



MODERN STANDARD ARABIC

BASIC COURSE

Instructor's Manual

by

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The eight questions listed in The Phonology Section (pp. 4 - 7) are adapted from Zaki N. Abdel-Malek's Review of the book A Programmed Course in Modern Literary Arabic Phonology and Script by Ernest McCarus and Raji Rammuny; the Review was published in the American Journal of Arabic Studies, I (1973), pp. 130 - 142.

The first part of Chapter II is a revision of Zaki N. Abdel-Malek's "The Design of a Textbook Lesson for Teaching Colloquial Egyptian Arabic as a Foreign Language," IRAL, X/1 (1972), pp. 47 -59.

The author of this Manual has drawn upon the works listed in the Bibliography for explanations, principles, and suggestions. Needless to say, many other works and oral discussions have been responsible for shaping the author's thinking, thus exerting an indirect (and often unconscious) influence upon the materials in this booklet and in the course it describes.

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CONTENTS

	Page
Chapter I	1
A. Objectives	1
B. The Phonology Section	4
C. Reading and Writing	13
Chapter II. DESIGN OF THE COURSE	20
Lessons 1 - 128	
The Presentation Drills	20
The Dialogue	32
The Vocabulary List	35
The Grammatical Notes	38
The Pattern Drills	38
The Free Selection Drills	41
Free Oral Expression	44
Comprehension Exercises	48
Exercises on Reading and Writing	49
Lessons 129 - 141	
The First Passage, Review, and Homework	50
The Second Passage, Review, and Homework	51
Exercises on the Two Passages	52
Lessons 142 - 143	53
Grammatical Notes Volume	53
Chapter III	60
A. General Objectives for the Various Parts of the Lesson	60
The Presentation Drills	60
The Dialogue	61
The Passage for Intensive Study	61
The Vocabulary List and the Grammatical Notes	62
The Pattern Drills	62
The Free Selection Drills	62
Free Oral Expression	63
The Comprehension Exercises	64
Composition	64

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Page

B. Specific Objectives 65

Chapter IV 67

A. Treatment of Political Materials 67
B. Options 68

(1) Use of Presentation Drills 68
(2) Varying Content 69
(3) Order of Parts 69
(4) Teaching Heterogeneous Classes 69

C. Quizzes 73

D. From MSA to Colloquial 75

E. Schedules 77

Schedule 1: Lessons 1 - 19 78
Schedule 2: Lessons 20 - 128 79
Schedule 3: (a) Vocabulary Lessons 129 - 141 80
(b) Grammatical Notes 81

Notes on the Homework 82

Bibliography 85

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CHAPTER I

A. Objectives

The objectives of the Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) Basic Course are specified in the Guidance on Arabic Revision Project (prepared by Headquarters, Defense Language Institute, and dated 15 March 1973); those objectives are quoted below:

"(1) Priority will be given to comprehension of oral and written MSA as found in contemporary press, radio, official reports and communiques. Thus, the student should control the basic morphological and syntactic structures of MSA with a vocabulary of at least 1,500 commonly used words and 500 military and technical terms.

"(2) Priority skill development for demonstrating the above comprehension should be in the form of transliteration (romanized block capitals .....) and summarizing in English of spoken MSA material. Dictation exercises, particularly of a variety of relevant alphanumeric combinations, should also be used to improve proficiency in the above skills, including appropriate use of relevant colloquial numerals.

"(3) Reading comprehension of written MSA as found in the contemporary press on a military, political, or general subject should be demonstrated (a) by answering questions in English on key points and (b) by translation into written English.

"(4) Comprehension of Egyptian colloquial dialect of at least 100 of the most common greeting, courtesy, and everyday expressions

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related to military situations with an additional capability of differentiating Egyptian dialect expressions from similar material in other dialects and spoken MSA will be developed as a special skill with the goal no higher than C-1 proficiency level.

"(5) Practice in writing of Arabic script should support recognition, comprehension, and transliteration activities.

"(6) The activities of speaking, composing, and reading aloud are ancillary at this level and are to be used to assist achievement of primary objectives. The learning of oral responses to colloquial dialect expressions is also useful, but the active study and mastery of a dialect is beyond the scope of the basic course."

The objectives specified in item (4) above are achieved through the use of Colloquial Egyptian Arabic (CEA) lessons upon completion of the MSA course.

In terms of the language proficiency definitions used by the Department of Defense, the MSA course is designed to achieve the following skills:

Proficiency level	Skill	Definition/Explanation
C3	Minimum professional	Listening comprehension (C) : Able to understand the essentials of all speech in a standard dialect, including technical discussions within a special field. Has effective understanding of face-to-face speech, delivered with normal clarity and speed in a standard dialect, on general topics and areas of special interest; has

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Proficiency level	Skill	Definition/Explanation
		broad enough vocabulary that he rarely has to ask for paraphrasing or explanation; can follow accurately the essentials of conversations between educated native speakers, reasonably clear telephone calls, radio broadcasts, and public addresses on non-technical subjects; can understand without difficulty all forms of standard speech concerning a special professional field.
		Reading comprehension (R)
R3	Minimum professional	Able to read standard newspaper items addressed to the general reader, routine correspondence, reports and technical material in his special field. Can grasp the essentials of articles of the above types without using a dictionary; for accurate understanding moderately frequent use of a dictionary is required. Has occasional difficulty with unusually complex structures and low-frequency idioms.
		Writing (W)
W2	Limited working	Can draft routine social correspondence and meet limited professional needs. Is familiar with the mechanics of the writing system, except in character systems where ability is limited to a small stock of high-frequency items. Makes frequent errors in spelling, style, and writing conventions. Able to write simple notes and draft routine social and limited office messages. Material normally requires editing by a more highly proficient writer.

NOTE: For many students, speaking is not a terminal skill objective, but merely an enabling one to support the development of recognition skills. For other students who need to develop all functional language skills, speaking is a terminal objective. Although the proficiency level objective for such students in the past has been stated as S3, a more realistic one for a DLI 47-week Basic Course in Modern Standard Arabic would be in the S2 range.

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The structures and the vocabulary items taught in the MSA course are those which the above objectives require. Since the graduates are expected to understand radio Arabic, fully inflected forms are taught in the course; it must be noted, however, that more emphasis is placed on comprehending fully inflected forms than on producing the correct inflectional affixes in all contexts. Production of fully inflected forms is primarily a tool for enhancing full comprehension. In the last one-third of the course, the production of fully inflected forms is judiciously phased down.

The general and the specific objectives for each part of the lesson will be stated after describing the course design.

B. The Phonology Section

The first unit in the course teaches the sounds of MSA. Some pronunciation problems will persist even after that unit has been completed; such problems should be handled on a case by case basis.

The unit on pronunciation specifies and drills the problematic features which emerge from contrasting the sound system of MSA and that of American English. Listed below are some of the questions which guided the contrastive analysis:*

(1) Does American English have a phoneme which is similar to the MSA phoneme being considered? On the basis of this question, /H/, /x/, /r/, /9/, /ġ/, /q/, and the emphatic phonemes in MSA are

*See Chapter 2 of Lado's Linguistics across Cultures, and Chapters 7-9 of his Language Teaching.

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listed as problems.

(2) Are the allophones of the MSA phoneme similar to those of the corresponding American English phoneme? This question leads to the conclusion that MSA /t/ constitutes a problem for American students when it occurs intervocalically before a weak stress (since in this environment Americans produce a flapped [ṭ] which an Arab usually identifies with /d/), and all of the MSA stops are listed as problems when they occur in a final position (since in this position Americans may produce unreleased allophones which an Arab finds difficult to identify).

(3) Are the allophones of the MSA phoneme and those of the corresponding American English phoneme similarly distributed?

(4) Is the distribution of the MSA phoneme similar to that of the corresponding American English phoneme? On the basis of this question, the following two problems are identified:

(a) The American English phonemes /s/, /z/, /t/, and /d/ do not usually occur before /y/ (in this environment they are usually replaced by /š/, /ž/, /č/, and /ǰ/ respectively); the corresponding MSA phonemes do. Thus before /y/, American learners tend to replace MSA /s/, /z/, /t/, and /d/ by /š/, [ž], [č] and /j/ respectively; this tendency they must overcome.

(b) The American English phoneme /æ/ does not occur under weak stress (in this environment it is replaced by /ə/); the corresponding MSA phoneme /a/ does. The American learner must therefore overcome

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the tendency to replace a weakly-stressed [æ] by [ə] in MSA utterances.[1]

(5) Does American English have a cluster[2] similar to the MSA cluster being considered? On the basis of this question, the following problems are identified:

(a) Even after they have mastered the pronunciation of the single MSA phonemes/q/, /H/, /9/, and /ḍ/, American learners find it difficult to pronounce the clusters /qH/ and /9ḍ/.

(b) Double consonants are difficult for American students to produce; Americans often produce VC_1C_1 as VVC_1 (thus سَنَّ is usually pronounced as سَانَ), and C_1C_1V as C_1hV (thus أَنَّا is usually pronounced as أَنْهَى).

(6) Is the distribution of the MSA cluster similar to that of the corresponding American English cluster?

(7) Is the rhythm of MSA similar to the rhythm of American English? on the basis of this question it is possible to specify the type of difficulty that American students (who are accustomed to the stress-timed rhythm of American English) have with the syllable-timed rhythm of MSA.

(8) Are the intonation patterns of MSA similar to the corresponding intonation patterns of American English? On the basis of this question, the intonation pattern for MSA yes-no questions (/223↗/) is identified as a problem for American students since it differs from the corresponding two patterns in American English (/233↗/ and /231↘/).

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Some of the problems which Americans encounter in learning the sound system of MSA can be predicted only on the basis of past experience: e.g., Americans tend to replace word-final /-H/ and /-9/ by /-Ha/ and /-9a/ respectively; thus بَلَحْ is pronounced as بَلَحَهْ , رَاحْ as رَاحَهْ , جَامِعْ as جَامِعَهْ , and بَدِيعْ as بَدِيعَهْ . Drills to overcome these problems must be included in any unit which attempts to teach the sound system of MSA.

Needless to say, the problems referred to under the above questions are only a small sample of what a systematic contrastive analysis should reveal.

The sounds taught are arranged according to difficulty (beginning with the easiest). Each pronunciation problem is presented first for recognition, then for production. Most of the recognition drills force the student to differentiate a given sound from the other sounds with which it is usually confused; to such drills the teacher may add helpful remarks of an impressionistic nature (e.g., /q/ sounds like the call of the crow; emphatic consonants are lower in pitch than the corresponding plain consonants; etc.). Production drills consist of props and partials* (mostly articulatory) and of utterances which the students must repeat after the instructor.

Each pronunciation drill is preceded by a set of instructions specifying the procedure to be followed and the response to be expected from the student.

Teaching problematic sounds is illustrated in the following paragraphs:

* See Lado, R. Language Teaching, A Scientific Approach, page 220.

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The consonants /ġ/ and /x/

The consonant /ġ/ resembles the sound produced while gargling. Listen to the instructor producing a long /ġ/ sound:

ġġġġġġġġġġ

Now listen to the syllable /ġa/ produced several times in rapid succession:

ġa ġa ġa ġa ġa ġa ġa ġa ġa ġa

Listen to the instructor producing a long /x/ sound:

xxxxxxxxxx

Now listen to the syllable /xa/ produced several times in rapid succession:

xa xa xa xa xa xa xa xa xa

In the following pair, the first syllable begins with /ġ/ and the second begins with /x/:

xa, ġa

Again: xa, ġa

Once more: xa, ġa

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Each sequence in the following exercise consists of three words to be identified as 1, 2, and 3 in order. Listen to each sequence and indicate which words are the same.

Example: xaab, ġaab, ġaab 2 and 3

xaab, ġaab, xaab
axiir, aġiir, aġiir
ġaab, xaab, xaab
xaab, xaab, ġaab
aġiir, axiir, aġiir
faariġ, faariġ, faarix

ġaṣṣ, raṣṣ, raṣṣ
yaġuuṣ, yaġuuṣ, yaruuṣ
baġaa, baġaa, baraa
ṣaġiir, ṣariir, ṣariir
ṣaaġ, ṣaaġ, ṣaar
faṛaaṛ, faṛaaġ, faṛaaġ

ġalab, ġalab, galab
ġiira, giira, ġiira
gaab, gaab, ġaab
ġiib, ġiib, giib
śuġl, śuġl, śugl
śugl, śugl, śuġl
śuġl, śugl, śuġl
śuġl, śugl, śugl

yuġayyir, yuwayyir, yuġayyir
yuġayyir, yuwayyir, yuġayyir
yuġayyir, yuġayyir, yuwayyir
ṣaġġar, ṣayyar, ṣayyar

xaan, haan, xaan
yaxuun, yaxuun, yahuun
yaxuun, yahuun, yahuun
ahlii, axlii, ahlii

xaal, Haal, xaal
axwaal, axwaal, aHwaal
baax, baax, baaH
sabaH, sabaH, sabax
maHṛuum, maxṛuum, maxṛuum

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The Arabic consonant /ġ/ differs from the American English consonant /r/: /ġ/ resembles the sound produced by gargling; the American English /r/ does not. The first of the following two words begins with the Arabic /ġ/ while the second begins with the American English sound /r/:

ġiid read

Each sequence in the following exercise consists of three words to be identified as 1, 2, and 3 in order. Listen to each sequence and indicate which words are the same (the American English /r/ is represented in the exercise by R).

ġaa'ib, ġaa'ib, Raa'ib
ġaym, Raym, ġaym
Raab, ġaab, Raab
luġatun, luġatun, luġatun
biġaal, biġaal, biRaal
baliiġ, baliiR, baliiR
nabaġ, nabaġ, nabaġ
mablaR, mablaR, mablaġ

The sound /ġ/ can be produced by gargling. If necessary, the student may gargle with water at first. Imitate the instructor:

ġġġġġ

ġa ġa ġa ġa ġa

ġaab

ġaym

baġaa

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yaġiib

biġaal

muġiiθ

baliiġ

buluuġ

mablaġ

The sound /x/ can be produced by whispering the /ġ/ already learned. The instructor will first produce a long /ġ/, then he will whisper it to produce a long /x/.

ġġġġġ xxxxx

Listen again, then imitate the instructor:

ġġġġġ	xxxxx
ġa	xa
ġa ġa ġa	xa xa xa

The sound /x/ can also be approximated by pretending that a piece of paper is stuck to the back part of the roof of the mouth and trying to blow it off. Repeat after the instructor:

x x x

xa xa xa

xaan

xiyaanatun

xaybah

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yaxuun

duxaan

baxiilun

daxiilun

siix

daax

kuux

xaab, ġaab

xalab, ġalab

baax, baaġ

maxluub, maġluub

Finally, /x/ can be produced as follows: Press the back of the tongue against the roof of the mouth to produce a /k/. Keep the back of the tongue pressed against the roof of the mouth (i.e., do not release the /k/), then use a pencil to lower the tongue slightly, thus producing a narrow passage between the back of the tongue and the roof of the mouth. Forcing the air stream through this narrow passage produces /x/.

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C. Reading and Writing

Arabic script is discussed and drilled in a separate volume entitled The Arabic Writing System.

The point in the course where Arabic script should be introduced is controversial:

(1) Some prefer to present the script before the presentation of grammatical structures;

(2) others prefer to present the script during the presentation of grammatical structures, without the additional use of a phonemic transcription;

(3) and still others prefer to present the script during the presentation of grammatical structures, additionally using a phonemic transcription until the student can read sequences in the Arabic alphabet.

If the first procedure is adopted, Arabic script may be presented (a) together with the sound system, or (b) after completing the unit on pronunciation (but before presenting any grammatical structures). Those who prefer to teach the phonology and the script simultaneously claim that such a procedure enhances the association of sound and symbol. However, the following problems must be pointed out:

(a) An Arabic allograph represents a given sound in certain positions but not in others. It would be confusing and uneconomical to teach (through elaborate discussion in English) all the allographs, and to specify their conditioning environments, while at the same time

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attempting to teach the Arabic sound system.

(b) The sounds to be taught must be presented in some order. Ideally, the order should be determined by the relative difficulty of perceptual and articulatory problems (those problems are specified by contrasting the sound system of Arabic and that of American English). Similarly, the orthographic symbols to be taught should be arranged according to their relative difficulty. The set of problems involved in teaching MSA sounds differs drastically from the set involved in teaching the corresponding orthographic symbols; thus the order which is necessitated by one set differs from the order which is necessitated by the other set. For example, /j/ is phonologically easier than the emphatic /ṭ/, and therefore the former should be taught before the latter; on the other hand, the orthographic representation of /j/ is much more complex than that of /ṭ/ (/j/ is represented by at least four different allographs while /ṭ/ is represented by only one), and therefore the orthographic representation of /j/ should be taught after that of /ṭ/. The inevitable conclusion is that sounds and orthographic representations should be taught separately.

Presenting the script after completing the unit on pronunciation but before teaching any grammatical structures frustrates the student: it is enervating to devote twenty (or more) of the first class periods exclusively to the study of an extremely difficult writing system (the symbols are numerous and totally new to the learner, the direction is from right to left, the short vowels are not usually represented, etc.);

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besides, this procedure deprives the student of the necessary feeling of accomplishment (All this time in class without being able to talk !).

Teaching the script during the presentation of grammatical structures and without the use of a phonemic transcription means that, until he can read Arabic symbols at a useful speed and with reasonable accuracy, the student will be unable to review at home the grammatical material he studies in class. For DLI students, this problem is a serious one since a whole lesson must be covered each day.

In the MSA Basic Course, the following procedure is followed:

(a) Pronunciation is taught at the very beginning. Simultaneously with the presentation of sounds, a phonemic transcription is taught. (At different points, the unit on pronunciation contains short dialogues, courtesy expressions, and other meaningful utterances which stimulate interest and provide additional exercise on previously-taught sounds).

(b) The unit on pronunciation is followed by fifteen lessons which are written in phonemic transcription and which present a set of basic structures. Together with those fifteen lessons, the essentials of Arabic script are taught. Beginning with Lesson 16, all utterances are written in Arabic script with a few minor exceptions such as in grammatical notes and in some presentation drills.

Each section in the volume The Arabic Writing System consists of two principal parts:

(1) The first part teaches recognition of certain typewritten letters; it consists of explanation and reading exercises to be

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covered in class.

(2) The second part teaches the student how to write the letters of the first part in ruq9a style script; it consists of explanation and writing exercises to be assigned as homework.

The exercises labelled "Dictation" should be studied at home before they are taken in class.

Utterances should be dictated in short sequences separated by pauses of adequate length. Each sequence should be pronounced at normal speed and without artificial precision. Once all the utterances have been dictated, the teacher should read the whole passage at a fluent but relaxed pace; as he does so, the students should check their work and make final corrections.

For re-enforcement, each student should correct his own paper by checking it against a model. A model may be provided by asking one of the students to write on a blackboard as the dictation proceeds; the blackboard should be mounted on a stand at the back of the room. At the end of the exercise, the blackboard should be moved to the front of the room, and the utterances on it should be corrected before students begin to correct their papers. (See Lado's Language Teaching, p. 146).

The exercises on reading and writing are described below:

Lessons 1 - 19

In each lesson, the students cover one or more of the sections in The Arabic Writing System. The sections to be covered are specified in each lesson.

Lessons 20 - 35

The exercises of Lessons 20 and 21 are typical:

Lesson 20: The students read the Dialogue of Lesson 15 (in Arabic script). For homework, the students (1) prepare for the following day's dictation (which is based on the Dialogue of Lesson 15), and (2) read the Dialogue of Lesson 16.

Lesson 21: In class, the students (1) take a dictation based on the Dialogue of Lesson 15, and (2) read the Dialogue of Lesson 16. For homework, the students (1) prepare for the following day's dictation (which is based on the Dialogue of Lesson 16) and (2) read the Dialogue of Lesson 17.

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Lessons 36 - 40

In class, the students read a passage in the lesson; for homework, they write out the responses to certain questions in the Free Selection Drills. Other exercises are specified.

Lessons 41 - 50

In class, the students read a passage in the lesson; for homework, they rewrite a paragraph making specified changes (e.g., changing the tense, changing the number, changing the gender, etc.).[3]

Lessons 51 - 60

In class, the students read a passage in the lesson; for homework, they rewrite a paragraph in their own words, or answer a given set of questions.

Lessons 61 - 70

In class, the students read a passage in the lesson; for homework, they write a few sentences on a specified subject, add a few sentences to a given passage, or answer a set of questions.

Lessons Which Follow 70

The reading passages are in the lessons. In this stage, the composition exercises are of two types:

(1) Those whose subjects are specified in the textbook. The teacher may recommend the point of view, the format, the sequence (logical, chronological, etc.), and a set of functors;[4] he may

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also provide a guide in the form of an outline or a set of questions.

(2) Those whose subjects are to be chosen by the students themselves.

The second type must be preceded by considerable practice in writing compositions of the first type.

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FOOTNOTES

1. [æ] and [ə] are allophones of MSA /a/; both allophones, however, may occur under weak stress.

2. For the purposes of this discussion, double consonants will be considered a sub-class of clusters.

3. See Gerald Dykstra, Antonette Port, and Richard Port, Ananse Tales Manual (New York: Teacher's College Press, n.d.).

4. See Lado's Language Testing, pp. 256-260.

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CHAPTER II

DESIGN OF THE COURSE

There is a variety of opinions concerning the materials that should be included in a lesson for teaching Modern Standard Arabic as a foreign language and concerning the arrangement of such materials; this variety becomes apparent when one compares the textbooks, guides, and handbooks that have been published.[1]

In the present MSA course, each of the lessons which precede the 129th consists of nine principal parts. Those parts are listed below, with brief statements concerning the materials of each part and the linguistic principles involved. It must be emphasized that the primary purpose of the discussion is to describe the textbook materials and their underlying rationale; however, classroom methods and techniques are also addressed as they relate to each type of activity.

The Presentation Drills

In this part all the patterns[2] which the lesson is designed to teach are presented. Also covered in the Presentation Drills are all (or at least most) of the new vocabulary items to be taught in the lesson. The patterns and the vocabulary items to be taught are determined by a contrastive analysis of American English and Modern Standard Arabic.[3] The purpose here is cognition. In this context, however, cognition does not mean the memorization of formalized rules

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and precise definitions; it means insight into the system (Gestalt).[4] Mastery of this part of the lesson, then, does not necessarily mean that the student can describe in accurate linguistic terms the structures and the transformations involved, nor does it necessarily mean that he can accurately define the meanings of words--such ability may evade even the native speaker of the language.

In presenting the patterns for cognition, contrast is the main technique; for example, the following pairs of sentences may be contrasted to illustrate the inversion which occurs in nominal sentences with an indefinite subject (each pair consists of a familiar sentence on the right and the corresponding sentence on the left):

(1) التلميذُ في البيتِ.	(1) تلميذٌ في البيتِ = في البيتِ تلميذٌ .
(2) الكتابُ مَعِي .	(2) كتابٌ معي = مَعِي كتابٌ.
(3) التلميذُ هُنَا .	(3) تلميذٌ هُنَا = هُنَا تلميذٌ .

The elements to be contrasted are determined by (a) the nature of the problem being taught (as specified by contrasting American English and MSA), and (b) the relationship between various structures in MSA. For example, teaching Americans the past-tense forms corresponding to an already familiar set of MSA present-tense verbs constitutes a problem for two reasons

(1) Past-tense verbs in MSA show inflectional concord with the subject; in English they do not.

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(2) In MSA, some present-tense verb stems remain unchanged in the past tense, while others undergo a change. This is true in English, but the changes that occur in Arabic stems are not similar to those which occur in the corresponding English stems; furthermore, MSA stems which undergo changes may correspond to English stems which do not, and vice versa.

The problem is further complicated by the fact that in MSA there are two different sets of concord affixes: one for the present tense, and another for the past tense; thus teaching the past tense involves teaching a new set of concord affixes.

Some of the concord suffixes which occur on past-tense verbs can be taught by contrasts such as the following:

(١) (هو) كَتَبَ رسالة.

(هي) كَتَبَتْ رسالة.

(أنا) كَتَبْتُ رسالة.

(٢) (أنتَ) كَتَبْتَ رسالة.

(أنتِ) كَتَبْتِ رسالة.

(أنتُمْ) كَتَبْتُمْ رسالة.

(أنتُنَّ) كتبتُنَّ رسالة.

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In Exercise 2 a clue is provided by the fact that the difference in form between each two consecutive pronouns is similar to the difference between the corresponding verb forms; the "rhyme" between each pronoun and the corresponding verb may prove an aid to memory.

The correspondence between certain present- and past-tense stems can be taught by contrasts such as the following:

١— (أ) سوف يَتَقَابَلُ الرجلان. تَقَابَلَ الرجلان.

سوف يَتَقَاتَلُ الجيشان. تَقَاتَلَ الجيشان.

(ب) سوف يَتَعَلَّمُ اللغةَ العربيّة. تَعَلَّمَ اللغةَ العربيّة.

سوف يَتَقَدَّمُ العلم. تَقَدَّمَ العلم.

..... الخ.

٢— (أ) سوف يَخْتَفِي من المدينة. اخْتَفَى من المدينة.

سوف يَشْتَرِي سيّارة. اشْتَرَى سيّارة.

سوف يَنْتَظِرُ الأستاذ. انْتَظَرَ الأستاذ.

سوف يَشْتَرِكُ في المؤتمر. اشْتَرَكَ في المؤتمر.

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(ب) سوف يَطْمَئِنُّ إلى الطبيب. اطْمَأَنَّ إلى الطبيب.

سوف يَشْمَئِزُّ من قذارة المستشفى. اشْمَأَزَّ من قذارة المستشفى.

سوف يَسْتَرِدُّ الكتاب. اسْتَرَدَّ الكتاب.

. . . . . الخ.

The exercises under (1) above are on verbs whose present-tense stems undergo no change in the past tense; the exercises under (2) are on verbs whose present-tense stems undergo a change in the past tense.

The contrasts used for presenting patterns should be clear enough to suggest the rules involved.[5] Somewhere towards the middle of each drill the teacher should elicit from the students a statement of the rule,[6] and once a correct statement has been made the teacher should confirm it.[7] To be correct such a statement does not have to be formulated in precise technical terms so long as it indicates a clear understanding of the rule.

Each vocabulary item is presented for cognition by using it in a set of sentences which illustrate the meaning[8] (this is usually supplemented by contrast, real objects, clear pictures and drawings, definitions, synonyms, antonyms, etc.[9]). If several meanings are taught for a given vocabulary item, several sets of sentences are used, each set illustrating a given meaning.

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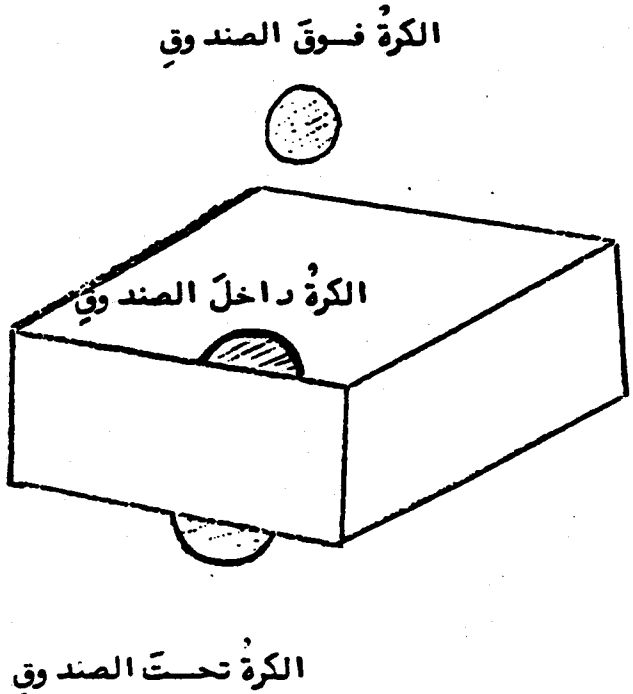
Sometimes several items constitute a set because they stand in opposition to each other; such items are best taught together. Thus the prepositional adverbs فَـوْق 'above', تَـحْت 'under', and دَاخِل 'in, inside' can be taught through the use of the following diagram:



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The measures[10] of MSA are of two kinds: those which facilitate complete or almost complete predictability of form, and those which facilitate little or no predictability. Measures of the first kind are taught as patterns; thus, for example, presentation drills are given to teach the student that from triliteral verbs[11] of Measure I the active participle is Faa9iL and the passive participle is maF9uuL. On the other hand, teaching measures of the second kind as patterns is of little pedagogical value. For example, it would be extremely difficult and hardly profitable for the student to memorize a long list of broken plural measures to which there are many exceptions. Nevertheless, measures of the second kind can be profitably used as a guide in the presentation of vocabulary items. Thus broken plural forms can be taught as vocabulary items by presenting to the students "families" of words, each family consisting of singular nouns which are of the same measure and whose plural forms are also of the same measure (these nouns should, of course, be presented in context). Notice that drills for broken plurals (unlike those for participles) are not intended to teach general rules, but rather to associate several similar items with each other, thus serving as an aid to the student's memory; to guard against false analogies, such drills include some exceptions.

The concept of root and stem[12] can be of considerable help in expanding the student's vocabulary. Knowing that words from the same root usually share some semantic element will help the student

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to guess the meanings of new words and to remember those words once he has learned them. The logic of learning vocabulary through acquaintance with lexical meanings of roots becomes even more obvious in view of the fact that while the number of stems in MSA is enormous, the number of roots is relatively very small.

Especially difficult are MSA words which differ from the English equivalents in meaning, function, or both. The presentation of such words should give:

(1) the contexts which the MSA form being taught shares with the English equivalent,

(2) the contexts which the MSA form being taught does not share with the English equivalent, and

(3) a rendition in English of the contexts which the English equivalent does not share with the MSA form being taught.

Thus the presentation drills for the MSA words ماء and أصابع should include the following contexts:[13]

(١) شربتُ قليلا من الماء.

في كلٍّ من يديَّ خمسُ أصابع.

(٢) في كلٍّ من قدميَّ خمسُ أصابع.

(٣) سوف يروي الزرع.

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Strategy and gradation may make it unwise to include in one lesson all the contexts necessary for teaching a given word; the fact still remains that those contexts should be taught, whether in one lesson or in several.

Teaching vocabulary by merely requiring the student to repeat a set of sentences after the teacher results in monotony and fatigue, especially when there are many new words to be taught. To guard against such effects, the Presentation Drills use a variety of techniques to present words in context. Two of these techniques are the following:

(1) A given meaning is illustrated by several pairs of sentences. Each pair consists of a question and its answer in both of which the word being taught is used with the same meaning. After the students have been drilled, collectively and individually, on a given question and its answer, one student asks the question and another gives the answer.

(2) A given meaning is illustrated by several pairs of sentences, each pair consisting of an affirmative sentence and the corresponding negative sentence. After the students have been drilled, collectively and individually, on all of the pairs, the teacher gives an affirmative sentence and asks a student to give the corresponding negative sentence.

The following are two ways for giving the students additional

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practice on vocabulary items during the Presentation Drills:

(1) The teacher gives the meaning (through the use of real objects, pictures, definitions, synonyms, antonyms, etc.), and the student gives the word in a sentence.

(2) The teacher gives the word and the student uses it in a sentence that demonstrates comprehension of the meaning.

On the average, fifteen new vocabulary items are presented in each lesson; depending on the number and the difficulty of the new patterns in a given lesson, the number of new vocabulary items may be more or less than the average.

The vocabulary items (and the patterns) which a given lesson teaches are deliberately included in drills of every third subsequent lesson until they have appeared in drills of a total of ten lessons. Thus the vocabulary items (and the patterns) presented in Lessons 1 recur in lessons 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 19, 22, 25, 28, and 31. Starting with lesson 30, there are only five deliberate occurrences; there are 5 lessons between the first and the second occurrences, 6 lessons between the second and the third, 7 between the third and the fourth, and 8 between the last two.

There are some linguists who insist on starting the lesson with a dialogue to be memorized by the student, postponing cognition to later parts of the lesson where various kinds of exercises make

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the student aware of the patterns which the dialogue illustrates.[14] A large portion of those exercises consists of pattern drills. As will be stressed later, pattern drills are not designed to impart insight, but rather to make habitual the control of patterns into which the student has already gained insight. Even if pattern drills could impart the required insight, beginning with a dialogue would be an unnecessary complication. Students taught by such a procedure find it difficult to remember the first part of the dialogue by the time they reach the last part: to them, especially in the early lessons, each sentence is no more than an unbreakable stretch of sounds, and one stretch after another must somehow be learned and remembered. It is nothing new or mysterious that cognition is an aid to memory in all learning, including language learning.

It is true that most of the patterns and the vocabulary items presented in the first part of the lesson also occur in the second part (the Dialogue). This is not, however, a valid argument against the use of presentation drills. In the first place, hardly more than one sentence in the dialogue will serve to illustrate a given pattern or the meaning of a given word--which is not enough for cognition. In the second place, a pattern or a word may have several related usages that are best taught together; without making the dialogue unreasonably long, it is usually very difficult to incorporate into it more than one usage for each of several patterns or vocabulary items.

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Some of those who oppose the use of presentation drills before the dialogue assert that presentation drills remove sentences from the normal contexts which conversations provide. The answer to this argument can be summarized as follows:

(1) The process of learning must not be confused with the end product of learning. The process is concerned with the units, while the end product is concerned with the whole. In teaching we begin with the sentence since the sentence is the smallest unit of expression.[15] Sentences are presented as examples of contrastive patterns;[16] the patterns and the vocabulary items are then incorporated into a dialogue. In this fashion we proceed from the unit to the whole.

(2) It must be remembered that the lesson does not end with the presentation drills: the second part of the lesson is a dialogue which satisfies the demand for a context larger than the sentence. nothing is lost by having presentation drills, but much is gained since learning is thus easier and more lasting.

(3) If presentation drills are to be criticized for removing sentences from the contexts of conversations, pattern drills must be criticized for the same reason; yet the pedagogical value of pattern drills has almost never been challenged.

(4) It is true that many sequence signals can be taught only

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in a context larger than the sentence. Besides, since a whole does not consist of units only but of relationships as well,[17] we can expect a conversation to include more than the sum of its sentences: it includes, for example, intersentence relationships about which we know little since discourse analysis is still in its infancy.[18] We see no reason, however, why sequence signals as well as intersentence relationships, once the latter become clear, cannot be taught in a dialogue which is preceded by presentation drills.

In passing we may also mention that making the dialogue the central part of the lesson seems to favor the teaching of language through situations rather than through patterns. While the number of situations is infinite, the number of patterns in any language is finite; yet all of the countless situations can be handled through the relatively small set of patterns.

There is much in linguistic literature which invalidates the claim that cognition plays an insignificant role in language learning.[19]

The Dialogue

The patterns and the vocabulary items already taught in the Presentation Drills are here combined into a dialogue to be memorized by the student. In other words, the main purpose of this part is <u>not</u> to introduce patterns or vocabulary items, but to give one of the <u>situations</u> in which an already familiar set of patterns

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and vocabulary items can be used. The features taught for the first time in the Dialogue are usually those which occur only in contexts larger than the sentence; e.g., many sequence signals and intersentence relationships.

Often, especially in the early lessons, the dialogue is unnatural in the sense that it is not exactly what would occur in a normal conversation situation. This "doctoring" is an unfortunate but inevitable consequence of gradation and of the fact that more emphasis is placed on the teaching of patterns than on the teaching of situations.

Each dialogue is followed by a set of questions which encourage the students to paraphrase the utterances of the dialogue and, in some cases, to form completely new sentences.

Instead of the dialogue, some lessons contain a "Passage for Intensive Study." The student is instructed to study the passage thoroughly (with the help of the teacher), then demonstrate his comprehension by answering a set of questions, translating the passage into English, summarizing the contents of the passage, etc. Additional exercise is provided by a duplication of the passage from which certain key words are omitted; the student reads the text aloud, supplying the missing words from memory.

Whenever unfamiliar words occur in the Dialogue or the Passage for Intensive Study, glosses are given as footnotes.

The following steps are recommended for presenting the Dialogue:

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1. The teacher reads the dialogue to the class at normal speed, and the students listen without following along in their textbooks. Whenever a student encounters a problem, he raises his hand and requests explanation from the teacher.

2. The teacher reads the dialogue again at normal speed and the students follow along in their textbeoks, requesting explanation whenever they encounter problems.

3. The students repeat the dialogue (one breath group at a time) after the teacher. Repetition in chorus may be followed by individual repetition.

4. The class is divided into two groups. Group A repeats the stimulus after the teacher, and Group B produces the response (after the teacher or on their own). After a given pair has been produced in chorus, it may be produced by two students selected at random.

5. The fourth step is repeated, except that the stimulus is produced by Group B and the response by Group A.

If the Dialogue contains many new words, the first step may be eliminated.

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The Passage for Intensive Study may be presented as follows:

(1) The teacher reads the passage at normal speed; the students follow along in their textbooks and request explanations whenever they encounter a problem.

(2) The students repeat the passage (one breath group at a time) after the teacher. Repetition in chorus may be followed by individual repetition.

(3) The students read the passage aloud (in chorus) without the help of the teacher.

(4) Different individuals read successive parts of the passage.

English translations could be provided for the second part of each lesson (the dialogue or the Passage for Intensive Study). However, most of the students will not need those translations since the dialogues and the passages for intensive study are preceded by presentation drills. The translations should therefore be excluded from the student's copy of the textbook; their purpose is to provide a model for teachers who, occasionally, have to translate a few expressions in class.

The Vocabulary List

This part of the lesson lists, in alphabetical order, the new vocabulary items in the lesson. It is not intended as a presentation of vocabulary but rather as a convenient summary of items that

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the student has already learned--a summary the student can use for a quick review without having to restudy the whole lesson.

Whenever the meaning or the grammatical usage of a MSA item differs from that of the English equivalent, the difference is briefly specified. Thus specifications like the following occur in the vocabulary lists:

مـــــاء water (noun; not used as a verb)

دعايـــــة (الجمع: دعايات) . . . . . .

The specification in the first entry is necessary because مـــــاء, unlike its English equivalent water, cannot be used as a verb. The specification in the second entry is necessary because the English equivalent of دعايـــة (propaganda) has no plural form.

Vocabulary lists are considered teaching devices rather than excerpts from a complete dictionary. Therefore, the vocabulary lists of early lessons contain only three types of information:

(1) The meanings taught in the Presentation Drills.

(2) Whatever specifications are deemed necessary to avoid confusion on the part of the student.

(3) Whatever familiar and non-confusing facts are deemed helpful. For example, after each plural form the singular is usually given; the reverse is not true because:

(a) Singular forms are usually taught first; thus the student usually knows the singular of new plural forms.

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(b) Some plural forms are diptotes and are therefore not presented until their patterns and their usage have been explained. The corresponding singular forms, on the other hand, are taught at an early stage for a variety of reasons (e.g., because they have tangible referents which can easily be brought to the classroom, and because they are not diptotes). An example may clarify this point. The singular form منديل occurs in Lesson 1 because its meaning is very easy to convey (the teacher need only point to a handkerchief as he says the word منديل); however, if the plural form مناديل were included in the vocabulary list of Lesson 1, the student would be tempted to construct sentences like هل هذا مناديل؟ and نعم، هذا مناديل which are incorrect because the diptote form مناديل cannot be nunated and because هذه rather than هذا is required with non-human plural nouns. Yet the fault would not be the student's since Lesson 1 does not and cannot mention anything about complicated features like the inflection of diptotes and the peculiarities of non-human plurals.

Again, in the early lessons, the past-tense form is usually given for every present-tense form, but not vice versa; this is because past-tense forms are introduced first. When the present-tense form is presented first (e.g., in the case of hollow verbs), the procedure is reversed.

Language teaching, of necessity, requires a gradual presentation of bits and pieces. Thus every part of the lesson

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(including the Vocabulary List) must be controlled in order to minimize confusion. It should also be emphasized that the student has constant access to a cumulative glossary which contains for each entry the information taught throughout the entire course.

The Grammatical Notes

These notes re-emphasize the morphological and syntactic rules already covered in the Presentation Drills. Whenever possible without sacrificing precision, the terms employed are simple, non-technical, and readily understandable to the student.

The Grammatical Notes, like the Presentation Drills, are intended to help the student achieve conscious control of the patterns. In addition, they are an aid to the teacher in the preparation of the lesson since they provide a handy list of the structures and the transformations to be taught, and suggest a nontechnical statement of each structure or transformation.

The Pattern Drills

Cognition alone is not enough for speaking. We are all aware of the situation in which a student says the wrong thing, stops, then corrects himself. Such a student knows the rule, but he has not acquired enough fluency to facilitate production of the correct utterance at normal speed. What the student needs is practice that results in habits,[20] and that must therefore focus the student's attention on something other than the problem being drilled. An

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exercise of this sort is called a pattern drill.[21]

Because it is important to minimize the use of English,[22] each exercise in this part begins with an example which illustrates what the student is required to do.

A note concerning the difference between a presentation drill and a pattern drill is in order at this point. There are two main differences:

(1) The way that patterns are handled differs in the two drills. In a presentation drill the purpose is cognition; this calls for techniques (e.g., contrast) which fix the student's attention on the problem being taught. In a pattern drill, on the other hand, the purpose is the formation of habits; this calls for techniques that shift the student's attention away from the problem being drilled.[23] Thus to teach the concord affixes which occur on MSA past-tense verbs, the presentation drill as well as the pattern drill may consist of transformation exercises. In the first case, however, the exercises must focus the student's attention on the problem, while in the second case they must shift the student's attention away from the problem. The examples below illustrate this point:

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PRESENTATION DRILL

الأستاذ	الطالب
فريد يدرس في الصباح .	فريد درس في الصباح .
سامية تدرس في الصباح .	سامية درست في الصباح .
نبيل وقاهر يدرسان في الصباح .	نبيل وقاهر درسا في الصباح .
ناديا وسامية تدرسان في الصباح .	ناديا وسامية درستا في الصباح .
التلاميذ يدرسون في الصباح .	التلاميذ درسوا في الصباح .
التلميذات يدرسن في الصباح .	التلميذات درسن في الصباح .

PATTERN DRILL

الأستاذ	الطالب
درس في الصباح . متى	متى درس؟
درستْ في البيت . أين	أين درستْ؟
درسا هنا . هل	هل درسا هنا ؟
درستَا لكي تنجحا . لماذا	لماذا درستَا ؟
درسوا درسين . كم	كم درسا درسوا ؟
درسن الدرس . ماذا	ماذا درسن ؟

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(2) The way that vocabulary items are handled differs in the two drills because the purpose is cognition in the presentation drill and the development of habits in the pattern drill. In a presentation drill the techniques called for are those which focus the student's attention on the lexical meaning (e.g., contexts, contrast, real objects, definitions, synonyms, antonyms, clear pictures and drawings). In a pattern drill, on the other hand, the techniques called for are those which shift the student's attention away from the lexical meaning of the items being drilled: thus the student must understand the meaning of each word in an affirmative statement that he is to transform into the negative; his attention, however, is on the transformation rather than on the lexical meaning.

The pattern drills of each lesson are recorded on tape.

The Free Selection Drills

The response required in the Pattern Drills is fixed;[24] the student thus exercises no free selection. This is not the case in normal conversation situations where the response to a given stimulus may be any one of many utterances.

In this part of the lesson the stimulus can elicit a variety of responses from which the student selects one. The following are some examples of such stimuli:

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(1) Questions, statements, and requests

ماذا فعلتَ أثناء الإجازة ؟

لماذا تؤيّدُ الحكومة الحالـــيّة ؟

لا أعرف الطريقَ إلى بيتك .

أرجو أن تتمكّن من زيارتنا .

حدّثني عن رأيك في هذا الموضوع.

صف مدينة نيويورك .

(2) A composite picture, a set of pictures, or a story

These stimuli are usually combined with questions, requests, or both. The pictures and the stories should be adequate for eliciting the desired responses.

Whether the stimuli used are questions, statements, requests, pictures, or a combination of these, they should never call for a response which the student is not yet able to handle.

Included in this part of the lesson are two additional types of exercise:*

(1) Families of sentences: The student is required to perform transformations on a certain construction, thus obtaining a "family" of constructions, without changing the meaning:

*See Lugton's Cognitive Approach, pp. 74, 75, 159.

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لن أذهب إلى الصفّ لأنّي مريض.

لن أذهب إلى الصفّ بسبب مرضي .

سوف يمنعني المرض من الذهاب إلى الصفّ.

. . . . . الخ .

(2) Families of words: This exercise drills the paradigmatic relations which exist between words.

The words of a given sequence are related to each other by co-occurrence; this kind of relation is "syntagmatic." "Paradigmatic" relations are those which hold between a given item in the sequence and other language units which the sequence does not contain: any word in the speech chain will remind us of related words, the relationship being one of similarity or difference in form or in meaning.*

Thus in the sentence "My brother bought a house", the word brother is related (syntagmatically) to my, bought, a, and house; it is also related (paradigmatically) to sister, father, mother, nephew, niece, uncle, etc.

Paradigmatic relations are drilled by giving the student certain vocabulary items and asking him to form a "word family" for each item. The concept of "word families" is explained to the student in the following manner:

*See Dinneen's Introduction, p. 205.

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"Words constitute a 'family' if they are related to each other in some way (e.g., if they have related meanings, similar grammatical functions, opposite meanings, or contrasting grammatical functions). Here are some families of English words:

"(a) father, mother, sister, brother, uncle, aunt, niece, nephew.

"(b) either ... or, neither ... nor, both ... and.

"(c) too, either (as in the sentences: I know him too, and I don't know him either)."

Free Oral Expression

Here the students talk with each other, using utterances that are--at the early stages of the course--strictly controlled by the teacher.

In a conversation, at least three elements are essential: a subject, a set of patterns, and a set of vocabulary items. This suggests four stages in using Free Oral Expression exercises:

(1) The first stage: Here the teacher supplies the subject, the patterns, and the vocabulary. Two examples of how the exercise can be conducted in this stage are the following:

(a) The teacher gives a word which Student 1 uses to form a statement. Student 2 asks a question related to the statement, and Student 1 answers the question:

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Subject: في الصفّ

Teacher: تلميـذ

Student 1: سليم تلميـــذ .

Student 2: أيـــن سلـــيم ؟

Student 1: سليم أمام الأستاذ .

Teacher: ســـبّورة

Student 1: السبّورة قريبة من الأستاذ .

Student 2: هل السبّورة كبيرة ؟

Student 1: لا . السبّورة صغيرة .

etc.

(b) The teacher gives a word which Student 1 uses to form a question. Student 2 answers the question:

Subject: مدرسة الجيش

Teacher: مونـتري

Student 1: هل مدرسة الجيش في مونـــتري ؟

Student 2: نـــعم . هي في مونـــتري .

Teacher: مدنـــيّ

Student 1: هل رئيس المدرسة رجل مدنيّ ؟

Student 2: لا . هو ضابط برتبة عقيد .

etc.

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(2) The second stage: The teacher supplies the subject and the vocabulary items, but not the patterns since by this time the students should have learned enough patterns to construct the appropriate sentences on their own.

One procedure at this stage is the following:

The teacher writes on the blackboard the subject and a list of relevant vocabulary items (to save time, the viewgraph or the overhead projector may be used instead). The students then talk with each other about the subject, using the words in the list.

The following is an example (taken from Lesson 63):

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حديث حـــرّ

الله
تلاميذ
أساتذة
إمام ــ ائمّة
جامع ــ جوامع
خير
شرّ
عِقاب
ثواب
صلاة
صوم
واجبات
خطأ
خطبة
نظام

محمّد
أحمد
حسن
. . . الخ

إسلاميّ
ميلاديّ
فقير ــ فقراء
غنيّ ــ أغنياء
مسلم ــ مسلمون
مسلمة ــ مسلمات
اجتماعيّ
ممتاز
جيّد
معروف

Free Oral Expression

اجتمع ــ يجتمع
تحدّث ــ يتحدّث
خيّر ــ يخيّر
اشترك ــ يشترك
خوّف ــ يخوّف
رغّب ــ يرغّب
فرض ــ يفرض
استمع ــ يستمع
يقول
يصوم
يغيب
انصرف ــ ينصرف
ساعد ــ يساعد

معظم
عدم
أثناء
خاصّة
غير
بشأن
خلال
عادةً
قريبًا
بعض
جميع
أحيانًا
صباحًا
مساءً

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(3) The third stage: The teacher provides only the subject. The students have presumably learned enough patterns and vocabulary items to talk on the subject without the teacher's help.

The teacher may assign the subject as homework to be discussed collectively the following day.

(4) The fourth stage: Here not even the subject is provided by the teacher. In real-life situations the speaker often has to provide the subject of the conversation himself.

This stage is reserved for advanced students. One of the students is instructed to choose a subject in which he is interested, prepare the material for it at home, and then discuss it with the other students in class the following day.

In the second, the third, and the fourth stages, the teacher must guard against situations where a few students monopolize the discussion.

Comprehension Exercises

Ability to comprehend and produce isolated sentences is no guarantee that the student can also understand adequately a succession of many sentences.

This part of the lesson provides exercise in comprehending passages whose length gradually increases. The student either listens to or reads a passage, then answers some questions which test his comprehension of that passage. In the advanced stages some of

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the questions require the student to infer answers which follow logically from the passage. The questions, however, never ask for details which are a burden on memory; in fact, such details are reduced to a minimum in the passages which constitute the material for this part of the lessons.

The listening comprehension exercises are recorded on tape. After listening to a given passage, the student writes down the answers to the questions and turns in those answers to the instructor. Similarly, the questions on the reading passages are answered in writing, and the answers are turned in to the instructor. Listening comprehension passages can also be used for transcription and translation exercises.

It should be noted that practice in understanding a long sequence of sentences should precede practice in producing such a sequence.[25] The latter is provided by the third and the fourth stages of Free Oral Expression. This is one reason why each lesson--beginning with the first--includes comprehension exercises, while the third and the fourth stages of Free Oral Expression are delayed until skill in the comprehension of passages has been acquired.

Exercises on Reading and Writing

See Section C of Chapter I.

Lessons 129 - 141 are those whose primary purpose is to increase the learner's vocabulary (henceforth called Vocabulary Lessons).

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Each Vocabulary Lesson consists of the following parts:

The First Passage

This part consists of a non-contrived (or slightly altered) text, quoted from an Arabic newspaper. The new vocabulary items are underlined, and only those items are completely vocalized (newspaper articles are almost never vocalized). The First Passage is read in class. Relying on the context and on his knowledge of the root, the student attempts to guess the meaning of each new word; the teacher provides the definitions which the student cannot guess.

The steps followed in presenting the Passage for Intensive Study may be followed in presenting the First Passage as well.

The First Passage is followed by an exercise which tests comprehension. The exercise is in English, rather than Arabic, since it is done in class before students can learn the new vocabulary items at home.

The First Review

This part of the lesson drills some of the structures and the vocabulary items to be reviewed. Each exercise is preceded by a set of instructions which specify what the student is expected to do.

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The First Homework

This part consists of the new vocabulary items which occur in the First Passage. The items are completely vocalized and listed in alphabetical order.

The student is instructed to:

(1) Study the First Passage thoroughly with the help of the tape.

(2) Supply the glosses (and certain other bits of information) with the help of the dictionary.

The Second Passage

Unlike the First Passage, this text is for listening comprehension; it therefore contains the least possible number of unfamiliar words.

The student listens to the recorded passage; upon encountering an unfamiliar word, he stops the tape to use the dictionary.

The Second Passage is followed by an exercise which tests comprehension; that exercise is in English, rather than Arabic, since it is done in Class before the student can learn the new vocabulary items at home.

The Second Review

The comments made under The First Review are applicable here as well.

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The Second Homework

This part consists of the new vocabulary items which occur in the Second Passage. The items are completely vocalized and listed in alphabetical order.

The student is instructed to:

(1) Study the Second Passage thoroughly with the help of the tape.

(2) Supply the glosses (and certain other bits of information) with the help of the dictionary.

Exercises on the Two Passages

Students do these exercises in class after studying the two passages and learning the new vocabulary items at home.

The exercises serve two purposes:

(1) To test comprehension of the two passages. This purpose is achieved by requiring the students to answer questions, write a summary, indicate whether certain statements are true or false, complete certain statements, etc.

(2) To drill the new vocabulary items. This purpose is achieved by various drills (each of those drills is preceded by a set of instructions explaining what is expected of the student).

All the exercises in this part of the lesson employ Arabic rather than English.

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Lessons 142 and 143 illustrate the columns and the formats which appear in various Arabic newspapers. The materials of the lessons are photographed from a number of Arabic newspapers all of which are well-known in the Middle East.

The Grammatical Notes Volume consists of nine chapters which bring together structures covered in a fragmented fashion in lessons preceding 129. A chapter is usually divided into three sections, each of which discusses some related structural features. Each section is followed by a set of exercises which drill (a) the grammatical materials discussed in the section, and (b) the materials to be reviewed.

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FOOTNOTES

1. See, for example, Ziadeh's A Reader in Modern Literary Arabic, DLI's Basic Course (1965) , Georgetown University's Basic Course (prepared for DLI and completed in 1971), Hanna's Introducing Literary Arabic, and Abboud's Elementary Modern Standard Arabic.

2. A pattern is a combination of form classes in a given hierarchical arrangement (see Hockett's Course, p. 157). In language teaching it is useful to adopt the concept that some patterns are derived from other patterns through the application of a set of transformation rules. Teaching a derived pattern is here defined as teaching a transformation rule that applies to another already familiar pattern.

Patterns and transformations constitute the "rules" to be "internalized" by the learner through the use of the various parts discussed in this chapter.

3. See Lado's Linguistics Across Cultures, pp. 1 - 8; Lado's Language Teaching, p. 52 (principle 6); and Fries' Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, pp. 9, 14.

4. "Cognition" is to be understood here in the light of Titone's comments on "Conceptual Learning" and "Gestalt Psychology" (see Titone's Psycholinguistics, Chapter V).

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5. For each pattern, some useful contrasts are provided in the textbook. The teacher may devise additional contrasts if necessary.

6. See Rivers' The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language Teacher, Chapter XI.

7. The confirmation serves as a re-enforcement (see Titone's Psycholinguistics, p. 25).

8. In isolation a word has no specific meaning; a word derives its meaning from (a) all the contexts in which it occurs (see Bloomfield's Language, pp. 139 -141), and (b) all the oppositions it has to other forms in the system (see Dinneen's Introduction, p. 210).

9. See Lado's Language Teaching, pp. 120 -126.

10. A measure consists of a "pattern" or a "pattern complex." A pattern is defined as a bound morpheme consisting of (a) one or more vowels and (b) slots for the root phonemes, which interlocks with a root to form a stem and which has a grammatical meaning in contrast with the lexical meaning of the root. A pattern complex is a combination of a pattern and one or more affixes, which interlocks with a root to form a stem.

As defined above, measures would be very difficult for the student to understand. A definition such as the following is easier to grasp:

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The words كَتَب (/katab/), خَدَم (/xadam/), and شَبَك (/šabak/) have the same shape since each of them consists of three consonants, with /a/ in the first syllable and /a/ in the second syllable. If F, 9, and L are used as shorthand to symbolize the first, middle, and last consonants respectively, the shape of the three words can be described as Fa9aL. Thus Fa9aL is a cover symbol for words of a given shape; such cover symbols are called "measures". Notice that in a measure the vowel symbols represent the precise vowel sounds rather than being cover symbols for different vowels. According to this definition, the verbs قَلْقَل (/qalqal/), دَحْرَج (/daHraj/), and زَعْزَع (/za9za9/) are of the measure Fa9LaL, with F representing the first consonant of each verb, 9 representing the second consonant, and the two L's representing the last two consonants. Also according to this definition, the verbs تَقَلْقَل (/taqalqal/), تَدَحْرَج (/tadaHraj/), and تَزَعْزَع (/taza9za9/) are of the measure taFa9LaL. Notice that the symbol t always represents the consonant sound /t/ rather than different consonant sounds; thus the prefix ta- occurs in all verbs of this measure.

11. A triliteral verb is defined as a verb whose root consists of three consonants.

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12. The root is defined as a bound, discontinuous morpheme represented by two, three, four, or five consonants (typically three) in a certain order, which interlocks with a measure to form a stem, and which has lexical meaning as opposed to the grammatical meaning of the measure.

13. The problems are that (a) the MSA form مَـــاء , unlike the corresponding English form water, can be used as a noun but not as a verb (the English verb to water is rendered in MSA by the verb يَـسْقِي), and (b) the single MSA form أَصَابِـــع corresponds to the two English forms fingers and toes.

14. This procedure is followed in many of the MSA textbooks being used today (see, for example, Georgetown's Basic Course).

15. See Lado's Language Teaching, p. 12.

16. Fries defines language as a "system of contrastive patterns" (see Fries' Linguistics and Reading, p. 102).

17. See Hjelmslev's Prolegomena, pp. 22, 23.

18. Two of the attempts made at discourse analysis are Zellig Harris' "Discourse Analysis" (see Fodor and Katz' The Structure of Language, pp. 355 - 383), and Gleason's "Contrastive Analysis in Discourse Structure" (see Alatis' Report, pp. 39 - 62).

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19. Titone, for example, defines human learning as a process dominated by cognition (see Titone's Psycholinguistics, p. 26). John B. Carroll suggests that making the student aware of the problems being taught may considerably reduce negative transfer (see Alatis' Report, p. 121). Wilga Rivers makes a statement to the same effect (Ibid., p. 153). Robert Hall believes that the objection to under-emphasis on cognition is "quite justified" (Ibid., p. 177).

20. Chomsky seems to believe that habits are applicable only to utterances which the learner has heard (see Chomsky and Halle's The Sound Pattern of English, pp. 3, 4). In this discussion the applicability of habits is extended to the rules which generate all the grammatical sentences of the language--the sentences the learner has heard as well as those to which he has never been exposed.

21. For the types of pattern drills that can be used see Chapter 11 of Lado's Language Teaching, and Cook's "Some Types of Oral Structure Drills". In some of Cook's drills the student's response is not completely fixed, which is not in harmony with the position taken in this study (see footnote 24).

22. The major objections to the use of translation in foreign language teaching are clearly stated in Lado's Language Teaching, pp. 4, 53, 54, 92, 120.

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23. Ibid., p. 105.

24. Fixing the response makes it possible to record the Pattern Drills on tape. The student's response is followed by a recorded confirmation, which would be impossible if each stimulus could have more than one correct response.

25. The general principle is that, in foreign language teaching, comprehension drills should precede production exercises (see Lado's Language Teaching, pp. 65, 80, 85-89, 95, 121; and Fries' Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, pp. 8, 24).

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CHAPTER III

A. General Objectives for the Various Parts of the Lesson

A brief statement of purpose has already been given for each part of the lesson. Lessons 129 - 143 require no further comments regarding objectives. In the following paragraphs, the parts constituting each of Lessons 1 - 128 are listed, and the objectives are stated in behavioral terms.

The Presentation Drills

The purpose of these drills is to help the students understand (1) the rules involved in the new grammatical structures, and (2) the new vocabulary items. This purpose is achieved through induction. While teaching a new grammatical rule, the teacher contrasts expressions, uses diagrams, points out certain elements, etc. He then asks the students to state the rule; once stated correctly by the students, the rule is confirmed by the teacher. In teaching new vocabulary items, the teacher uses various devices (synonyms, antonyms, Arabic definitions, self-defining contexts, etc.); to ascertain comprehension, he asks the students questions in which the new items are used.

The purpose of the presentation drills is not fluency. Therefore,

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an answer which is produced at less than normal speed but which demonstrates comprehension is acceptable. To be considered successful, the student should demonstrate that he understands at least 70 per cent of each exercise.

The Dialogue

The purposes of the dialogue are:

(1) To help the students achieve fluency. Utterances are to be memorized and produced accurately at normal speed. To realize this goal, the student should produce at least 80 per cent of the utterances without hesitation.

(2) To facilitate the use of new structures and new vocabulary items in a meaningful situation. The utterances which may occur in a given situation are by no means fixed; students should therefore be encouraged to vary the utterances of the dialogue (after the recitation). Answering the questions on the dialogue is one way to achieve such variation.

The Passage for Intensive Study

This passage occurs in some lessons but not in others. Its purposes are:

(1) To provide practice in translating familiar expressions.

(2) To provide practice in discussing and analyzing written passages.

(3) To drill the use of patterns and vocabulary items in realistic situations.

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To realize the first objective, the student should translate correctly at least 80 per cent of the passage; to realize the second objective, the student should answer satisfactorily at least 80 per cent of the questions on the passage; and to realize the third objective, the student should supply at least 80 per cent of the expressions omitted from the completion exercise.

The Vocabulary List and the Grammatical Notes

The purpose of the vocabulary list is to provide an inventory of the new vocabulary items. That inventory can be used for studying the new vocabulary items and for quick review before tests.

The purpose of the grammatical notes is analogous to that of the vocabulary list.

The Pattern Drills

The purpose of the pattern drills is to develop habitual control of the new materials. (Habits are formed by fixing the student's attention on something other than the problem being drilled).

The student should be able to answer correctly, and without hesitation, 80 per cent of the exercises in the pattern drills.

The Free Selection Drills

Responses to the pattern drills are fixed (i.e., each stimulus has a single correct response). In normal situations, a stimulus may elicit a variety of responses. This part of the lesson therefore includes:

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(1) Questions which the student may answer in a variety of ways.

(2) Families of words which underscore paradigmatic lexical relationships. Given the word father, the student should produce the following words and use each in a sentence: mother, sister, brother, uncle, etc.

(3) Families of sentences which provide practice in relating structurally different but semantically similar expressions. Given the sentence "I sold the house to Mr. Smith," the student should produce the sentence "Mr. Smith bought the house from me."

To realize the purposes of these drills, each student should participate in the three types of exercise and respond correctly to at least 80 per cent of the stimuli directed to him.

Free Oral Expression

The purpose of this part is to provide a situation where students can use the language for expressing their own ideas. Therefore, the teacher's role should be limited to:

(1) Correcting serious mistakes, being careful not to harass or frustrate the students.

(2) Making sure that every student participates in the discussion. A student who remains silent for a long time should be drawn into the discussion through questions or through solicitation of opinion.

(3) Prompting a student when he encounters serious difficulty by suggesting possible alternatives which approximate what he is trying to say, or by providing a simpler means of expressing the same idea.

Evaluation of the student's performance here is inevitably subjective.

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The Comprehension Exercises

The purpose of the auditory comprehension exercises is to provide practice in understanding long passages spoken at normal speed. The student is expected to answer correctly at least 60 per cent of the questions on each passage.

Another purpose of auditory comprehension exercises is to provide realistic situations in which the materials of the lesson can be used.

The purposes of the reading exercises are:

(1) To provide practice in comprehending written texts. To realize this purpose the student should understand at least 80 per cent of each passage.

(2) To provide realistic situations in which the materials of the lesson can be used.

Composition *

The purposes of this exercise are:

(1) To provide practice in written expression, using a limited set of structures and vocabulary items.

(2) To provide practice in spelling and penmanship.

Evaluation of the student's performance in composition must take into consideration a number of factors (use of grammatical constructions, choice of vocabulary items, organization of ideas, etc.)

* Creative writing, per se, is not a goal but expression of basic ideas in writing is. (See definition of W2.)

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B. Specific Objectives

Each lesson is preceded by a list of the new elements taught in the Presentation Drills. The list specifies the drill where each new element is presented; it must be noted, however, that no reference is made to drills in which familiar materials are reviewed but in which no new elements are presented.

The list serves as a guide to the teacher; by referrring to it, the teacher knows what should be stressed in presenting a given drill.

A List of New Features (taken from Lesson 9) is given below as an example:

New Features in the Presentation Drills

1. (a) The vocabulary item نَحْنُ .

(b) The vocabulary item أَنْتُمْ .

(c) The vocabulary item هُمْ .

(d) The forms هُوَ, أَنْتَ, and أَنَا contrasted with the corresponding plural forms.

2. (a) The vocabulary item أَنْتُنَّ . The difference in meaning between أَنْتُمْ and أَنْتُنَّ .

(b) The vocabulary item هُنَّ . The difference in meaning between هُمْ and هُنَّ .

(c) The forms هُمْ and أَنْتُمْ contrasted with the corresponding feminine forms.

(d) The forms أَنَا , أَنْتَ, أَنْتِ , هُوَ , and هِيَ contrasted with the corresponding plural forms.

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3. (a) The vocabulary items طَالِب , طَالِبَة , and ضَابِط .

(b) The vocabulary items طَاوِلَة , خَرِيطَة , طَائِرَة , and مُمَرِّضَة .

4. (a) The plural forms قُوَّاد , طُلَّاب , and ضُبَّاط .

Nominative and genitive case markers for the three plural forms.

(b) The plural forms مُمَرِّضَات , مُعَلِّمَات , and طَالِبَات .

Nominative and genitive markers for the three plural forms.

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CHAPTER IV

A. Treatment of "Political" Materials

The situations to be taught are those presented by the Arabic press, Arabic radio stations, official Arabic reports, and Arabic communiques (Guidance, 15 March 1973, page 6). Thus the learner must be trained to recognize and understand a limited inventory of political topics.

Passages with political content often include "controversial" statements; indeed, some of those passages may be provocative to people with differing convictions. It must be emphasized, however, that structures and vocabulary items must be taught in realistic situations: students learn the language in order to understand and to discuss actual events, not what may hopefully come about.

The question, then, is not whether "political" materials should be included in the course, but how to teach illustrative materials effectively and without losing control of the class.

The following suggestions are offered as a means of avoiding political controversy in the classroom:

(1) The teacher should stress the fact that "political" materials are included in the course mainly as illustrative contexts explaining certain vocabulary items; they are not to be construed as statements of official or personal opinion.

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(2) The teacher should stress the fact that many of the "political" sentences in the course are questions which the students may answer in any way they wish. However, discretion should be used on the part of all to avoid provocative statements.

(3) The teacher should allow no comments on "political" materials unless those comments are made in Arabic; this approach shifts the student's attention from political philosophy to language practice.

(4) The teacher should maintain a neutral position in dealing with such materials and should maintain a calm and stable atmosphere in the classroom.

B. Options

With the supervisor's approval, the teacher may exercise certain options in the following situations:

(1) Use of the Presentation Drills

Certain exercises in the Presentation Drills are identified by an asterisk; those review previously-explained materials but do not teach new elements. If shortage of time requires it, the teacher may ignore some of those exercises. However, the decision to ignore certain exercises should not be made on the spur of the moment: the relative importance of optional exercises should be determined before class, and the exercises to be dropped should be the least important. It should be noted that those items marked with an asterisk do appear later in the review lessons.

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(2) Varying Content

In some drills, new elements are explained by referring to well-known persons, places, or things. Needless to say, the effectiveness of such explanations often depends on considerations such as time and place: For example, the sentence Fort Ord mu9askarun may be used to convey the meaning of mu9askar; however, if Fort Ord is unknown to the students, the sentence will not achieve its purpose. Again, the sentence Richard Nixon ra'iisu 'amriikaa can define the term ra'iis only during the presidency of Richard Nixon.

The teacher is free to replace unfamiliar and outdated elements by familiar and contemporary ones, provided that pedagogical effectiveness is not diminished.

(3) Order of Parts

The order in which the different parts of the lesson occur is based on psycholinguistic principles. Thus, for example, the Presentation Drills must precede the Pattern Drills since cognition precedes habitual control of structures. Except for occasionally doing the Free Selection Drills before the Free Oral Expression exercise, the teacher is advised to keep the order of the parts unchanged.

(4) Teaching Heterogeneous Classes

In the first 128 lessons of the course, some parts emphasize recognition while others emphasize production. Although the course

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as a whole favors recognition, there is no stage where production is totally eliminated. A measure of production skill is imperative for acquiring a high degree of recognition: to a large extent, the hearer understands a given set of utterances because of his ability to identify those utterances with what he can say in a similar situation. Besides, recognition is facilitated by ability to predict certain elements on the basis of preceding elements; this predictive ability is a production skill.

The parts which specifically drill production are listed below, and the degree of emphasis on each part is indicated.

(a) The Dialogue

Beginning with Lesson 40, the Dialogue alternates with the Passage for Intensive Study (the Passage emphasizes recognition rather than production). Beginning with Lesson 129, both the Dialogue and the Passage for Intensive Study are phased out; in their place, materials which emphasize recognition are used.

(b) The Pattern Drills

The Pattern Drills are phased out as soon as the basic patterns have been covered.

(c) Free Selection Drills and Free Oral Expression exercises

These do not occur after Lesson 128. In the first sixty lessons of the course, they are obligatory; in the rest of the lessons, they are optional.

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As the course progresses, exercises which emphasize production gradually become shorter while exercises which emphasize comprehension gradually become longer.

Heterogeneous classes have two types of students: (a) those who must acquire considerable control in production of the language, and (b) those for whom production must serve only as an aid to recognition.

For students of the first group, the dialogue, the Pattern Drills, the Free Selection Drills, and the Free Oral Expression exercises are of great importance; for students of the second group, the Free Selection Drills and the Free Oral Expression exercises may be replaced by materials which emphasize recognition; those materials may be based on the Free Selection exercises, the Free Oral Expression exercises, or both:

(1) Recognition materials based on Free Selection exercises: The questions constituting Free Selection exercises are divided into distinct sets; usually each set outlines a situation with a single theme. The teacher may select several of those sets and convert them into dialogues and passages for listening, reading, or both. Each dialogue or passage should be followed by a set of questions which test comprehension.

(2) Recognition materials based on Free Oral Expression exercises: With little effort, the teacher can convert Free Oral Expression exercises into fully-developed dialogues and passages which may be used for listening, reading, or both. Each passage or dialogue should be followed by a set of questions which test comprehension.

The passages and dialogues should meet the following requirements:

(a) Each should have a single theme. Discussion of several unrelated subjects in one text confuses the student and hinders recall.

(b) The subjects discussed should be interesting.

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(c) Whenever possible, cultural materials should be presented. It must be emphasized, however, that a thorough discussion of some cultural subjects would necessitate the use of unfamiliar elements; such subjects should be either simplified or avoided.

(d) Details which cannot be easily recalled should be reduced to a minimum; numerals are one example of such details.

(e) Excessive length should be avoided; two passages (or a passage and a dialogue) of medium length are better than a single passage of excessive length.

(f) New patterns and new vocabulary items should be reduced to a minimum; indeed, they should be avoided unless their meaning can be induced from the context or from similarity with familiar elements.

The questions which test comprehension may be answered orally or in writing; multiple-choice questions may be used provided that the distractors are constructed carefully. Under no circumstances should the questions call for details which an Arab cannot remember after one exposure to the text.

If they are for listening comprehension, passages and dialogues should be recorded at normal speed.

After Lesson 128, individualized instruction should take place during the hour which Schedule 3 (a)* assigns to "Exercises on the Two Passages": those exercises emphasize production and should therefore be done by the first group; meanwhile, the second group should use passages and dialogues of the type discussed above (in this stage, the textbook does not contain materials which can yield such passages and dialogues).

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*Page 80

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C. Quizzes

Quizzes serve two purposes: motivation, and diagnosis of problem areas; therefore:

(1) They should be short and of average difficulty; otherwise they could result in frustration.

(2) They should cover the major patterns taught.

(3) Their results should be carefully analyzed, and the problem areas they reveal should be reviewed.

In regard to frequency, quizzes may be either daily or weekly. The questions may be prepared by modifying some of the stimuli in the Pattern Drills and the Free Selection Drills. Modifying the exercises in the review lessons can also provide materials for weekly quizzes. The type of modification required is illustrated below:

Review Exercises

١ــ اختر من المفردات التي تجدها في بداية هذا التمرين أنسبها لملء الفراغ في كلٍّ من الجمل التالية ، ثمّ اضبط كلمات كلّ جملة بالشكل .

تقريبا ، أصدقاء ، بيان ، وَضْع ، أمام ، عن ، العالم ، مشكلة ، سفير ، جدّا ، الشرق الأوسط

بَحَثَ في اجتماع الوزراء العرب ، جلس الوزير المصريّ ـــــــ الوزير العراقيّ . الوزراء ـــــــ السياسيّ في كثير من دول ـــــــ . حضر الاجتماع مراسل أجنبيّ معروف. وبعد الاجتماع ، نشر المراسل ـــــــ طويلا عن نتائج الاجتماع. بحث المراسل في مقاله كلّ نتائج الاجتماع ـــــــ .

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٢ــ استعمل كلّا من التعابير التالية في جملة تـامّة .

العالم العربـيّ ، الشرق الأوسط ، بَحَثَ ، بدأ ، سفير ، سفراء ، وراء ، أهل ، تَرْك ، زعيم ، كَتَبَ ، الجمعة ، الأربعاء

Quiz

١ــ اختر من المفردات التي تجدها في بداية هذا التمرين أنسبها لملء الفراغ في كلٍّ من الجمل التالية ، ثـمّ اضبط كلمات كلِّ جملة بالشكل .

على ، العالم العربـيّ ، الشرق الأوسط ، بَحْث ، تَرَكَ ، سفير ، سفراء ، وراء ، أهل ، تَـرْك ، زعماء ، كَتَبَ ، الجمعة ، الأربعاء ، السبت ، أوربّا

اليوم الرابع من الأسبوع هو يوم ـــــــ ، واليوم السادس هو يوم ـــــــ .
كلّ دول ـــــــ عـــربـيّة .
تركيا من دول ـــــــ .
رجع صديقي إلى وطنه بعد ـــــــ الجامعة .
بحث الوزير الوضع مع الـــ السياسـيّـين .
هل جلس الصحفـيّون ـــــــ الهند وبين أم أمامهم ؟

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٢ــ استعمل كلّا من التعابير التالية في جملة تامّة .

تقريبا ،أصدقاء ، بيان ، وَضّح ، أمام ، عن ، العالم ، مشكلة ، سفير ، جـدّا ، الشرق الأوسط

Feedback must be provided to the students irrespective of how high or low they have scored on quizzes. In either case, the test review activity should be regarded by the teacher and students as an opportunity for positive reinforcement of learning.

D. From MSA to Colloquial

A person who wishes to end up with competence in both Modern Standard Arabic and a colloquial dialect may pursue one of two courses:

(1) Study MSA first, then study the colloquial dialect.

(2) Study the colloquial dialect first, then study MSA.

Because MSA has more grammatical distinctions than the colloquial dialects, the first course of action is more economical (in terms of time and effort) than the second.

The new MSA Basic Course consists of 143 lessons. The basic patterns are taught in the first 128 lessons; consequently, a student may achieve elementary competence in the structure of Modern Standard Arabic by studying the first 128 lessons, then studying a dialect.

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The length of time devoted to studying the dialect depends on two factors:

(1) the degree of competence desired, and

(2) the validity of the transition from MSA to the colloquial dialect.

The second factor is of particular importance. It would be wasteful to construct a colloquial course which starts from scratch, then teach it to students who have completed 128 lessons of MSA. The colloquial course must rest solidly on a set of transformation rules which relate MSA to the colloquial dialect. Again, it would be wasteful (in terms of time, effort, and cost) to teach a colloquial course which is based on an inaccurate or an incomplete set of transformation rules.

About six weeks would be required for teaching the dialect if:

(1) the transformation rules are complete and accurate,

(2) the colloquial course is pedagogically sound,

(3) the desired terminal skill is minimum competence in the colloquial dialect (C-I), and,

(4) Four hours per day are devoted to teaching the colloquial dialect (the remaining two hours of the school day should be devoted to exercises on MSA; in this manner, the student does not forget much of his MSA while learning the colloquial dialect).

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E. Schedules

The four schedules given below specify what must be covered during each class period; they also specify the homework to be assigned each day. For more details see the DLI Program of Instruction for this course.

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Schedule 1: Lessons 1 - 19

(Note: Dialogue memorization should be used more and more sparingly as the course progresses and should be phased down at approximately the 18th week.)

1	2	3	4	5	6
			Presentation Drills	Presentation Drills	Dialogue presentation homework 1
Dialogue Recitation (10 min.) in lab. Pattern Drills	Free Selection Drills (25 min.) Free Oral Expression	Reading (or script) Homework 2			

Homework 1: Learn the dialogue; study the grammatical notes and the vocabulary list.

Homework 2: Study and practice script (or vocalization); listening comprehension exercises (taped)

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Schedule 2: Lessons 20 - 128

(Note: Dialogue memorization should be used more and more sparingly as the course progresses and should be phased down at approximately the 18th week.)

1	2	3	4	5	6
			Presentation Drills	Presentation Drills	Dialogue (20 min.) Test on reading of previous lesson. Homework 1
Dialogue Recitation (10 min.) in lab Pattern Drill	Free Selection Drills (25 min.) Free Oral Expression	Reading Homework 2			

Homework 1: Learn the dialogue or the passage for intensive study (tapes); study the grammatical notes and the vocabulary list.

Homework 2: Listening comprehension exercise or reading passage; writing; dictionary exercises (where specified)

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Schedule 3:

(a) Vocabulary Lessons 129 - 141

1	2	3	4	5	6
		First Passage	Exercise on the First Passage First Review First Homework*	Second Passage	Exercise on the second passage Second Review Second Homework*
Exercise on the two passages	Vocabulary Exercises				

*The homework assignments are specified in each lesson.

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Schedule 3:

(b) Grammatical Notes, Chapters 1-9

Note: The grammatical sections should be assigned as homework before they are discussed in class.

1	2	3	4	5	6
First grammatical section	Exercises on the first grammatical section	Second grammatical section	Exercises on the second grammatical section	Third grammatical section	Exercises on the third grammatical section
" " " " "	" " " " "	" " " " "	" " " " "	" " " " "	" " " " "

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Notes on the Homework

Designated in Schedule 1 and Schedule 2

1. Learning the Dialogue

"Learning" the dialogue does not necessarily mean memorizing utterances as invariable units in an invariable sequence; it may also be defined in one of the following ways:

(a) Given a stimulus, the student is able to produce an appropriate response at normal speed, using correct grammatical constructions and producing the appropriate phonological contrasts. An acceptable response need not be identical to the one in the textbook as long as it can occur in normal conversation situations.

(b) Given a set of cues which represent the skeleton of an utterance (stimulus or response), the student is able to produce that utterance at normal speed, using correct grammatical constructions and producing the appropriate phonological contrasts. An acceptable utterance need not be identical to the one in the textbook as long as it can occur in normal conversation situations. The cues should be given to the students in class during the presentation of the dialogue, and the same cues should be used the following morning during the recitation period.

For the sequence

انعقد المؤتمر في القاهرة وحضره عدد كبير من الهند وبين ، لكنّ مندوب لبنان تغيّب عن المؤتمر لمرضه

the cues may be:

القاهرة ، عدد كبير ، مندوب لبنان ، مرض

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2. Studying the Listening Comprehension Passages

"Studying" one of those passages consists of listening to the tape once, then answering the appropriate set of questions. After hearing the recorded passage only once, students often doubt their ability to answer the questions. It must be emphasized, however, that the questions never call for minute details, and that an average student can answer most of those questions after listening to the passage once with normal concentration.

Students who, in the first attempt, fail to answer most of the questions should listen to the passage again. If listening to the passage for a third time is necessary, students should stop the tape periodically to take notes. Each student should indicate the number of times he had to listen to the recorded passage.

Only poor students will fail to answer the questions after the above recommendations have been carried out. The teacher can help such students the next day by following the procedure outlined below (the first step will usually suffice; the second should be taken only if necessary):

(a) The teacher reads the passage aloud. The student raises his hand every time he fails to understand an expression, and the teacher pauses to resolve the difficulty.

(b) The teacher reads the passage again, stopping periodically to elicit an English summary.

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3. Studying the Reading Passages and the Passages for Intensive Study

"Studying" one of those passages may be defined as follows:

(a) The student reads the passage repeatedly (with the help of the tape) until the meaning becomes completely clear. It may prove necessary to stop the tape from time to time in order to look up unfamiliar words or think about grammatical constructions.

(b) The student continues to read the passage aloud until adequate fluency is achieved.

(c) The student makes sure that he can recall the meaning of new words at normal speed.

(d) The student completes the exercises which follow the passage; those exercises are given, with appropriate instructions, in the textbook.

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