, 1977).

∟ The basic reference grammar of pre-modern standard Arabic. Designed in the traditional G-TM∟.

4. Readers

Bellamy, J.A. et al (1960-66) eds. Contemporary Arabic Readers (I-V).

Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

∟A useful set of 5 readers designed for intermediate students. Materials from newspapers, essays, short stories and poetry. Glossary and notes are provided∟.

Bishai, Wilson B. (1964) Modern Literary Arabic (III, IV, V). Washington

DC: School of Advanced International Studies, John Hopkins University.

∟These are three readers in modern literary Arabic. I and II are textbooks (cf. 2)∟.

Brinner, W.M. and M.A. Khouri (1961-62) Advanced Arabic Readers:

I. Selections from the Modern Novel and Short Story

II. Expository Writing. Berkeley: University of California.

Daykin, V. (1972) Technical Arabic. London: Lund Humphries.

∟The passages in the text are graded with translations and glossary. A useful introduction to technical Arabic, although there are some errors∟.

Hanna, Sami A. and Naguib Greis (1964) Arabic Reading Lessons: Second Level. Salt Lake City: Middle East Center, University of Utah.

∟Designed for 2nd year college students. Reading material consists of interesting texts, 3 short stories and some grammatical notes. Useful for a 2nd year course but not carefully graded, particularly the level of difficulty of the short stories is very much higher than the texts∟.

Kapliwatsky, J. (1946) Part I and II Selections from the Arabic Press.

Khoury, George J. (1977) An Arabic Reader for Beginners. New York: Smyrna Press.

Lyons, M.C. (1962) An Elementary Classical Arabic Reader. London: CUP.

Mansoor, M. (1965) Legal and Documentary Arabic Reader. Leiden: E.J. Brill. 2 vols.

McCarus, E. et al (1962) Contemporary Arabic Readers: Newspaper Arabic. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

∟Designed to introduce the student to the language of the press, using an oral approach. A useful reader for newspaper Arabic but heavy on vocabulary∟.

— (1963-66) Contemporary Arabic Readers II: Arabic Essays; III Formal Arabic; IV: Short Stories; V: Contemporary Arabic Poetry. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

∟Each one of these 4 readers contains a separate glossary∟.

MECAS (1962) الطريق الممهّد - The Way Prepared. Beirut: Khayat's.

∟This is the MECAS reader in modern standard Arabic based on the MECAS selected word list (cf. 7). Each section of the reader corresponds to the appropriate section of the word list, thus the vocabulary is carefully controlled. A practical and useful reader from elementary to intermediate level. One of the most widely used readers in British universities.

Nahmad, H.M. (1970) From the Arabic Press. London: Lund Humphries.

∟A reader of extracts from Arabic newspapers with translations on facing page. Topics covering mainly economic and social affairs∟.

Rabin, Chaim (1978) Arabic Reader. London: Lund Humphries. (Reprint of 1962 rev. edn., 1st pub. 1947).

∟An elementary reader on modern literary Arabic. Each section consists of full vocabulary and grammatical notes∟.

Rammuny, Raji M. et al (1978) القرأة العربية (Reading Arabic). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

Wickens, G.M. and M.E. Marmuro (1963) First Readings in Classical Arabic. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Yellin, Avinoam and C. Billig (1979) An Arabic Reader. New York: Johnson Reprint Corporation. 1st pub. 1931.

∟A reader in pre-modern standard Arabic∟.

Ziadeh, Farhat, J. (1981) A Reader in Modern Literary Arabic.

Washington DC: University of Washington Press. (Reprint of 1964 edn.).

∟ Consists of texts of contemporary Arabic literature for the intermediate student. Each reading selection is followed by useful summaries in Arabic and various drills in grammar, translation and vocabulary. Comprehensive grammatical notes and a useful Arabic-English vocabulary ∟.

5. Supplementary Materials

^cAbdul-Kader, A.S. (1976) Quranic Suwar. Lenasia, Transvaal: The Islamic Institute of South Africa. 40pp.

∟ This useful booklet contains 23 small chapters (سورة) of the Qur'ān and a number of other Muslim prayers translated into English. A unique order of presentation is followed. Arabic words in a sentence are placed in blocks with their respective meanings in English. The meaning of parts of the words or of different words that may appear in a block are denoted by corresponding colours (black and red). The words are then put together to form the phrase or sentence. However, a basic knowledge of grammar is still needed to understand this system ∟.

Agaskar, Yunus (1984) Arabic For Everyday Use. Bombay: Jaico Pub. House. 107pp. (SI)

∟ Designed to provide a working knowledge of simple standard Arabic speech and grammar for visitors, workers and others going to the Middle East, although a few words are presented in colloquial Arabic. The book is divided into 2 parts. The first part deals with the sound and writing systems, rules of basic grammar, and provides sentences which can be used in everyday situations. The second part contains a glossary of words for everyday use. A useful introductory guide to spoken Arabic ∟.

^cAll, Syed (1981) Arabic for Beginners. Madras: Arabic Publications of India. 5th edn., 1st pub. 1970, 184 pp. (SI)

∟ Designed to introduce the beginner to some of the important elements of Arabic grammar in 45 lessons. Most of the lessons begin with an illustrative text of introductory sentences followed by a vocabulary and model sentences with translations.

Although certain parts of the book are useful and a simple guide to the beginner, the last 14 lessons deal exclusively with modern Arabic prose and poetry with no grammatical notes, glossary of difficult words or explanation of texts ∟.

Aramco (1954) Pocket Guide to Arabic. Aramco Arabic Language Series, Beirut: Catholic Press, 88pp.

Arnander, P. and A. Shipwith (1985) The Son of a Duck is a Floater

(ابن البيط عوام). London: Stacey International.

∟ A useful and much needed book of Arabic proverbs and idioms.

Well-laid out, illustrated and translated. Could be effectively used at elementary and intermediate levels ∟.

Bateson, M. (1967) Arabic Language Handbook. Washington DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

∟ Good basic introduction to the structure of Arabic and its historical and cultural background ∟.

Beeston, A.F.L. (1969) Arabic Historical Phraseology. London: CUP.

∟ Designed to assist students in tackling historical texts.

Supplement to author's Written Arabic (cf. 2) ∟.

Bucher, Urs (1984) Vocabulary of Modern Standard Arabic. Switzerland: Buchdruckerei Willisauseulote.

∟ A useful vocabulary list presented according to topics with illustrations of usage ∟.

Department of Defense (1954) A Handbook of Written Arabic. Washington DC: Department of Defense, 206pp.

McLoughlin, Leslie (1974) Vocabulary Exercises in Modern Literary Arabic. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

∟ This is a series of useful vocabulary exercises based on the MECAS word list (cf. 7) ∟

- Mitchell, T.F. and D. Barber (1972) Introduction to Arabic. London: BBC Publications. 79pp. (SI)
 [Accompanying booklet to BBC radio course in beginner's Arabic. A useful basic introduction to almost 100% standard spoken Arabic. Pronunciation record also available.]
- Nasr, Raja T. (1978) The Teaching of Arabic as a Foreign Language: Linguistic Elements. Beirut: Librairie du Liban, 123pp.
 [This is basically a teacher's guide for the necessary linguistic elements required to teach Arabic as a FL to English-speaking learners. Useful pedagogic methods and techniques to help teachers teach the sound system, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. The book concludes with a chapter on testing proficiency in Arabic.]
- Scheindlin, Raymond (1978) 201 Arabic Verbs. New York: Barron's Educational Series Inc. 209pp.
 [This specialized dictionary consists of 201 of the most commonly used Arabic verbs in alphabetical order. Most of the verbs have been taken from Brill's (1940-cf. 7) word list and fully conjugated in all the tenses. A useful handbook for a systematic mastery and a quick reference of the most commonly used Arabic verbs.]
- Shaikh, Shafi (1978) A Course in Spoken Arabic. Bombay: OUP. 125pp. (SI)
 [This book is divided into 2 parts. The first part deals with a few simple elements of grammar and is presented in the G-TM. The second part is more useful and it provides the basic conversational vocabulary of everyday situations used by visitors to the Arab World. The book concludes with a useful list of about 280 of the most commonly used verbs.]
- Siddiqui, A.H. and M. Rafique (1977) Arabic for the Beginners. Lahore: Kazi Pub.
- Smart, J.R. (1980) Introducing the Arabic Language. Exeter: University of Exeter, The Language Centre.

- Sterling, Rev. R. and H. Canon (1912) Arabic and English Idioms: Conversational and Literary. Jerusalem: American Press.
- Tubbs, Rev. E.J. (1972) Visual Arabic Grammar-Lexicon. Surrey, England: Kingprint Ltd.
- Velarde, A. Khouri et al (1980) Arabic Phrase Book. London: Hodder and Stoughton (Teach Yourself Books). 165pp. (SI)
- ∟ Unlike most phrase books which are in the dialects, this one is in standard Arabic. It contains some of the important words and phrases a traveller to the Middle East needs to know. The words and phrases are presented in a monologue fashion and a pronunciation guide is provided in the Arabic script and transliteration, with translations. A useful little book∟.

6. Dictionaries

(a) Bilingual

- Abcarius, J. John (1974) An English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.
- ᶜĀqil, Fākhīr (1971) Dictionary of Psychological Expressions. English-Arabic-French. Beirut: دار العلم للملايين .
- Al-Baᶜalbakī, Munīr (1983) Al-Mawrid (المورد). Beirut: دار العلم للملايين , 17th edn. 1200pp.
- ∟A comprehensive reference dictionary in modern English-Arabic∟.
- (1982) Al-Mawrid Al-Qarīb (المورد القريب). Beirut: دار العلم للملايين , 5th edn.
- ∟A concise pocket-size for students in English-Arabic∟.
- Bakalla, Muḥammad H. et al (1983) A Dictionary of Modern Linguistic Terms: English-Arabic and Arabic-English. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.
- ∟This reference dictionary has a twofold aim: 1. To assist translators and students of Arabic linguistics to understand the

technical terms used in both English and Arabic works on modern linguistics. 2. To build up a pool of terms culled from the various linguistic schools and movements, which can be drawn upon in the formation of a standardized vocabulary of linguistic terminology, both in Arabic-speaking countries and abroad. The different areas of competence and CC are not touched on at all in this dictionary. These need to be included in later editions.]

El-Benhawy, M.A. (1970) Dictionary of Literary Terms: English-Arabic.
Cairo: دار الفكر العربي .

Cachia, Pierre J.E. (1974) The Monitor. A Dictionary of Arabic Grammatical Terms, Arabic-English and English-Arabic. London and Beirut: Longmans and Librairie du Liban.

Catafago, J. (1975) An Arabic and English Literary Dictionary.
Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Doniach, N.S. (1981) ed. The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage. Oxford: OUP, 1329pp., reprint of 1972 ed.
[A useful and easy reference dictionary to use]

——— (1983) The Concise Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage. Oxford: OUP.
[A useful handy size of the above for the beginner]

Eliās, E.A. and E.E. Eliās (1969) Eliās' Modern Dictionary: Arabic-English. Cairo: Eliās Modern Press, 9th edn.

——— (1971) Eliās' Modern Dictionary: English-Arabic.
Cairo: Eliās Modern Press, 17th edn.

Eliās, E.A. (1962) School Dictionary: Arabic-English, English-Arabic.
Cairo: Eliās Modern Press.

——— (1954) Pocket Dictionary: Arabic-English, English-Arabic.
Cairo: Eliās Modern Press.

[These 4 above dictionaries serve only a limited usefulness since they are not linguistically adequate]

Fārūqī, Hārith S. (1970) Fārūqī Law Dictionary: English-Arabic.

Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Frisby, A.W. and A.S. Al-Khaṭīb (1985) A Pocket First English-Arabic Dictionary. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

∟A dictionary of over 3,000 words with illustrations and explanatory notes in English∟.

Hava, J.G. (1963) Arabic-English Dictionary. Beirut: Catholic Press, rev. edn. (1st pub. 1951).

∟A small but useful dictionary in pre-modern standard Arabic∟.

Hitti, Yusuf K. (1972) Hitti's English-Arabic Medical Dictionary.

Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Karmi, Hasan S. (1971) Al-Manar: An English-Arabic Dictionary.

London and Beirut: Longmans and Librairie du Liban.

Khoury, Sa^cadallah (n.d.) The Correct Translator - الترجمان الصحيح

Beirut: دار مكتبة الحياة. New rev. edn., 200pp.

∟Designed as a translator of words, idioms and sentences for all occasions in both Arabic-English and English-Arabic. A useful conversational and pronunciation guide in standard Arabic for students who need to know how to cope with native speakers in general everyday situations concerning college, home, work and leisure∟.

Al-Khuli, M.A. (1982) A Dictionary of Theoretical Linguistics: English-Arabic. Beirut: Librairie du Liban. 400 pp.

∟This reference dictionary includes an Arabic-English glossary. Useful for students and specialists in English and Arabic∟.

Lane, E.W. (1984) Arabic-English Lexicon. London: Islamic Texts Society. 3 vols, 3200pp. (1st pub. 1863-93, 8 vols, London).

∟This latest edition is excellently produced. Very useful for the advanced student and specialist∟.

Madina, Maan Z. (1973) Arabic-English Dictionary of the Modern Literary Language. New York: Pocket Books. 800pp.

∟ This relatively unknown pocket-size dictionary is the first Arabic-English dictionary in paperback. It is very well compiled and arranged, and comparable only to Wehr's English edition (cf. below) if not superior in a few respects. For instance, the author has listed derivations of all kinds (including nominal, adjectival forms) under the verbal stems to which they are related and not separately, as is the widespread practice in most dictionaries. Furthermore, in addition to the inclusion of idiomatic phrases, sentences, technical terms, etc., all the Arabic words and phrases are fully vocalized. Thus, these points make this dictionary easier and quicker to use by students, teachers and general readers of Arabic than Wehr although a few rare occurrences of Arabic words and idioms are omitted, an extraordinary amount of relevant information is added under each entry (over 80,000 entries). This excellent, concise and very useful dictionary seems to be out of print. Attempts should be made for a reprinting∟.

Mansoor, M. (1961) English-Arabic Dictionary of Political, Diplomatic and Conference Terms. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Mazhar, Ismail (1949) A Dictionary of Sentences and Idioms (English-Arabic). Cairo: The Renaissance Bookshop.

∟ A unique English-Arabic dictionary of sentences and idioms. Not only translations of English sentences and idioms are provided but also their linguistic and cultural equivalents are given in simple and clear Arabic. Although originally designed for Arab high school students learning English, it is a useful tool for intermediate and advanced students of Arabic who could increase their productive skills of speaking and writing by using such an English-Arabic dictionary, since Arabic-English dictionaries, on the contrary, develop mainly the comprehension (receptive) skills only∟.

Mazhar, Ismail (n.d.) Al-Nahda English-Arabic Dictionary.

Cairo: The Renaissance Bookshop.

Penrice, John (1971) A Dictionary and Glossary of the Koran.

London: Curzon Press, new edn. (1st pub. 1873, London).

∟A useful reference book with grammatical notes and explanations of the text. The numbering of the verses does not correspond exactly to the Qur'āns printed in the Muslim World, since the Flügel edition of the Qur'an (1834, Leipzig) is used. Flügel's edition is once more available today∟.

Shaikh, Shafi (1983) Handbook of English-Arabic for Professionals.

Bombay: OUP. 512pp.

∟Designed especially for professionals visiting, working and living in the Arab World but could also be used by others as a bridge between a phrase book and a conventional dictionary. This reference handbook provides, in addition to a general vocabulary, a vocabulary of technical usage in the professional fields (under about 50 different classifications) of engineering, technology, medicine, law, education, etc. Each page is divided into 3 columns: the 1st column contains English headwords, phrases and derivatives with an indication of the part of speech they represent; the 3rd column contains Arabic equivalents of the English in Naskhi script; and the 2nd (centre of the page) contains a transliteration of the Arabic in Latin script. In this way, about 20,000 headwords and derivatives are presented in this handbook∟.

Steingass, F. (1969) A Learner's English-Arabic Dictionary.

Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Wahba, Magdi (1968) An English-Arabic Vocabulary of Scientific Technical and Culture terms. Cairo: Immobilia Building.

——— (1974) A Dictionary of Literary Terms: English-French-Arabic.

Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Wehr, Hans (1961) A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic. ed. by J.M. Cowan, 4th rev. edn. Wiesbaden: Harrossowitz, 1979. Ithaca, New York: Spoken Language Services Inc., 1976, 3rd rev. edn.

∟ This Arabic-English dictionary is an improved and enlarged English translation of the original German version. The 1976 edition is available in a handy size, unabridged paperback pocket-book version. This dictionary is excellent not only for the beginner but also for the advanced student. This dictionary and Madina's (1973- cf. above) are the best modern Arabic-English dictionaries but Wehr's English edition is probably the most widely used Arabic-English dictionary in the world today∟.

Wortabet, John and Harvey Porter (1954) Arabic-English and English-Arabic Dictionary. New York: Frederick Unger.

∟ This dictionary is mainly on pre-modern standard Arabic. A supplement of modern words and new meanings of modern standard Arabic is provided by John L. Mish∟.

Yamulky, Perihan (1966) A Select Glossary of English Literary Terms (with Arabic Translation): English-Arabic and Arabic-English. Baghdad: University of Baghdad.

(b) Monolingual

البستاني ، فؤاد افرام (١٩٧٥) المنجد في اللغة. بيروت : دار المشرق ، طبعة ٢٥ .

(د.ت.) محيط المحيط. بيروت : دار المشرق ، جزآن .

(١٩٧٣) منجد الطلاب. بيروت : دار المشرق ، طبعة ١٥ .

الرازي ، محمد عبد القادر (١٩٦٧) مختار الصحاح. بيروت : دار الكتاب العربي .

7. Word Counts and Word Lists

Aramco (1958) English-Arabic Word List. Aramco Arabic Language Series, Beirut: Catholic Press.

Bailey, E. M. (n.d.) A List of Modern Arabic Words. Cairo: Nile Mission Press (pub. about 1950).

∟This list was compiled from a statistical count of about 200,000 words on no specific topic from 6 editions of 4 daily Egyptian newspapers and 3 editions of 3 weekly Egyptian magazines∟.

Brill, M. et al (1940) The Basic Word-List of the Arabic Daily Newspaper. Jerusalem: Hebrew University Press.

∟This list is a statistical count of about 136,000 words from a few Egyptian and Palestinian newspapers published between 1937-39. The list is restricted only to certain specific topics such as main editorials, important news items and incidents∟.

Landau, Jacob B. (1959) A Word Count of Modern Arabic Prose. New York: American Council of Learned Societies.

∟Landau also made a statistical count of about 136,000 words as Brill et al above, but Landau's was obtained from 60 Egyptian books on a large variety of topics. This word count includes the list of Brill et al, as a comparison∟.

MECAS (1959) A Selected Word List of Modern Literary Arabic. Beirut: Khayat's.

∟This word list contains a basic vocabulary of only 3,000 most common words (in 10 sections) based on a frequency count of newspaper Arabic. This book also contains useful appendices of everyday vocabulary∟.

Van Wagoner, M. Y. et al (1980) English-Arabic Vocabulary: Student's Pronouncing Dictionary. Ithaca, New York: Spoken Language Services.

∟A vocabulary of 7,000 entries based on English and Arabic word-frequency counts∟.

8. Tests

AATA (1968) Arabic Proficiency Test. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan. 2nd edn.

∟The new revised and improved version tests student's proficiency at 3 different levels devised by AATA (American Association of Teachers of Arabic)∟.

Hanna, Sami A. (1964) First-Year Arabic Qualifying Examination.

Salt Lake City: Middle East Center, University of Utah, College Level.

Rammuny, Raji (1986) 'Oral Proficiency Testing for Elementary Arabic: The Michigan Model', Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

∟This model provides 2 types of tests: proficiency-based oral achievement tests and the proficiency-based oral interview which is modelled after the ACTFL (American Council on the teaching of Foreign Languages) oral proficiency interview∟.

9. Audio-Visual Aids

To list audio-visual aids available or used in TAFL adequately is a difficult task. Many of the reference sources do not provide full bibliographical data such as the exact number of audio cassettes, running times, records, flash cards, etc. Also many of the locally produced or acquired materials are undated and unpublished, namely cassettes, Arabic radio broadcasts and TV extracts on video. Since we need to provide an idea of the types of audio-visual aids currently used in TAFL in a list of this type, the following list bears many of these inadequacies.

(a) Audio Tapes, Cassettes and Records

AATA (1985) News of the United Nations in Arabic. Audio-Visual

Development Project of the American Association of Teachers of

Arabic (AATA), 4 broadcasts, Feb. 1984, with accompanying Arabic transcript, 6pp.

AATA President Sadat: Speech at UN. On 29-11-75, with accompanying Arabic transcript, 7pp., 1 x 36' cassette. Both the above recorded by UN Audio Recording, distributed by AATA.

Abboud, P.F. et al (1968) EMSA. (cf. 2).

23 Audio cassettes covering pronunciation drills, grammar drills and basic texts. Recordings not well-organized. The drills are not found written out in the course books and thus they are difficult to be used on their own. However, transcripts of drills available separately from the University of Michigan.

— (1971) Modern Standard Arabic: Intermediate Level (cf. 2)
7 audio cassettes.

Abdo, Daud A. (1962-64) A Course in Modern Standard Arabic (cf. 2)
Audio tapes.

Al-Ani, S.H. and J.Y. Shamma (1967) Phonology and Script of Literary Arabic (cf. 1). Audio tapes.

Assimil (1979) Arabic with Ease (cf. 2).

4 audio cassettes or 12 records (45 rpm). Available from Assimil Nelis Publishers, 7 Russel Gardens, London, NW11 9NJ.

BBC Arabic Service (1983-) Harvest of the Month - حصاد الشهر.
London: BBC Publications. 1 x C60 cassette per month.

∟This is a monthly Arabic sound magazine or cassette suitable for intermediate and advanced students. The hour long magazine features each month's most popular items such as important news bulletins, political commentaries and current affairs. Content sheets in English and Arabic are included. Available by mail order from: Room 913 NE, Bush House, London; WC2B 4PH.∟

Bishai, W.B. (1962, 64) Modern Literary Arabic (cf. 2 and 3).
Audio tapes produced for these 5 vols.

- Bishai, W. B. (1971) Concise Grammar of Literary Arabic (cf. 2).
Audio tapes.
∟Vocabulary lists, exercises and 4 reading selections available on tapes from Harvard Middle East Center, Harvard University∟.
- Cowan, D. (1982) Extracts from An Introduction to Modern Literary Arabic (cf. 2). 1 x C60 audio cassette.
∟Decontextualized sentences read by Hamed al-Urainan∟.
- Classical Arabic Love Poems (n.d.) Imru' al-Qais: Poems 1-7.
2 audio cassettes.
- Classical Poetry (n.d.) Mu'allaqatu Ṭarafa. 1 x 30' audio cassette.
- (n.d.) Mutanabbi: Satire against Kāfūr. 1 x C30 audio cassette.
- Dickens, J. (1983) Introduction to Arabic Reading and Pronunciation. Unpub., University of St. Andrews Language Lab. collection.
9 audio cassettes - No. 1 on Sounds of Arabic. (SI)
∟These tapes are a reworking of the introductory section of EMSA (Abboud et al). Some of the texts have been altered and others inserted and a key to the exercises has been added. All the material has been re-recorded. The text (76pp.) includes drills with notes on pronunciation and a key to dictations∟.
- Ferguson, C.A. and M. Ani (1964) Lessons in Contemporary Arabic: Lessons 1-8. (cf. 2). Audio tapes.
∟Designed for use with an instructor in a university course of 6 to 8 hours per week. Assumes the groundwork of pronunciation has been laid∟.
- Hanna, S.A. and N. Greis (1965) Writing Arabic (cf. 1).
1 audio tape.
- Linguaphone (1983) The New Modern Standard Arabic Course (cf. 2).
4 x C60 audio cassettes or 21 x 45 rpm 7" records (SI)
- McCarus, E.N. and A.I. Adil (1962) Elements of Contemporary Arabic (cf. 2). Audio tapes.

McCarus, E.N. and R. Rammuny (1964) First Level Arabic: Elementary Literary Arabic for Secondary Schools. (cf. 2). Audio tapes designed to provide speech, reading and writing practice.

— (1970) A Programmed Course in Modern Literary Arabic Phonology and Script. (cf. 1).

Audio tapes and C60 cassettes available from University of Michigan Language Lab.

Mitchell, T.F. and D. Barber (1972) Introduction to Arabic (cf. 5).

1 x 7" LP record on pronunciation practice. Side 1: sounds of Arabic and some important features of Arabic words. Side 2: practice in word-linking and continuous speech. An accompanying leaflet explains the sounds of Arabic and includes a transcript of the record. Available from BBC Publications, P.O. Box 234, London SE1 3TH.

Mitchell, T.F. (1983) The Sounds of Arabic. Exeter: University of Exeter, The Language Centre. 2 parts (Exeter Tapes Series). Available through Drake Educational Associates, 89 St. Sagens Road, Fairwater, Cardiff, CF5 3AE.

Nasr, R. (1978) Learn to Read Arabic (cf. 1).

1 x C60 audio cassette.

Qabus, Sultan of Oman: Address to the Omani People.

About border war with South Yemen, broadcast on Omani radio 29-5-72. 1 audio cassette.

Qasim, Abd al' Karim, President of Iraq - 2 speeches in Arabic:

1. Islamic Conference, Baghdad, 29-5-62. (1 x C90)
2. Graduation Ceremony, Baghdad University, 15-6-62 (1 x C90).

Qur'ān Recital - Most AL departments keep a large selection of audio cassettes on the Holy Qur'ān on different chapters or even covering the whole Qur'ān. For instance, the St. Andrews University collection consists of 43 audio cassettes (41 x C40 and 2 x C30). There are also a large number of well-known reciters represented on these cassettes.

Said, K.T. (1965) Arabic, Modern Standard: Basic Course (cf. 2)
Audio tapes.

Wright, O. (1979) Arabic Course (cf. 2). 12 audio cassettes or
15 in rev. version.

Ziadeh and Winder (1957) An Introduction to Modern Literary Arabic (cf. 2).
4 x 12" LP records and audio tapes accompanying the text.
Designed to provide only reading and writing practice.

(b) Computer Programs

Abboud, Victorine C. and C.V. Bunderson (1971) A Computer-Assisted Instruction Program in the Arabic Writing System. Texas: University of Austin, Computer-assisted Instruction Lab. Technical Report No. 4.
[The first computer-assisted program for teaching the writing system of Arabic in , perhaps, the shortest possible time. This program provides the student with rapid feedback, individual instruction and audio-visual displays. The equipment used is the IBM 1500 Instructional System, incorporating a point graphics cathode ray tube, image projector, typewriter keyboard, light pen, and a random-access audio unit. Experimental tests, compared to other traditional methods, indicate that students taking this program required only about 8 to 12 hours (about a week's work) to master the writing skills of Arabic, whereas the traditional methods take up to 30 hours (or 4 to 5 weeks)].

Abboud, Victorine C. (1980-) Computer-Based Arabic Vocabulary Program. Texas: University of Austin, Computer-assisted Instruction Lab. unpub. report (cf. Allen 1980).

[This 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. The final segment consists of a series of tests namely fill in the blanks, matching, question/answer, etc.].

Diwan Bilingual Systems (1986) The Alphabetical and Reading System of Arabic. London: Loyview Ltd., 1-3 Mortimer St., London, W1M 7RN.

∟This program is graded into 9 different levels∟.

Rocketfield Computer Systems (1986) AL-RAZI: Bilingual Basic Interpreter (English/Arabic). Manchester: Rocketfield Computer Systems, 86 Birch Hall Lane.

—— (1986) ALIBI: Arabic/English/Arabic Dictionary. Manchester: Rocketfield Computer Systems.

University of Leeds (1985-87) Arabic by Computer Project. Leeds: Department of Modern Arabic Studies.

∟This project is still in the developmental stage. The end-product is intended for use in universities. See Chapter Four (4.3.1.1.1) under Current Applied Research, for more details∟.

University of Michigan (1970-) Monograph of Modern Standard Arabic Syntax. Ann Arbor: Center for Research on Languages and Language Behaviour of the University of Michigan.

∟This project was intended to provide a full-scale analysis of the Arabic language and a contrastive analysis of English to Arabic through the computer. After storing about half a million words of coded text into the computer, it allows for the immediate retrieval of occurrences of any structure for the following kinds of studies: syntactic (both clause and phrase-level), morphological, lexical, and semantic∟.

(c) Dictionaries

Parnwell, E.C. (1984) Oxford English-Arabic Picture Dictionary. Oxford: OUP. 109pp.

∟Although originally designed for teaching English in the Arab World, this pictorial dictionary is a useful visual aid in teaching Arabic vocabulary to learners of Arabic. Almost 2,000 words of

indoor and outdoor life, including common verbs, adjectives, prepositions, pronouns and adverbs are clearly illustrated in coloured pictures. It includes a useful index in both English and Arabic (28pp.). One drawback is that the Arabic words are not fully vocalized which does not make it suitable for beginners, but very useful for intermediate and advanced learners.]

Trade Partners (1986) Al-Turjuman. West Germany: Trade Partners, Marketing and Consulting GmbH, Gertraud Rostosky Strasse 55, D-8700 Wuerzburg, W. Germany.

[This is an electronic calculator-sized pocket dictionary in English/Arabic/English called Al-Turjuman-Interpreter. It contains a vocabulary of more than 11,000 words approved by a special board of Arabic scholars, after intensive frequency counts of both English and Arabic vocabularies. References are accessed by keying in the first two letters of the word required (in either English or Arabic) and then pressing a 'search' key which steps through all the words in the unit's memory beginning with those two letters. The words can be searched one at a time, either forward or backward by single key depressions or if the search is held down, the words are searched through rapidly to save time. The words appear on a dual-script display. Special features of Al-Turjuman include a test facility and a special store for up to 16 word pairs which the user may find difficult. These words may be retrieved quickly and changed at any time. It also functions as a four-function calculator with a memory. This impressive little dictionary could prove extremely useful to most serious Arabic students.]

(d) Flash-Cards

Abdo, D.A. (1962-64) A Course in Modern Standard Arabic (cf. 2).
Vocabulary flash cards.

∟In addition to the course book and tapes, a set of flash cards are included∟.

Aramco (n.d.) Basic Arabic. Aramco Arabic Language Series, Beirut: Middle East Export Press, Inc.

∟A set of 21 flash cards with a supplement. Not for sale, but may be requested from the Arabian American Oil Company, Public Relations Dept., 505 Park Avenue, New York, NY 10022∟.

Eid, Mushira et al (1986-87) Arabic Flash cards. Salt Lake City; Utah: Middle East Center, University of Utah.

∟Two sets of flashcards produced for the development of Arabic vocabulary. They were designed from, and intended to be used with EMSA (P. Abboud et al 1968/83). Set I: on Lessons 1-22 and Set II: on Lessons 23-44. Each set is available at \$10 a set from the Middle East Center, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112, USA∟.

Hanna, Sami A. (1964) Arabic Vocabulary Flash Cards. Boulder, Colorado: Pruett Press Inc. (P. O. Box 1560).

∟A set of 1044 flash-cards with 2500 words, to accompany Hanna's (1964) An Elementary Manual of Contemporary Literary Arabic (cf. 2)∟.

(e) Video-Cassettes

Abboud, P. et al (1968/83) EMSA (cf. 2). Video.

∟Recently a set of video-cassettes have been added to this course of textbooks and audio tapes∟.

Allen, Roger (1974-) Individualized Self-Instruction Program in Arabic.

University of Pennsylvania: College of General Studies (the evening and continuing education school). (SI)

∟This course includes 34 hours of videotape: 6 hours on the alphabet and 28 hours of lectures on basic grammar and syntax, with limited viewer participation. Designed for adult or 'late

learners' of Arabic, who for some reason or other cannot attend the normal classroom course. This course also includes 30 hours of reel-to-reel audio tapes containing drills, readings by native speakers of new vocabulary items in each lesson and example sentences, and passages for comprehension. These taped materials can be recorded for self-faced study at home. The basic textbook used is EMSA (Abboud et al). For more details about this course, see Allen 1980].

Filmscan (1985) Access to Arabic. London: Nelson Educational (Filmscan Ltd., 75 Brook Green, London W6 7BE). (SI)

[This is the first commercially produced video-based self-study beginner's course in Arabic in three parts. The materials include 2 x 90-minute video cassettes, 6 x 90-minute audio cassettes, workbook, course book, comprehensive learner's notes, and a pocket reference book. The script section is excellent for beginners. For more details, see Chapter Four (4.3.1.1.1) under Teaching Aids].

———— (1987) Access to the Arab Media. London: Nelson Educational (same as above). (SI)

[A new series of professionally produced AL video cassettes for advanced students. It consists of 10 x 60-minute video of extracts from TV news reports, documentaries, current affairs, interviews with Arab leaders, politicians and prominent personalities in the Arab World. Each video includes a book with Arabic transcripts and an Arabic-English glossary. Suitable for both classroom use and self-study. Ideal for use as supplementary material by advanced students on Arabic courses in universities, colleges and schools. The 10 video cassettes cover the following range of subjects:

- 1) Speeches and Interviews (Arab Leaders)
- 2) Speeches and Interviews (Arab Politicians)
- 3) News Reports from the Arab World (Part 1)

- 4) News Reports from the Arab World (Part 2)
- 5) History: 1945-1964
- 6) History: 1965-1986
- 7) Economics
- 8) Arab Oil
- 9) Science and Technology
- 10) Computer Literacy 7.

(f) Other Aids

Cadora, Frederic (1976-) Individualization of Arabic Language Instruction
(Project). Ohio: Ohio State University.

∟Cadora has organized an individualized AL course of study which runs parallel to but separate from a regular classroom sequence of courses. This course is similar to the Pennsylvania individualized AL course, as briefly described above (cf. 9e). The Ohio project uses mainly audio materials and a series of locally produced workbooks (including EMSA). Students have an option of changing from one mode to another (i.e. from regular classroom courses to individualized), and the majority of students transfer to the individualized option. The results of the Ohio project indicate that students taking the individualized course achieve much higher grades than those in the classroom course, although the average pace in the individualized format is slower 7.

Carrol, John B. and G. Leonard (1963) The Effectiveness of Programmed "Grafdriils" in Teaching the Arabic Writing System.

Cambridge, Mass.: Laboratory for Research Instruction, Harvard University. 41pp. report.

∟The "Grafdriils" technique is a carefully programmed course of 20 "Grafdriils" designed for use in a language lab. facility. This technique involves the systematic presentation of correlated visual and auditory stimuli in such a way that the student can note these

correlations and use them in his responses to problems calling for the matching of a speech response to a visual stimulus or a written response to an auditory stimulus. Research findings indicate that this technique appears to be superior to conventional classroom instruction and to self-study from a textbook on almost every count, reducing the time to master the writing system of Arabic to almost half.]

Hanna, Sami A. (1964) Laboratory Handbook. Salt Lake City: University of Utah, Middle East Center.

[Describes how to use the Language Lab. as an effective tool to teach Arabic.]

Khaledy, Nouri (1964) Arabic for Beginners: Writing and Reading (cf. 1) Workbook, 38pp.

[Useful writing practice for mastering the cursive script of Arabic. Distributed by Portland State College Bookstore, Portland, Oregon, USA.]

APPENDIX BA Selected List of TAFL Materials produced in the Arab World

The purpose of the following list is to provide an idea of the types of TAFL materials developed and used in the Arab World and thus it is intended to complement Appendix A and also to provide a further interpretation of the current 'state of the art', as discussed in Chapter Four and Chapter Seven (Conclusion). Over the last decade or so, great strides have been made by some of the Arab countries and organizations in promoting and teaching the Arabic language both inside and outside the Arab World. Saudi Arabia is, perhaps, the most active among these countries. Not only has Saudi Arabia established several specialized Arabic language institutes in Riyadh and Makkah but also a few abroad as in Tokyo, Dacca, Jakarta and Nouakchott (Mauritania). The Arabic language institutes in Riyadh (at Riyadh University and Imam Muḥammad Ibn Saud Islamic University) and Makkah (at University of Makkah - جامعة أم القرى) are basically divided into three departments: teaching Arabic to non-Arabs at three levels (elementary, intermediate and advanced), teacher training (including short-term in-service courses, 3-4 months) in TAFL, and research and curriculum development in TAFL. Some of the materials produced by these institutes are listed below, together with other materials produced by other organizations and individuals in the Arab World. To analyse and evaluate these materials in detail would require a project on its own and we have not attempted to do this here. However, we have divided the materials into the following

seven sections:

1. General TAFL Guides
2. Phonology and Script
3. Courses and Textbooks
4. Word Lists and Word Frequency Counts
5. Teacher's Manuals
6. Testing, Error Analysis and Contrastive Linguistics
7. Audio-Visual Aids
 - (a) General
 - (b) Arabic language games
 - (c) Computer Programs

1. General TAFL Guides

ابراهيم ، عبد العليم (١٩٦٨) الموجه الفني لمدرس اللغة العربية. القاهرة : دار المعارف بصر ، الطبعة السابعة .

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 الرياض : عمادة شؤون المكتبات ، جامعة الملك سعود .

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4. Word Lists and Frequency Counts

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5. Teachers' Manuals

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لغير الناطقين بها. الرياض : مطبعة مكتب التربية العربية لدول
الخليج (٣١٥ ص).

_____ (١٩٨٣) العربية للناشئين : منهج متكامل لغير الناطقين بالعربية ،
كتاب المعلم. ستة أجزاء (cf. 3)

طعيمة ، رشدي ومحمود كامل الناقة (١٩٨٤) تعليم العربية لغير الناطقين
بها : الكتاب الاساس (الجزء الاول) مرشد المعلم. مكة المكرمة : معهد
اللغة العربية (٢٣٢ ص ، الجربوع-3 cf.)

مذكور ، علي أحمد (١٩٨٥) تقويم برامج اعداد معلمي اللغة العربية لغير
الناطقين بها. الرباط : منشورات الايسيسكو ISESCO ، منظمة المؤتمر
الاسلامي ، المنظمة الاسلامية للتربية والعلوم والثقافة.

(ISESCO - Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization)

يونس ، فتحي علي (١٩٨٣) دليل المعلم للكتاب الاساسي في تعليم اللغة
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والعلوم (١٩٦ ص ، بدوي-3 cf.)

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 في معهد اللغة العربية بجامعة أم القرى. مكة المكرمة : وحدة البحوث
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 سعود (٢٠١ ص).

محمد ، محمد عبد الخالق (١٩٨٥) اختبارات اللغة. الرياض : معهد
 اللغة العربية ، جامعة الملك سعود (٣٠٨ ص)

7. Audio-Visual Aids

Many of the courses and textbooks listed above (no. 3) include a number of audio-cassettes which are not listed below, since a detailed list of TAFL audio-visual materials has not yet been produced in the Arab World. However, whatever materials the writer has come across and which are available in published form are listed below.

(a) General

صيني ، محمود اسماعيل وعمر الصديق عبد الله (١٩٨٤) المعينات البصرية في
تعليم اللغة. الرياض : عمادة شؤون المكتبات ، جامعة الملك سعود
 (٢٤٢ ص).

القاسمي ، علي محمد (١٩٦٥) مختبر اللغة. كويت : دار القلم (٢٨٠ ص).

(b) Arabic Language Games

عبد العزيز ، ناصف مصطفى (١٩٨٣) الالعاب اللغوية في تعليم اللغات الاجنبية : مع أمثلة في تعليم العربية لغير الناطقين بها. الرياض : دار المريخ (٢٣٩ ص).

(c) Computer Programs

Al Alamiah Software Division (P.O. Box 5954, Riyadh), a private company, in conjunction with Yamaha (Japan) have produced a wide range of bilingual (Arabic/English) educational and cultural computer programs which are directly relevant to the teaching of Arabic. These are catalogued below according to subject matter and title of each program in Arabic.

- (أ) لغة عربية : ١. كوفي (الخط) ٢. ابن مالك (أقسام الكلام)
 ٣. سيبويه ١ (القواعد العرابية العامة) ٤. سيبويه ٢ (ضبط أواخر الكلمات)
 ٥. أمثال وأقوال (الادب والبلاغة) ٦. كلمات من الفضاء (المفردات والانشاء)
 ٧. حكايات قوس قزح (التعبير) ٨. قاموس صخر (انجليزي / عربي)

- (ب) فنون اللغة : ١. فرس البحر (المفردات اللغوية)
 ٢. ذو الفكين (علاقات الكلمات من تضاد وترادف وتماثل)

- (ج) إسلاميات : ١. رحلة الى مكة (تاريخ الاسلام ومناسك الحج)
 ٢. القرآن الكريم (النص الكامل) ٣. بني الاسلام على خمس (أركان الاسلام)

- (د) علوم إجتماعية : ١. نافذة على العالم (معلومات الجغرافية)
 ٢. الوطن العربي (معلومات شاملة عن الوطن العربي)
 ٣. تاريخ العرب (الاحداث التاريخية) ٤. عالمنا العربي (الجغرافية)

APPENDIX CUniversity of Cambridge Local Examinations SyndicateSchools' Arabic ProjectSyllabus Guidelines for the Cambridge Certificate in Arabic and Arab StudiesINTRODUCTION

Aim of the Project: the School Arabic Project aims to establish a course which will introduce the study of Arabic into the curriculum both for its educational value as the key to a major culture and also to help to strengthen ties between the United Kingdom and the Arab World.

This paper sets out the course and examination criteria.

AIMS

To offer a one year course of about 150 hours leading to a Certificate in Arabic and Arab Studies.

To develop the ability to use Arabic for purposes of practical communication in speaking, listening and reading.

To offer insights into the geography, history, economy, culture and religion of Arabic-speaking countries.

COURSE CONTENT AND ASSESSMENT OBJECTIVES

Course content will be closely defined and the syllabus will cover:

- (i) Tasks to be performed
- (ii) Vocabulary and structures to be used productively and/or receptively. A course lexicon will be compiled for this

purpose and course teaching materials will be commissioned.

(iii) Topic areas to be studied, both in language and culture.

For assessment purposes, course content is divided into four components which will be assessed separately:

- (i) Speaking
- (ii) Listening
- (iii) Reading
- (iv) Cultural Studies

Speaking

Candidates will be expected to pronounce the sounds of Arabic well enough for a sympathetic native speaker to understand. A working knowledge of vocabulary contained in the course lexicon, and of verb forms correctly used in the present, future and past tenses will be required.

(a) Recitation.

Candidates will be asked to recite from memory two Muslim texts; the first is compulsory and the candidate will nominate the second:
Compulsory: the morning call to prayer.

Options:

- (i) the faatiha
- (ii) the first part of the suurat al baqr
- (iii) the aayat al kursii

(b) General Conversation. Candidates will be expected to respond to questions from the examiner within the limited range of topic areas listed as Annex A. Answers in complete sentences are not required where a natural response would consist of a short phrase.

(c) Role playing. Candidates will also be asked to perform TWO short role-playing tasks, involving taking the initiative and responding to questions within the limited range of the situations listed below:

- (i) Asking for directions in the street
- (ii) A common social situation (salutations, introductions, hospitality)
- (iii) In shops
- (iv) At the restaurant
- (v) At the post office or bank
- (vi) At the railway station/airport/travel agency
- (vii) At the hotel
- (viii) In an office

These situations are defined in more detail in Annex B. The candidate will choose two tasks from a pre-set list of four which he/she will be given fifteen minutes before the beginning of the oral examination. The scenario for each situation will appear on the task list. The examiner's role will also be suggested separately. Notes may be made on the examination sheet and taken into the examination, but the sheet must be left with the examiner after the test.

Listening

Candidates will be expected to demonstrate understanding of specific details in three pre-recorded passages, each of about fifty words in Arabic on one of the topics listed under Role playing and spoken twice at a slow conversational speed. The content of the passages will relate to a common social situation in an Arabic-speaking country and may include dialogue

and/or announcements. They will be based on vocabulary included in the lexicon. Five written questions will be set in English on each passage and the answers will be required in English.

Reading

Candidates will be expected to demonstrate understanding of common words or short phrases written in Arabic script and based on vocabulary included in the lexicon within the following range of topics.

- (i) Greetings, farewells and other courtesy phrases
- (ii) Exclamations
- (iii) Public signs
- (iv) Street signs, names of shops
- (v) Menus
- (vi) Timetables
- (vii) Advertisements
- (viii) Form rubrics

Assessment will take the form of a text consisting of twenty compulsory questions to be answered in English.

Cultural Studies

Candidates will be expected to demonstrate knowledge of the geography, history, economy, culture, social customs and religion of a number of Arabic speaking countries. Assessment of this component will be in two sections - A and B.

(a) Section A.

Twenty topics from those listed under Cultural Studies will be

published annually. Candidates should write a brief commentary on five of these in English. Points made in note form will be acceptable. Most topics will relate to the Arab or Islamic world in general. For the geographical subjects a choice will be given relating to the following three areas: North Africa; the Middle East (Levant/Fertile Crescent); the Gulf and Arabian Peninsula.

(b) Section B.

Candidates will be required to write, in English, two short essays of a minimum of 300 words each.

(i) Essay 1.

This will be a compulsory essay on one of three topics selected from a list of six published annually, all of which will be on some aspect of Islam (the history, religion, culture and social aspects). A short bibliography of suggested reading will be provided.

Topics for 1987:

The five pillars of Islam

The life of the Prophet Muhammad

The current position of women in the Arab World

The sects of Islam

The ritual of the Pilgrimage to Mecca

Islam, Judaism and Christianity compared

(ii) Essay 2.

The candidate will be invited to write an essay on a subject of his own choice from the topic areas listed under Cultural Studies,

except that it may not be on any of the twenty topics listed under Section A. If the chosen topic includes references to Islam, only points different from those made in the compulsory essay will be awarded marks in Essay 2.

ASSESSMENT AND MARKING SCHEMES/TIMING

Principles

The basic principle of assessment is that the tasks set in the examination should be, so far as it is possible, authentic and valuable outside the classroom.

(a) Paper 1 Speaking (25% of total marks, 15 minutes)

Four role-playing tasks, each stating five clearly defined sub-tasks, will be set each year. Two tasks will be selected for preparation while the previous candidate is being examined.

(i) Role-playing. $2\frac{1}{2}$ minutes and 5% of total marks for each situation = 10% of total.

(ii) Recitation of 2 texts. 5 minutes maximum. 5% of total marks.

(iii) General Conversation. This will take about 5 minutes and account for 10% of total marks.

(b) Paper 2 Listening (15% of total marks, 40 minutes)

For each of the three passages, candidates will have 2 minutes to examine five written questions in English. They will then hear the passage in Arabic through in its entirety. 3 minutes later the passage will be played again in its entirety and a final

3 minutes will be allowed to complete and check answers, which are to be written in English in note form. The same procedure will be adopted for the other two passages. Notes may be taken at any time during the test.

(c) Paper 3 Reading (20% of total marks, 25 minutes)

Twenty compulsory questions, 1 mark for each correct answer.

(c) Paper 4 Cultural Studies (40% of total marks, 2 hours)

This part of the examination will consist of two sections.

(i) Section A (20% of total marks)

30-40 minutes should be spent answering this section, questions being chosen out of the twenty defined annually in the syllabus.

(ii) Section B

The two essays will each account for 10% of total marks. There will be no penalties for poor style or spelling in English, accuracy and clarity being the criteria for the award of marks.

Classification of results

A separate grade of distinction, pass or fail, will be given for each of the four areas: Speaking, Listening, Reading and Cultural Studies. It will be possible to carry forward a pass in the oral test to the following year's examination.

GENERAL CONVERSATION TOPICSPersonal Identification

Name, age, address, telephone number, date and place of birth, nationality, name of school and intended profession.

Family

Number of brothers and sisters, ages, occupation/place of work of father, mother, etc.

House and Home

Type of house, flat, etc. describe house, number of rooms and type of rooms.

Amenities bath, shower, fridge, radio, TV, garage, garden.

Situation of house: town or village, size and location.

Life at School

Size of school and type.

Routine: how the candidate gets to school or work, time of daily arrival and departure.

Subjects studied: games and clubs.

Free time, Entertainment

Interests.

Sport: preferences.

Place of entertainment: e.g. cinema, theatre, youth club.

Travel and Holidays

Where the candidate likes to spend holidays.

Countries visited.

Methods of transport: e.g. car, airplane, boat, train.

Does the candidate know any Arab people? Names, where they live.

ROLE-PLAYING TASKSFinding the way

Asking and stating where places are, asking and stating distances, asking for directions and understanding them, giving instructions, asking about means of transport, location of bus stops and stations.

Meeting people

Greeting and routine enquiries about health and journey, presenting and being presented to a family, saying goodbye, arranging a future meeting, time and place, inviting and accepting invitations for a meal, drink, private and public entertainment.

Shopping

Asking for and understanding prices and quantities.

For Food: knowledge of types of shop and what they sell, names of common foodstuffs.

For Souvenirs and tourist requisites: bargaining.

Food and Drink

Ordering common food and drinks in a restaurant or cafe: prices, tipping, asking for the bill.

Services

Bank and Post Office: opening and closing times, enquiries about changing money, cashing travellers' cheques, buying stamps, sending letters and telegrams.

Petrol Station: buying petrol, oil, water, and asking to have tyres checked.

Chemist: buying medicines or treatments for headache, stomach upsets.

Transport and Travel Agency

Train, bus, coach, 'plane, car hire: buying a ticket, enquiries about departure and arrival times, platform or place of departure, connections, excursions, luggage.

Hotel

Checking in at a hotel: reservations, length of stay, meals, amenities, date of arrival and departure, giving name and passport number.

Enquiring whether someone is free, arranging an appointment, leaving name and profession and telephone number.

APPENDIX DSample outline of a Communicative Exercise in Arabic through Maps

In Chapter Five (5.2), the distinction between language usage (linguistic skills) and language use (communicative abilities) is clarified. Arising from this discussion, Widdowson (1978) suggests that the best way of teaching language use, at high school level, would be to associate the teaching of a FL with topics drawn from other subjects in the school curriculum which are neutral in respect of other cultures since they belong to the culture of formal education. For example, subjects such as geography, biology, mathematics and other science subjects are the same in all languages, only the means of expressing them are different. Selecting topics from geography can prove to be a fairly simple, cheap, and interesting way of practising and reinforcing some of the previously learnt linguistic elements of Arabic. In fact, this is exactly what (١٩٨٠) القاسمي has done. He used a map of Africa as an experiment to provide an in-service course for Arabic teachers in Gambia in 1977. He found that this experiment increased the fluency in the oral skills of Arabic of these teachers and he also discovered that the use of a map as a visual aid has many advantages in introducing simple words, expressions and many different grammatical structures. Since this experiment does not concentrate on the linguistic structure of Arabic as an end itself but on the communicative message or information (already acquired in the NL) to be exchanged or shared in Arabic, it can be regarded as a communicative exercise in line with the CA but only at the sentence level. The

linguistic structure of Arabic, in an exercise of this type, tends to become a tool and gradually of secondary importance to the learner. The quantity and variety of spoken Arabic generated in this experiment has been enormous. القاسمي devised a set of 28 exercises for this experiment in a question and answer sequence which he repeats once or twice after indicating the required spot on the map, thereafter the students are asked to provide the answers. The students are also asked questions about themselves after they have used the structure on the map. The typical questions and answers for each exercise are outlined below in brief:

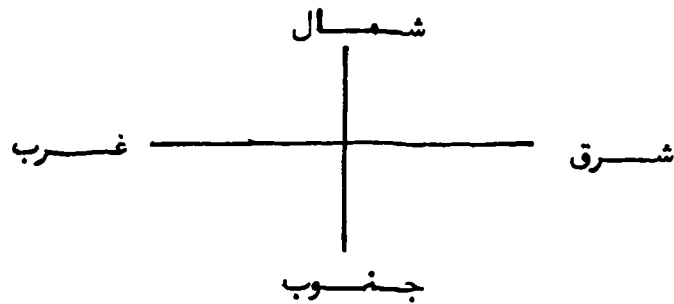
- Ex. 1 : ما هذه ؟ . . . هذه السودان
 ما هذا ؟ . . . هذا نهر النيل
 من هذا ؟ . . . هذا محمد
 من هذه ؟ . . . هذه فاطمة
- Ex. 2 : أين القاهرة ؟ . . . القاهرة في مصر
- Ex. 3 : هل مقديشو في الصومال ؟ . . . نعم ، هي في الصومال
- Ex. 4 : هل طرابلس في غانا ؟ . . . لا ، هي في ليبيريا
- Ex. 5 : هل نهر النيجر في مالي ؟ . . . نعم ، هو في مالي
- Ex. 6 : هل هو ابراهيم ؟ . . . نعم ، هو ابراهيم
 هل هي سعاد ؟ . . . لا ، هي آمننة
- Ex. 7 : هل أنت من غامبيا ؟ . . . نعم ، أنا من غامبيا
 هل أنت من كينيا ؟ . . . لا ، أنا من غامبيا
 هل أنت من الخرطوم ؟ . . . لا ، أنا من كانسو
- Ex. 8 : أين الجزائر ؟ . . . هي على البحر الابيض
 هل القلم على الطاولة ؟ . . . نعم ، هو على الطاولة

- Ex. 9 : هل نهر النيل طويل ؟ . . . نعم ، هو طويل
- Ex. 10 : هل أحمد طويل ؟ . . . نعم ، هو طويل
هل كريمة طويلة ؟ . . . لا ، هي قصيرة
- Ex. 11 : هل المحيط الاطلسي كبير ؟ . . . نعم ، هو كبير
هل نيجيريا صغيرة ؟ . . . لا ، هي كبيرة
هل هذا الولد كبير ؟ . . . لا ، هو صغير
- Ex. 12 : هل السنغال بعيدة من الصومال ؟ . . . نعم ، هي بعيدة
هل تونس قريبة من ليبيا ؟ . . . نعم ، هي قريبة
- Ex. 13 : هو من المغرب . . . هو مغربي
- Ex. 14 : الطبيب سنغالي . . . الطبيبة سنغالية

Ex. 15 : Revision of exercises 13 and 14 with additions :

- هل العامل من موريتانيا ؟ . . . نعم ، هو موريتاني
- Ex. 16 : أين يقع البحر الابيض ؟ (تونس point to شمال تونس)
- Ex. 17 : أين تقع مصر ؟ (البحر الايض point to جنوب البحر الايض)
- Ex. 18 : أين يقع البحر الاحمر ؟ (السودان point to شرق السودان)
- Ex. 19 : أين تقع أرتيريا ؟ (البحر الاحمر point to غرب البحر الاحمر)
- Ex. 20 : أين تقع زائير ؟ (افريقيا point to في وسط افريقيا تقريبا)

Ex. 21 : Revision of exercises 16 - 20 with the use of the following diagram:



- Ex. 22 : أي نهر يجري في مصر ؟ . . . النيل يجري في مصر
- Ex. 23 : في أي بلد يجري جوبا ؟ . . . يجري جوبا في الصومال
- Ex. 24 : ما هي عاصمة كينيا ؟ . . . عاصمة كينيا هي نايروبي
- Ex. 25 : ما لون غانا على الخريطة ؟ [Answer more appropriate] أحمر

- Ex. 26 : هل تشاد حمراء على الخريطة ؟ • (خضراء) • لا ، هي خضراء
- Ex. 27 : كيف الجو في موريتانيا الآن ؟ [answer more appropriate] خارجا
- Ex. 28 : متى تمطر في السودان ؟ • (الصيف) • تمطر في الصيف

A large number of questions and answers can be devised in each exercise.

In order that the linguistic skills of the students can be strengthened for the development of the conversational skill, القاسمي notes that the teacher must satisfy the following points:

1. The student must understand what he repeats in the exercises.
This does not mean that the sentences should be translated.
2. Each exercise should be restricted to one type of structure or expression.
3. The student should take part in performance, not in giving answers only but by also asking questions in Arabic.
4. After the teacher has made sure that the students have comprehended each structure, he should revise the previous structure so that the structures can be consolidated.

The type of vocabulary items and grammatical structures that can be practised and consolidated by the use of a geographical map are many and these are:

1. Vocabulary

A. Functional vocabulary items : e.g.

1. Interrogatives : ما ، من ، أين ، متى ، كم ، أي
2. Demonstrative pronouns : هــذا ، هــذه
3. Prepositions : الى ، من ، على ، في

B. Some basic words of Arabic : e.g.

1. Names of towns and countries: المغرب ، مصر ، بنغازي
2. Directions : وسط ، غرب ، شرق ، جنوب ، شمال
3. Seasons : الشتاء ، الخريف ، الصيف ، الربيع
4. Weather : ممطر ، معتدل ، بارد ، حار
5. Adjectives : قريب ، بعيد ، صغير ، كبير
6. Colours : أزرق ، أخضر ، أحمر ، أسود ، أبيض
7. Natural characteristics : الخليج ، النهر ، المحيط ، البحر

2. Basic Grammatical Structures

A. Interrogative sentences : e.g.

1. من هذا ؟ ، ما هذه ؟ ، ما هذا ؟
2. هل أنت من السودان ؟ أين نايروبي ؟ أين القاهرة ؟

B. Declarative sentences : e.g.

1. Nominal clauses - الخرطوم في السودان ، القاهرة مدينة كبيرة -
2. Verbal clauses - أسكن في تونس ، يعمل في داكار -

C. Negative sentences : e.g.

1. ما أذهب الى القاهرة
2. لا أذهب الى طرابلس
3. لم أذهب الى كنانو
4. لن أذهب الى الرباط

3. Basic Morphological Structures

A. Comparative forms : e.g.

1. نيجيريا أكبر من السنغال
2. النيل أطول نهر في افريقيا

B. Personal origins : e.g.

1. هو من مصر - هو مصري
2. المغربيون أفريقيون

4. Complementary Grammatical Structures

A. Genitive construction : e.g.

1. يقع السودان جنوب مصر
2. عاصمة السنغال هي دكار

B. Relative pronouns : e.g.

1. النهر الذي يجري في مصر هو النيل
2. المدينة التي أحبها هي فاس

In order that the four linguistic skills are included in this type of exercise , القاسمي recommends that the teacher may write a few of the expressions on the blackboard after they have been uttered orally by the students. Then, the students may be asked to read them individually from the blackboard. Thereafter, some of these expressions may be dictated to the students for writing practice. In this way, the four linguistic skills can be practised in their natural order of development, i.e. listening first, then speaking, reading and writing.

Although the learners' own experience of language is extended into a different field of realization through these exercises, they are still restricted to the level of the sentence and thus cannot be considered adequate for the development of CC in the wider sense, i.e. to include discourse or textual competence in Arabic. Therefore, further exercises or techniques are

needed in this sample outline to include the learners' development of personal meaning at the level of discourse in the form of controlled, semi-controlled and independent oral and written activities. Since the structural patterns and vocabulary items are thoroughly practised in these exercises, the teacher and the students can choose, for example, to discuss a particular topic or country, which they may prepare beforehand as homework in essay or composition form. These topics can be discussed collectively or as group-work activity.

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AIMAV	:	Association Internationale pour la Recherche et la Diffusion des Méthodes Audio-Visuelles et Structuro-Globales
ALECSO	:	Arab League Education, Culture and Sciences Organization
AVLJ	:	Audio-Visual Language Journal
BRISMES	:	British Society for Middle East Studies
CILT	:	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
CMLR	:	Canadian Modern Language Review
CUP	:	Cambridge University Press
IJAL	:	International Journal of Applied Linguistics
IRAL	:	International Review of Applied Linguistics
MESA	:	Middle East Studies Association
MIT	:	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
MLJ	:	Modern Language Journal
OUP	:	Oxford University Press
SOAS	:	School of Oriental and African Studies
TESOL	:	Journal for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

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