6th International Conference in Jerusalem

Tuesday July 13th – Thursday, July 15th
2010

Ramada Hotel, Jerusalem

Conference Selections
ETAI Mission Statement

ETAI (English Teachers’ Association of Israel) is a grassroots, voluntary organization concerned with the professional development of its close to 1000 members. The membership list includes English teachers from all sectors and at all levels of education – elementary, junior high and secondary school, college and university.

ETAI offers professional support, information, forums for discussion and practical suggestions and resources to help English teachers deepen their expertise and grow in their careers through its local events, regional and national conferences and its journal The ETAI Forum.

The main driving force behind all the organization’s activities is to encourage teachers to seek the appropriate avenues to keep up-to-date with the latest research in the field, materials, methodologies, technology, essential for their lives as English language teachers.

It is our job as a teachers’ association to supply a variety of arenas to foster professionalism. These include organizing events throughout the country, keeping in touch with the English Inspectorate and the Ministry of Education and maintaining our connections with international English teachers’ organizations as an affiliate of TESOL and an associate of IATEFL.

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ETAI Membership Dues

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*must present a valid student ID card

New member / Membership renewal form can be downloaded from the ETAI site: [www.etai.org.il](http://www.etai.org.il)
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LETTER FROM THE CHAIR

This summer, at the wonderful and enriching International ETAI Conference in Jerusalem, which you will read about in this issue, we reached a membership of 950. Our office manager, Marna, reports that we are now up to 956. This is happy news for our organization, though the number of English teachers in Israel is many times 956.

You may ask why an English teacher should bother to join ETAI. The answer to that question lies in what ETAI does with the membership fees it collects, and what value you get for your money. In ETAI’s mission statement, we say that we are an organization concerned with professional development and providing access to up-to-date research and information essential to every English teacher. In order to facilitate this worthwhile aim, we organize conferences where our members can share ideas and experience, and to which we invite experts from around the world to enrich us with their ideas and results of their research studies. We also publish the Forum, filled with interesting articles on every aspect of English teaching.

In order to do this, we must fund flights and accommodations for our invited speakers, and pay for the use of the conference venues, audio-visual equipment, printing the program, printing the Forum, etc. These are by no means trivial expenses. Simply put, the more members we have, the higher the quality of our events.

Recently, there has been some public discussion about the fact that ETAI has not been fulfilling the role of the English teachers’ union, and its lack of involvement in issues of national policy regarding English teaching in Israel. A careful reading of ETAI’s mission statement will clarify that issue. We are not and have never intended to be a teachers’ union. Our purpose is professional development and enrichment, and toward that goal, we invite you all to convince your colleagues to join us, and we invite each of you take an active part in sharing ideas and organizing ETAI events which inspire and enrich us all.

Mitzi Geffen, (mitzi100@gmail.com)
ETAI Chairperson

LETTER FROM THE EDITORS

Just as the sixth international ETAI conference, “Linking Through Language,” was a truly international event with attendees from all over the world, this special edition of the ETAI Forum is also an international publication, with articles by authored presenters from all over the world. The variety of topics covered is just as diverse as those who wrote them. There are articles about the English language, linguistics and literature, articles with practical classroom tips, articles about motivation and classroom management, articles about teacher training and much more. Dispersed among the articles you can find comments by conference attendees, some of which originally appeared on the ETNI discussion list.

Editing and compiling this special issue of the Forum as a book of conference proceedings was a major challenge. We believe you’ll enjoy the result! If you presented and would still like to submit an article based on your presentation, please do. We are also accepting submissions for the Spring edition of the ETAI Forum.

We would like to take this opportunity to thank the outgoing chair of ETAI, Penny Ur, for all her hard work and support over the past two years, and we welcome Mitzi Geffen as our new chair and wish her all the best in her new role.

We hope to see you at the upcoming conferences and ETAI events throughout the year!

Happy reading!

Michele Ben and Amanda Caplan, ETAI Forum co-editors
I was privileged to be on the convening committee of ETAI 2010 ‘Linking through language’, together with Nava Horowitz and Debbie Lifshitz, under the leadership of the Conference Chair, [Convener] Valerie Jakar. It was a lot of hard work over nearly two years, from the initial meeting late in 2008 through to the debriefing meeting in August 2010. We had numerous crises and panics on the way, naturally, but also many wonderful, unrewarded windfalls: people who gave unstintingly of their time, energy and various talents to make sure that the conference succeeded, to all of whom we are deeply grateful.

And succeed it did: fulfilling and exceeding our hopes. I have been to many international conferences over the years, including the big ones (IATEFL, TESOL), and smaller national ones in Europe, Latin America, the far East: ETAI 2010, in terms of the level of the academic program together with the overall atmosphere of sharing, enjoyment and professionalism, achieved standards comparable to those of the best of them. A number of our international guests, of whom there were more than forty, commented on the well-organized, congenial, atmosphere and the high caliber of participation and presentations.

We cannot, in this edition of the ETAI Forum – or, indeed, ever – reconstruct the ‘high’ of the atmosphere at the conference. But we can do the next best thing: show something of the level and variety of the academic program and make a selection of the presentations available to those ETAI members who did not have the privilege of attending the conference itself. So here is a Forum of shared written contributions on a variety of professional topics, giving more than a taste of the Forum of interactive spoken presentations that was the Conference.

We should like to convey our gratitude to the Editors for this impressive collection!

On behalf of the Convening Committee

Penny Ur

Happy new academic year! I wish you every success in your professional and personal life.

After returning to Uzbekistan I go on disseminating information about the ETAI International Conference which has become my brightest summer experience and one of the most memorable events in my life. Already at the beginning of August, during a 3-day Effective Resource Centre Management Training held in Tashkent by the British Council I involved participants in discussion of the article Testing Vocabulary in a Story (ETAI FORUM, summer 2010, p.39), which all the participants found extremely useful. To make the discussion more vivid and practical the participants were asked to do testing of vocabulary described in the article using some books.

Similar discussion we had on 8 August in UzTEA Samarkand branch during one of PSG (Peer Support Group) meetings with EL teachers. In addition to the article by Phyllis Oded, we discussed Penny Ur’s workshop on Teaching Vocabulary and shared our ideas and experiences on teaching and testing vocabulary. At the end of our meeting we played special cards as another possible activity to check students’ vocabulary and entertain them (by the way these cards I purchased at the ETAI conference). I was glad to answer a lot of participants’ questions about the conference, ETAI and EL teachers of Israel.

The other Penny Ur’s conference presentation Linking through Grammar was in the focus of PSG meeting on 22 August. This presentation encouraged the participants to expand on why our students don’t like grammar and what to do to change their attitude.

On 31 August 8 EL teachers gathered together in order to discuss ways of motivating language learners. Besides personal experiences and ideas, we read and discussed a wonderful presentation by Zoltan Dornyei he gave at the ETAI International Conference.

As I am the person coordinating Mentoring and Peer Support Group strand of ETTE project in Uzbekistan, I e-mailed these reports and the workshops to a big number of participants of the project in other regions of Uzbekistan. The last piece of information is connected to Reading Club, another project UzTEA Samarkand branch has been running since 2007. Yesterday we had 150th session of Reading Club. The topic was COEXIST and it was focused on information about the Baha’i Faith. Photos from Haifa and Akka were used by me during the session which was a big success.

Dear friends, you should know that now you have many friends in Uzbekistan. You are always welcome to my country and to my native city, Samarkand, which is famous for its rich history and cultural heritage.

Looking forward to hearing from you,

Victoria Demidova, Uzbekistan
Call for articles! 📝

The deadline for submissions to the Spring 2011 edition of the ETAI Forum is **February 10th, 2011** and we are anxiously awaiting your contributions. Make your voice heard!

Submit all contributions as WORD (.doc) **(not** docx) documents as an attachment to an e-mail to etaiforum@gmail.com. The name of the document should be your family name and the title of the article, or part of it: i.e. Jones_callforarticles.

**Maximum** article length should be about 2,500 words but if your article is longer, do not exceed 4,000 words.

Try to keep the language non-sexist and use they instead of he/she.

If you include references, they should be written out in APA style. You can find this in the “OWL Handouts” put out by Purdue University – [http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/](http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/). **Cite page numbers in the body of the article if you use a direct quotation.**

If you have a photo of yourself, or any other attractive visual material, like cartoons, we would be interested in receiving this.

At the end of the text, include brief biodata about your professional life, including where you teach and any other significant information. Include your e-mail address.

You must be a member of ETAI to publish in the ETAI Forum. To become a member or renew your membership call Marna Snyder, ETAI Office Director, Tel: 02-500-1844, etaioffice@gmail.com. Or visit the ETAI website to download a membership form, [http://etai.org.il/](http://etai.org.il/)

Please submit your contributions to: etaiforum@gmail.com
The aim of my presentation “Teaching English Through Music” was to show other English teachers how I use music to enhance my English lessons.

We began with Poison in the Well by 10,000 Maniacs and Big Yellow Taxi, originally written by Joni Mitchell. The song was remade by Vanessa Carlton and Counting Crows. I use these songs to stimulate my students’ awareness of environmental concerns.

Then we heard the song Vincent by Don Mclean to demonstrate how I use the song to teach about adjectives and alienation.

To teach about the perils of fame I presented both versions of Candle in the Wind by Elton John. The first version was released in 1973 and was dedicated to Marilyn Monroe whom Elton had never met. The second version of the song was released in 1997 following the tragic death of Elton’s friend Princess Diana Spencer. I like to have the students compare and contrast these two outstanding songs.

Madonna’s Till Death Do Us Part discusses the issue of violence against women. This song includes the haunting lyrics “The bruises they will fade away. You hit so hard with the things you say,” and “You’re not in love with someone else. You don’t even love yourself.” The song is autobiographical and talks about Madonna’s stormy marriage to actor Sean Penn.

In order to increase my students’ awareness of cultural differences I use Elton John’s Indian Sunset. This song describes the dilemma of a young Indian warrior who must decide whether to join his tribe on a reservation and surrender his independence, or to abandon his tribe and strike out on his own as a hunted renegade. In the song, the warrior chooses a warrior’s death. Cultural rap hero the late Tupac Shekur, used the chorus of Indian Sunset in one of the last songs he ever recorded, Ghetto Gospel. This song was released after Tupac’s assassination and is actually a message of peace. The students all recognize this song, however, it must be dissected so that non-native speakers can understand its full meaning.

Tupac’s main rival in the rap scene was Christopher Wallace, AKA Big E. The two rap superstars battled each other for supremacy in the rap world. They also accused each other of stealing ideas and style. Almost exactly one year after Tupac’s assassination Big E was also assassinated. His wife, rap singer Faith Evans, and Big E’s former protégé, P Diddy, released I’ll be Missing You as a tribute to Big E. The chorus of the song uses the future progressive tense. The melody of the song was borrowed from the sinister Every Step You Take by the Police, AKA the Stalker Song.

Some teachers voiced reservations about using the songs of a rap artist who had been murdered. My view is that since the songs themselves are messages of peace and reconciliation and our students listen to these songs anyway, we should choose the best of these songs in order to teach positive values.

Another song presented was Happy Birthday by Stevie Wonder which was written primarily to draw attention to the demand to make Martin Luther King’s birthday a national holiday in the US. Proponents of this bill finally won a long- drawn-out battle in 1985, when President Reagan signed the bill into law.

David Curiel was born in San Antonio, Texas and made aliya in 1982 and has been teaching English at Eshel Hanasi Regional High School since 1992. He teaches grades eight through twelve.

“The conference was run beautifully. Everything seemed to run like clockwork: sessions began on time, in the designated place. All of the sessions that I went to were very good.

The hotel was terrific in keeping the hotel areas clean – the exhibition hall, the toilets, etc. constantly were being looked after.

Thanks again – it was a success!”

— Myrna Silverberg, Israel
SING YOUR LESSONS ALONG WORKSHOP

Tamar Har-Sagi (bob_sphog@walla.com)

Many English teachers might think that using songs and music in their EFL classrooms is just an additional fun activity to pass the time in class; but they do not realize that songs, rhythm, and rhymes are actually very helpful and essential in order to acquire good language skills. After launching my first CD of English teaching songs (Singlish), I wanted teachers to be able to see how simple it is to create teaching songs and start using them in the classes.

Before starting the actual workshop, the participants took a minute to think about the importance of using music in class and understand how we the teachers, can benefit from it. Participants expressed very interesting answers. One teacher even shared with the rest of us a personal experience of how singing helped her to learn certain material. I summed up all the answers and gave more examples; I also brought some personal stories from my teaching experience, and a short scene from a movie which is related to the topic.

We began the actual workshop by learning some steps and guidelines that can be followed when creating a teaching song. Then we started the active part of the workshop, and composed a song together. The participants worked in groups of two or three people on the same topic and melody. After about five minutes, many of them created very nice teaching songs and shared them with the rest of the class.

Then we divided into four different groups; each group had a different topic and a different melody. They were given 15 minutes in which they worked diligently according to the steps presented previously. Each group then sang its own teaching song with me playing the melody on my guitar.

This workshop seemed to arouse awareness of integrating songs in the regular lessons and provided ideas on how to create them, even with students. Here are some songs created in the workshop:

Irregular Verbs to the tune of Hava Nagila –
We went to Haifa
We had a ___
We ate an ice-cream and drank a coke.
(twice)
We had so much fun x2
and lay in the sun
(twice)

Am / is / are to the tune of Old McDonald –
To be has 3 sons – e i e i o.
I am, you are, he, she is – and on the way we go.
I am happy, you are glad, he is, she is, and it is mad.
We are a family and to be is our dad.

“Wh” questions to the tune of Oh Susannah –
What’s your name?
How old are you?
When were you born?
I’m looking for my friend again, where is she now?
O Susannah! Where is she now?
Who can tell me where she is?
What? Where? and How?

Tamar Har Sagi studied at Michlala Bait Vagan in Jerusalem. She is now doing her internship year at a high school Yeshivah in Mate Yehuda where she teaches the weakest groups.

To all of you involved in ETAI, a hearty thanks and immense gratitude for pulling off the best ETAI yet. I know that the path was not easy and, cynic as I am, thought you were all nuts attempting an international conference. Now I know you were (!!!) but you did it and how.

I just hope that you can all now relax a little and bask in the sunshine of your enormous success. A very special thanks to Penny, Ahuva, Marna and Valerie, along with everybody else, for their cooperation and good humour under very trying conditions.

With great respect for your work,

Gay Bergman, Israel
LISTENING AND RESPONDING IN DISCUSSION

Liz Shapiro (liznphillip@hotmail.com)

This interactive presentation was based on experiences preparing an adult group of learners for OCR (Oxford, Cambridge and RSA) examination ‘Listening and Responding in Discussion’.

The students needed more confidence in communicating and were experiencing the following difficulties:

➢ pronunciation which lead to miscommunication with speakers of other languages (Nigerian teacher, Sierra Leonean student, Jamaican student). When speaking English within their own language/culture group their accents did not present a problem.

➢ difficulty voicing opinions due to their cultural/personal background (Japanese student, Korean student, Jamaican student).

➢ feeling inhibited in discussion because they did not know the acceptable norms and discourse skills for effective listening and responding in discussion in UK English (Jamaican community leader, Jamaican chair of a committee, Somali parent).

These students expressed a lack of confidence and were tense when speaking. In the words of Judy Apps “Tensing your body tenses your mind. Not only is your voice inhibited but your ability to listen is as well!” (pp. 37-38). Relaxation, pronunciation exercises, effective listening and discourse skills will enable students to take part in a discussion with confidence. Here are some useful techniques.

Relaxation and focusing

❂ Brain Gym®

Take a drink of water. Activate the right and left side of the brain through touch and movement, and short deep relaxation (PACE). http://esl.about.com/od/englishlessonplans/a/braingym.htm

❂ Breathing

Breathe out. Then, let breath come in and fill your body from the ground up. Repeat.

Relaxing the articulatory system

Massage up the jaw line, yawn and say

FAH FAH FAH

BLAH BLAH BLAH

Massage the neck muscles

❂ Facial relaxation

OO EE OO EE

❂ Tongue tips

LLL DDD LLL DDD LDL

❂ Lips

WWW BBB WBW

❂ Tongue and Lips

LLL LDL WWW LDL WLW

Pronunciation

The challenge in my class was to respect the accents my students had successfully used in their own countries but to offer them the use of an alternative accent to use when communicating with people from other language backgrounds. A ‘Lingua Franca Core’ emphasises the importance of: vowel length contrast; initial consonant clusters (no deletion); word groupings; nuclear stress; aspiration of /p/ /t/ /k/ in initial position and the effect on vowel length when in the final position.; using close approximations to consonant unless this has a significant distinction i.e. /p/ instead of /f/; /p/ instead of /b/; /l/ instead of /r/; the importance of the long vowel sound in bird and world. Limericks, tongue twisters, poems, work on minimal pairs, all helped with raising awareness of the student to the above.

Here are some exercises from the presentation:

❂ Vowel contrast

He hit my bag. Was it damaged?
He hit my back. Did it hurt?

I don’t know the longest word for bird in the world … not Emu.

❂ Emphasising Key words

I’m extremely happy. I’m extremely happy.

Effective listening skills

Exercise 1

In pairs, the students speak for two minutes about something good, the second student listens and retells it for verification. Then reverse the roles of the students but instruct the listener to fiddle and to not pay attention. How did this feel? Did the speaker want to continue?

Practice using repetition as an active listening skill for clarifying understanding.
“So what you are saying is … ,
“Does that mean … ?”
“Can I just check … ?

Exercise 2
Teacher holds a box. Students draw this box as they see it.
Why are the drawings all different?
Answer: Sitting in a different place = a different point of view
Each person’s point of view is valid for him/her and must be respected.
Acknowledge and respond to other points of view.
“You’re right”
“I quite agree”
“That’s very interesting, but … ”
“I see what you mean, but … ”
“From my point of view.” “In my opinion … ”.
“I think … ”
What is your opinion?
What do you think?

Discourse skills
Speaking with clarity, recognizing body language, inviting other opinions and acknowledging opinions give the student confidence in expressing an opinion. We concluded with small group discussions and used our ears, eyes and undivided attention to listen and respond.

References

Useful Websites
www.ocr.org.uk to access OCR Entry Level Certification in Adult Literacy Speaking and Listening Entry 3, sample candidates evidence sheet and learning outcome sheet
www.braingym.org
www.scribd.com/doc/3974305/British-Accent- Module to access examples of ‘Speaking with the Perfect Tongue’ (a module on British Accent training)
www.phonememachine.com for sound and lip movement
www.tellmemorecorporate.com – tell me more online
www.thinks.com – for some examples of ‘Tongue Twisters’
www.telus.net/internationalintelligibility-Pronunciation for International Intelligibility by Robin Walker, 2001

Liz Shapiro (BA General, including General Linguistics, Manchester University, UK 1967; RSA Dip TESL1975; CENTRA, SpLDAdults with Dyslexia1997, Member of Institute for Further Learning2008). She worked as ESOL tutor for 30 years (1977-2007). She has prepared many adult students for English Speaking Board Exams and also OCR Speaking and Listening Exams. She has also attended courses on Brain Gym, Mind Mapping, Ron Davis Gift of Dyslexia, Dyslexia and the Bi-lingual learner, NLP. She is retired but continues to support ESOL students with Dyslexia and is interested in current work being done with English as a Lingua Franca.
Fee! Fi! Foo! Fum! I smell the blood of an Irish girl! Who doesn’t love a good story; whether it’s a good old-fashioned fairy tale or an anecdote in the staff room? Storytelling is such an integral part of our everyday lives and has an important role in the classroom. I find using stories in the English classroom very motivating. I especially love fairytales. They are adaptable to all ages, levels and activities. I like to play around with traditional tales and make them appropriate for my classes and to me, therefore, my giant’s chant in Jack in the Beanstalk is adapted due to the fact that I am Irish and a bit of a feminist.

Fairytales are great to use as a springboard for ideas for drama or creating stories and letting students’ imaginations go wild. The Magic Book technique (Heathfield, 2006) creates a wonderful oral fairytale with the whole class. As each page is turned in the Magic Book, the students are asked to predict what happens next in the story and magically their predictions are always correct. Students can also create a story online as a class or individually to print, read and share. A great story maker can be found on the LearnEnglish kids website (http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org) in which children can choose the type of story they would like to create, and its details, so they have their very own personalized story. This is a great way to motivate students to read and to scan their friends’ stories for differences.

My all time favourite fairytale is Little Red Riding Hood. It’s amazing how many activities you can do with one story. Of course my life was made easier by the activities on the TeachingEnglish website (www.teachingenglish.org.uk). The Britlit section on this site has activities, chants, flashcards, plays and materials for the story. It’ll keep the little ones going for months. For older students I use Louise Cooper’s version of the red rambler which gives the wolf’s version of the story. The story of the misunderstood wolf is part of a resource kit with the story and audio, as well as pre, while and post reading activities. For the mature or adult learner, Roald Dahl’s version of Little Red Riding Hood is delightful and can be used as an introduction to creating fairytales with a twist.

For more information about my storytelling workshop or for more useful links and resources please contact me at: nicola.crowley@britishcouncil.org.il

Useful links for telling and creating stories:

The Magic Book by David Heathfield –
www.youtube.com/watch?v=u7H174FyXQY

Story Maker –
http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/make-your-own/story-maker

Creative Group Writing worksheet –
www.teachingenglish.org.uk/try/activities/creative-group-writing

BritLit: resource kits for stories for all ages and levels –
www.teachingenglish.org.uk/try/britlit

Little Red Riding Hood –
www.teachingenglish.org.uk/try/britlit/little-red-riding-hood

The Wolf’s Tale by Louise Cooper –
www.teachingenglish.org.uk/try/britlit/wolfs-tale
ARE PROJECTS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM A WASTE OF TIME?  
A RESEARCH-BASED PLEA FOR FREEDOM OF CHOICE  

Eusebia Iris Muresan (irisim12@gmail.com)

In an age when student attention is short-spanned and difficult to get, foreign language teachers look for ways to allow for genuine communication and give real meaning to classroom activities. Practicing language for language sake only does not lead to proficient communication. Moreover, the fear of making mistakes undermines students’ confidence and motivation (Gillies, 2007). Based on the principles of content-based instruction and cooperative learning, EFL (English as a foreign language) projects are expected to enhance students’ interest in learning. This should result in increased student achievement (Brown, 2004). Moreover, the feeling of togetherness generated by teamwork may increase the enthusiasm and lower the stress that hinders foreign language learning. But is this what really happens in the EFL classroom? Is there a connection between doing EFL projects and student achievement and attitude towards studying the foreign language? Furthermore, given the complexity of the task, should the teachers choose those project topics they think their students may be able to cope with?

This study attempts to answer the above questions by exploring the link between integration of project work in the English lessons and students’ performance and motivation. To explore that link, an experiment built on one of Campbell and Stanley’s experimental models for educational research was conducted (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). The experiment lasted 22 weeks and followed Stoller’s 10-step sequence model (Stoller, 2002, p. 112). Seven of the steps in this model may be common to projects carried out in other subjects. However, the other three (steps 4, 6 and 8) allow the teacher to intervene with explicit language instruction when the students need it most. Owing to its relevance at that point in the project, such instruction is much appreciated by the students: they are able to meet the language demands of the following step.

The data, collected by means of achievement tests, self- and group-reflection questionnaires and personal interviews, shows significant differences between the two groups after 22 weeks, differences which were nonexistent at the beginning of the experiment. Despite the expectation for better results in the group whose topics were teacher-generated and closely monitored, the opposite occurred. Proficiency and motivation were much higher in the group whose topics were student-generated. This is attributed to the increased amount of interest and effort invested by students when they work on a topic they themselves are allowed to choose and which they perceive as authentic.  

The 10-step sequence model  
22 week implementation (one 45-minute lesson per week)

Step 1 – A theme for the project  
Week 1: Choosing a topic  
Each student has to think of a topic they would like to investigate and be prepared to give reasons why the
topic has to be researched. Then the students sit in teams of three-four, present their arguments for their preferred topic and one topic is chosen. Together, the students write the rationale for their chosen topic.

**Step 2 – The final outcome**

**Week 2: Determining the final outcome**

Each team member has to think of the project objectives and discuss them with the other members. Those objectives will determine the way the project will be presented. The students will have to prepare a written account and an oral presentation supported by visual aids. All the team members will have a role in the oral presentation.

**Step 3 – The structure**

**Week 3: Shaping the project**

The students will ask themselves: *What do we already know about our topic? What else do we want to find out? What sources will we use?* They will gather the brainstormed information in a KWS graphic organizer, as the one presented below. The **W** column will become the research question generator. Examples of research questions will be provided by the teacher and elicited from students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Know</th>
<th>Want to know</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

When the students reach the final step of the project, column **L** (Learned) may be added to the graphic organizer, column in which the students may list what they have learned in the process.

**Step 4 – Preparation for Step 5: Gathering information**

**Week 4: Asking a research question**

The students will be sent back to the **W** (what we want to find out) column in the KWS graphic organizer and asked to finalize their research question and sub-questions.

**Week 5: Finding and comparing sources on the Internet**

The students will recognize and compare sites ending in .com/, .edu/, .ac/, .org. The students will learn how to use an on-line dictionary.

**Week 6: Reviewing reading strategies**

The students will employ reading strategies, such as skimming, scanning and note-taking, to extract information from texts written in English.

**Week 7: Summarizing longer texts**

The students will be able to differentiate between main idea and details and use this knowledge to summarize a longer text written in English.

**Week 8: Conducting an interview**

The students will review question formation and consult sample interviews provided by the teacher. A question bank, to borrow from in case of need, will be built. The students will sit in teams and decide what expert to interview and what questions to ask.

**Week 9: Building a questionnaire**

The students will consult sample questionnaires provided by the teacher. In teams, they will decide what their target population is and build the questionnaires to be handed out.

**Steps 5 – Students gather information using various sources**

**Week 10: Extracting information from written texts**

Each student in the team will find and bring two or three articles written in English that will be discussed in the team before they are accepted as relevant. Once they are accepted, the students will extract, organize and summarize the relevant information. The sources are saved for the reference list.

**Week 11: Extracting information from oral sources: Interviewing an expert**

Each student will assume one role: asking the questions, recording, filming, transcribing, etc.

**Week 12: Extracting information from questionnaires**

Each student will distribute 10-20 questionnaire forms, collect them and bring them back to the group to be analyzed. If asked, they will be prepared to explain the importance of the information they gather.

**Step 6 – Preparation for Step 7: Compiling and analyzing data**

**Week 13: Using graphic organizers**

The students will be introduced to graphic representations they will use in order to organize, analyze and synthesize the information they gathered.

**Week 14: Analyzing numeric data**

The students will learn how to use functions offered by Microsoft Excel to analyze numeric data and represent it graphically.

**Step 7 – Students compile and analyze data**

**Week 15: Deciding what is relevant and what is not**

Consulting all the information they gathered, the students decide what information will be included in the project and what will be left out. The information will be divided into chapters, following the project checklist.
Week 16: Writing a conclusion
Based on the results of their research, the students will write a conclusion.

Step 8 – Preparation for Step 9: Presentation
Week 17: Editing the final version
The students will finalize their written part of the project, using the project checklist provided by the teacher.

Week 18: Getting ready for the oral presentation
Various forms of presenting information orally are suggested: a lecture, a play, a game, an experiment, etc. Oral skills are practiced in mini mock presentations. The students write the plan for their oral presentation, in which each team member has a role, consulting the suggested rubrics for assessing the oral group and individual presentation provided by the Ministry of Education.

Step 9 – Students present the final product
Week 19: Oral presentation week
All EFL lessons during this week are devoted to presentations. Each group will leave their written work on a table at the auditorium entrance for the others to see and read if interested. While one team presents orally, the others will be asked to take notes that will help them give feedback. The length of the oral presentation will not surpass 10 minutes. Another five minutes will be allowed for questions and comments.

Step 10 – Students evaluate the project
Week 20: Giving and receiving feedback (Face-to-face)
The students will give feedback based on the notes they took during the oral presentations. The received feedback will help the students to self-assess their oral presentation.

Week 21: Self-assessment
The students will consult the teacher and peer feedback before assessment. Then they will assess both their written project and oral presentation according to the suggested rubrics for assessing the written and oral group and individual presentation provided by the Ministry of Education.

Week 22: Individual and group reflection
The students will reflect on their projects, following the student’s self-reflection questionnaire provided by the teacher. This will be done first individually and then as a group. The students will be encouraged to add the column L (Learned) to the KWS graphic organizer in Step 3 – The Structure, and list what they have learned in the process. Suggestions for the teacher may also be elicited.

References

Iris Muresan is a true believer in the importance of EFL projects. She teaches at the Gymnasia Reali High School in Rishon LeZion, where the Project Night is an annual, exciting, anticipated event. She also teaches at Achva College of Education.

Although, only a part-time attendee of the conference this year (Tuesday and some of Thursday morning) I felt the buzz and enjoyed the sessions.
I thank all those who made it happen.
And there are teachers who say they can’t see what ETAI gives us!!!?

Jack Pillemer, Israel

To all those involved in the organization of the ETAI Conference, thanks for a most successful event, just as good as many an international conference elsewhere. The venue, the ambiance, the chance to meet old friends and visitors from abroad, the choice of presentations, everything was just as it should be. I really enjoyed it and I echo the praises of those who have commented. It shows the strength of ETAI. Congratulations!

Esther Lucas, Israel
The presentation discussed second language vocabulary learning from three perspectives: quantity – the number of words needed to function in a language, quality – the degree of word knowledge, and opportunity – the optimal conditions for learning words and learning them well.

The most important quantitative research questions relevant to teaching are: What percentage of vocabulary in the input has to be known to ensure comprehension? How many words does the learner need to know to be able to function in a language? How many words do our learners know? Most research suggests that 98% of words in the input (oral or written) have to be understood in order to comprehend it well. The understanding of 95% will assure minimally acceptable comprehension. Similarly, guessing unknown words can hardly occur if less than 95% of words are understood. In order to understand 95% of an authentic written text, the learner should know about 5000 word families. To understand 98% – 7000-8000 word families should be learnt. The understanding of radio talks and interviews requires 3000 word families to reach the 95% threshold, and 6000-7000 to reach 98%. Expressing a simple thought in a conversation can be done with the knowledge of 2000 word families. However, learners with such a limited vocabulary may not understand their interlocutors’ response. Vocabulary size tests of Israeli 12th graders showed that 5 pointers knew, receptively, 3000-3500 word families and 4 pointers – 2000; native speakers of similar age know 18000-20000 word families. Taken together, the vocabulary size data show that our learners who graduate from high school do not have enough vocabulary to read an authentic text well. This is further demonstrated by the scores on the English part of the Psychometric test. Only 9% of all candidates for Higher Education receive an exemption from English academic courses. Most candidates are required to study English for at least two semesters.

The central questions pertaining to the quality perspective are:

What do we know when we know a word? Why are some words more difficult to learn than other words? What is involved in activating passive vocabulary?

Word knowledge consists of a range of aspects of knowledge including knowledge of spoken and written form, morphological knowledge, word meanings, the word’s grammatical features, knowledge of how the word is related to other words in the language, and knowledge of constraints to be observed in the use of the word. Each feature of knowledge may present a difficulty. Some notable sources of difficulty illustrated in the presentation were:

1) Similarity of different words in sound, script, morphology, e.g.
   * Adopt/adapt, conceal/cancel/counsel, embrace/embarrass, economic/economical sensible/sensitive/sensual.

2) Different lexicalization of concepts in Hebrew and English, e.g.
   * לעעריך esteem, estimate, evaluate, assess
   * לבטל cancel, annul
   * גדל grow, breed, bring up / raise

3) Different collocations in Hebrew and English, e.g.
   * לציית להוראות follow instructions
   * לענות על הציפיות meet expectations
   * לגייס תרומות raise funds

To know a word actively, more has to be known than for passive knowledge. Hence, active knowledge takes longer to achieve. Learners who understood 3500 words, could produce 2000-2500 words on a test of active knowledge. As for vocabulary richness in written compositions, data from a large corpus of Israeli Learner English showed that very little progress was made throughout high school.

The main questions regarding the opportunity perspective are:

What are the sources of word learning? What makes these sources effective and more effective than other sources and activities? What matters more: what you do with the word, or how often you come across it?

The main sources of vocabulary are the input learners are exposed to and word-focused instruction they receive. The latter can occur in communicative and non-communicative activities. Whether the word is encountered in the input, or in activities, it has to be recycled many times to be remembered. The effectiveness of input depends on the number of encounters with the word. More than 10 encounters are necessary. The
effectiveness of word focused instruction depends on the amount of engagement with the word, i.e. high degree of attention to word features. In classroom context, more words are learnt from activities than from the input. One or two non-communicative word focused activities following one encounter with the word in text were found to produce better word retention results than 20 word occurrences in texts.

Following the research findings above, some practical suggestions for effective vocabulary teaching are to introduce a lexical syllabus; expand learners’ vocabulary size; provide different instruction for words of different learning difficulty; activate passive vocabulary by tasks that require learners to produce the words by rehearsals and tests; introduce extensive reading followed by testing new words in the books; practice the same words in different contexts; plan expanded rehearsals of words.

Suggested readings:


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Homepage: http://english.haifa.ac.il/batia.htm.

COMING TO TERMS WITH LEXICAL CHUNKS: IDENTIFYING, USING AND TEACHING.

Helen Osimo (helen.osimo@netvision.net.il)

The importance and benefits of incorporating lexical chunks in language teaching has been well-documented. However, language is replete with different types of multi-word units, referred to in the literature by dozens of different terms, such as lexical phrases (Natttinger and DeCarro,1992), institutionalized utterances (Lewis, 1993), prefabs (Erman and Warren, 2000), phrasal lexemes (Moon, 2001), formulaic sequences (Schmitt, 2004), phraseological units (Meunier and Granger, 2009) and morpheme equivalent units (Wray, 2008).

This paper discusses idiomatic lexical chunks (ILCs). These are highly frequent multi-word units, opaque in meaning in differing degrees which can be fixed or variable in their usage – all of which make them challenging, both for teaching and learning. If teachers are to include ILCs in their syllabi, some sort of order needs to be established for this seemingly amorphous phenomenon. In this paper I propose criteria for identifying ILCs in written and spoken texts, I describe patterns and coding to explain usage, and present categories as an organizational framework for teaching. A short text is given at the end of the paper from which examples are taken to illustrate my points.

What are ILCs?
Idiomaticity is regarded as a continuum where full and infrequent idioms (spill the beans) appear at one end; these are not included in the class of ILCs. At the other end of the continuum are phrasal verbs (carry out), which are highly frequent but are also not included as ILCs as they are covered thoroughly in the professional literature. Between these classes are numerous multi-word units which are idiomatic in different degrees.

I base the criteria for ILCs on the well accepted observation of Wray (2002) who uses the term formulaic sequences:
formulaic sequences … [are] no longer obliged to be grammatically regular or semantically logical. (p. 33)
Identifying idiomatic lexical chunks

As a means of identification, ILCs therefore need to meet the following criteria.

An idiomatic lexical chunk is a multi-word unit that is

1. grammatically irregular – at least one component does not follow regular grammatical rules;

   and / or

2. semantically opaque in varying degrees – at least one component does not convey its conventional meaning.

An example of an ILC with semantic opacity is *pave the way*. Different types of grammatical irregularity are tense irregularity, *(it's about time we celebrated)*; article irregularity *(many a time)*; the verb fixed without tense variation *(come to think of it)*. Grammatical irregularity includes grammatical constraints, such as only occurs in the plural form *(come to terms with)*.

Using idiomatic lexical chunks

There are three structural patterns for ILC usage: fixed, variable and discontinuous. The first pattern means the ILC is fixed for tense, prepositions, lexical items, etc. *(could do with; many a time)*. The second pattern means that the grammar of the ILC is variable: variable for subject/verb agreement, for tense, pronoun, plurality, negation. Components that are grammatically variable in an ILC are presented in square brackets, *[take] care of; *[gave] [their] word.*

The discontinuous pattern is so called because these ILCs depend on slotting in, not a grammatical feature, but a lexical item – an adjective, noun or verb – for completion. Options for completion of discontinuous chunks are presented with the grammatical label in square brackets: how about *[Ving]. Some ILCs fall into the two latter categories.

The criteria and patterns of usage of idiomatic lexical chunks can be summed up as follows:

For clarity, I suggest the three patterns be consistently presented in three different colours to help learners to remember the patterns of usage.

Teaching idiomatic lexical chunks

ILCs should be presented and practised in a similar fashion to single word vocabulary items, by taking either a text or goal-oriented approach.

Practice tasks can be the same as vocabulary practice: listening and recalling, gap filling, matching and composition. Giving examples of chunks in context extensively is of utmost importance.

Whereas vocabulary teaching is usually organized around topics, word families, semantic fields, antonyms or other common features to facilitate learning, so ILCs should be organized in clusters around common features which serve as mnemonic strategies for memorization and retention. The choice of organization depends on the ILCs encountered, the level of the learners, and the goal of the lesson. The following are some organizational categories, together with examples from the text below and additional ILCs.

1. ILCs with delexicalised verbs – *take, make, get, have* – where meaning is lost *( *[take] part in; *[get] off lightly; *[make] up *[your] mind).*

2. ILCs in speech acts: requests, suggestions *(how about *[Ving]; *[you] had better *[V])*.

3. ILCs with modal verbs *(could do with; might as well).*

4. ILCs with a single headword *( *[pave] the way, *[go] out of *[my] way; *[get] in the way).*

5. ILCs which have the same structure, such as binomials *(more or less; little by little; one and only).*

A text-oriented approach

One or two ILCs will appear in texts or coursebook activities and more can be added from the same organizational category. Such a method caters well for heterogeneous classes, as some ILCs will be easier than others to retain and use.

A goal-oriented approach

ILCs can be integrated into a vocabulary or grammar focussed lesson. Many chunks share part of their meaning with single-word vocabulary items. For example, when teaching the adverb immediately one could also introduce fixed ILCs right away, on the spot, there and then. When revising the present simple tense with the usual temporal adverbs, consider adding a binomial *(now and again,)* or
other temporal chunks (once in a while, once in a blue moon) for the faster learners in the class.

Conclusion
Lexical chunks represent an unruly and chaotic area of language, often avoided by both coursebook writers and teachers. While I attempt to establish some order for acquiring and teaching them, as with all areas of language, the approach should not be over-pedantic.

As with teaching single-word vocabulary items, there is never enough time to cover enough ILCs, despite their frequent occurrence in language. My chief aim is to raise teachers’ and learners’ awareness of the phenomenon of idiomatic lexical chunks and the need to include them as part of learners’ lexical knowledge. Learners soon notice their frequency – they meet them in songs, films and in their reading. Meeting them with awareness of their idiomaticity and their structural patterns promotes the confidence to identify and use them.

This three-strand approach – of identifying, describing and organizing – can be applied to ILCs occurring in established teaching materials, as well as to the creation of new exercises for extended practice. It also enhances the repertoire of idiomatic chunks for the non-native English teacher, and attempts to meet the challenge of coping with idiomatic chunks in all domains of language.

References


Appendix

Happy Earthday to you … .

How old is the Earth? It is more or less 4.5 billion years old, so it’s high time we celebrated her birthday! In honour of our planet’s birthday, a former U.S. Senator, Gaylord Nelson, decided that we could do with a special celebration day to learn how to take care of our planet. So way back, in 1970, the first Earth Day was held. Many environmental laws were passed and politicians gave their word that they would take measures to protect the environment. This paved the way for the modern environmental movement that has now spread all over the world. Little by little many countries have taken part in Earth Day celebrations and many a time environmental activities are organized by young people in their schools. How about starting a class project right away? Think of what you can do to make a difference in preserving our planet Earth. After all, she is our one and only … Mother Earth.

Inspired by a pedagogical internet site about protecting the environment. www.alliantenergykids.com

Dr. Helen Osimo is a lecturer in Applied Linguistics in the English Department of Oranim Academic College. Her M.A. thesis is in the field of reading comprehension which she taught in the EAP department of Oranim for many years; she was also co-ordinator of that department for four years. Her Ph.D. thesis is in the two fields of Mitigation (Pragmatics) and Formulaic Language on which she has presented at several international and national conferences. This paper draws on a course she has given for several years to pre- and in-service teachers.
This lexical syllabus is an experimental supplement for Israeli intermediate schools designed to complement the current Israeli English Curriculum published in 2001 which does not include such a syllabus. The focus on vocabulary results from the wide recognition of its prominent place in the acquisition of any language: mother tongue and all additional languages. This syllabus is therefore designed to help teachers facilitate vocabulary acquisition by setting goals for its acquisition and addressing methodological aspects enhancing its use.

Research advocates setting numerical goals for vocabulary acquisition only after analyzing students’ needs. To that end, vocabulary tests were administered to ninth grade students in A and B level classes at a typical school serving a middle-class population in the northern area. The tests were meant to assess vocabulary size and dimensions of knowledge- receptive knowledge and one aspect of productive knowledge. The results clearly highlighted the pressing need to focus on the minimum of the 2,000 most frequently used word families which professional literature describes as essential for all learners and, therefore, must be well learned as quickly as possible. Corpus linguistics provides the empiric identification of these 2,000 words.

To compile the lexical syllabus, in addition to frequency, three other criteria were used: (1) usefulness for teaching English as a foreign language, (2) relevance to the learners’ world, and (3) learning burden. Thus, following a careful examination of the General Service List compiled by West (1953), irrelevant items were removed and replaced by others considered relevant according to the selection criteria listed above. The outcome is a syllabus comprised of two vocabulary lists for two consecutive stages in junior high school: the first stage estimated to end roughly by the middle of the eighth grade and the second, at the end of ninth grade.

The methodological aspects proposed for the lexical syllabus are designed to facilitate the productive utilization of the selected vocabulary. They highlight the importance of teaching vocabulary not only for passive use in listening and reading, but also for active use in speaking and writing. The focus on this dimension relies on both research and the needs analysis conducted prior to the planning of this syllabus, which indicate that the transition between the two cannot be taken for granted and that specific methodology should be applied to promote productive language usage.

Multi-word lexical items or “chunks” are recognized in the literature on corpus linguistics and by proponents of the Lexical Approach as a key factor contributing to successful language acquisition, especially its productive aspects. Corpus linguistics provides the statistical basis for the claim of chunk density in both oral and written language, while the Lexical Approach advocates describe the important contribution of chunks to the production of language, maintaining that this should lead to a paradigm shift in the way language instruction is perceived. Both approaches underscore the importance of deliberate instruction of functional, everyday lexical phrases, especially collocations and expressions, for the development of language use at any level. In keeping with this approach, the complementary lexical syllabus presents the assumed adequate collocational information for most of the items on both lists compiled for junior high school and suggests some methodological considerations relevant to promoting the transition from active to passive knowledge. It is assumed that due to time limitations, not all the collocational information can be explicitly taught in class. Hence, teachers are advised to choose from the syllabus the most suitable vocabulary phrases for their classes according to level, and to constantly aim at increasing their students’ collocational competence, based on research findings that vocabulary acquisition is incremental in its nature.

The importance of analyzing students’ needs before applying any lexical syllabus strongly emerges from the process of the planning and designing of this syllabus. The syllabus was designed based on the needs of students in a specific school, and, therefore, will require many revisions when adapted to other schools or if the needs of the students in that specific school change. Furthermore, in the future, an evaluation, another most important component of any curriculum, must be carried out to assess the efficacy of the experimental lexical syllabus. This is particularly important in light of the fact that this syllabus focuses on phrasal vocabulary and not only on isolated words as has been the case so far and research to indicate the effectiveness of the Lexical Approach is lacking. The evaluation can be an ongoing process, with alterations and improvements occurring during instruction; teachers are strongly encouraged to
Contribute their insightful comments and suggestions. Alternately, it would also be very interesting to carry out a more structured evaluation at the specific school for which this syllabus was planned or at any school applying it. A practical approach to such an evaluation is offered in the last section of the proposed syllabus.

Chemda Benisty has been an EFL teacher for the past 28 years. She recently completed her M.Ed. in TEFL. The final paper for which she compiled the lexical syllabus was inspired by courses taken in the program especially with Dr. Elisheva Barkon who also supervised the writing of the paper.

CYCLES OF RECYCLING
Simple but effective activities for recycling lexis

Leo Selivan (leo.selivan@britishcouncil.org.il)

Repeated exposures

While researchers do not agree whether encountering words in context or engaging in decontextualized practice is more conducive to learning new vocabulary, most assert that multiple encounters with the word are necessary. Also, there is no agreement in the literature on how many encounters with a lexical item are necessary in order for the learner to retain it, with numbers varying between 6 and 16. Despite this, most would agree that frequent recycling is essential to effective vocabulary learning.

Unfortunately, coursebooks do not provide enough repeated encounters with lexical items. While learners may be exposed to the same lexis within a particular unit, few coursebooks ensure that the same lexis is recycled across the textbook, i.e. over a series of units. It is therefore our responsibility as teachers to ensure lexical items our students encounter are recycled in subsequent lessons and regularly revised.

Lexis vs vocabulary

The word “lexis” is used here in contrast to the word “vocabulary” to emphasise the fact that we talk about collocations and lexical chunks as opposed to individual words. There are many ways to revise individual words: students can be given cards with words and cards with definitions and asked to match them or fill the gaps with the missing words. However teaching collocations and chunks requires slightly different techniques.

Some simple suggestions given below will help you with recycling and revising lexis studied in class. Most of the activities presented here do not require much prep time and can themselves be reused and recycled in subsequent lessons (albeit with minor modifications) to save your time.

For a more theoretical discussion of the issue of recycling, see Leo’s article Recycling lexis: quality or quantity? on the British Council website for teachers: www.teachingenglish.org.uk

Activity 1 – Find your pair

Distribute the collocation cards randomly. Ask your students to stand up and mingle and find their partner. Tell them to sit together with their new partner. Go over the answers or display them on the board if necessary.

NB: I normally use multiple dots to indicate whether the word is first in the pair or second especially if you include noun + noun combinations (like designer boutique where designer act as an adjective) or if you include -ing words which can be either adjectives or nouns e.g. (sleeping bag or poor sleeping)

| sharp… | …eye |
| quick… | …mind |
| famous… | …painting |
| deadly… | …weapon |
| scientific… | …discovery |
| visual… | …image |
| designer… | …boutique |
| expensive… | …restaurant |
| tourist… | …attraction |
| industrial… | …city |
| international… | …journal |
| highest… | …award |

CYCLE 1 – Collocation pairs

This is an easy-to-prepare and engaging activity which provides decontextualised practice of the collocations students have come across. It can be used as a post-reading activity or as a revision activity to consolidate the language covered in previous lessons.

You can type it up on Word or simply write with markers or felt-tip pens on cut-up pieces of paper.
All the collocations above were taken from two texts in Unit 1 of *Mind Matters*, published by ECB. As a follow up, you can ask students to sort these collocations into two groups. The first five collocations are from the text about Leonardo da Vinci and the last six appear in the text about the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao. Ask your students to recall why they were used and what they refer to. Students can look back at the texts to see if they were correct. “Visual image” was added as a distractor but can be easily related to either article.

**Activity 2 – Collocation swap**

For this activity you will need the same number of collocations as students in the class which means it can be used to consolidate lexis from several topics covered in class. Verb + noun collocations below appear in another unit in the same textbook.

|raise… | … money |
mak… | … a difference |
solv… | … a problem |
pay off… | … your debts |
join… | … an organization |
have… | … access (to) |
financ… | … a new project |
clean up… | … the town |
get… | … involved |
go… | … shopping |
donate… | … money to charity |
achiev… | … a goal |

Give each student one first part and one second part. Ask them to look at their cards and see if they match. If they do, retrieve the ones that match and redistribute as necessary. Ask your students to stand up and find the nouns (second half) for the adjectives or verbs (first half) they have and give the nouns to other students that need them to complete their collocations. Once they have found the second half and got rid of the first they can sit down. Early finishers can be asked to write a sentence. The activity continues until everyone has found their matches and sat down with them.

**Activity 3 – Matching & Sorting**

You will need all the previous lists (20-25 collocations). Make a few sets and cut them up. Give each group of 5-6 students an envelope with the collocation cards. However, this time after matching them they have to sort them according to different criteria:

- Grammatically: adjective + noun / verb + noun collocations
- Thematically: categorise them according to topics
- Collocations with positive vs negative connotation
- Any other another categorizing principle learners can come up with

**Activity 4 – Recall the collocation**

In a subsequent lesson remove the parts of collocations and ask students to recall what the other half is. For example:

| solve… | a problem |
pay off… | your debts |
donate… | money to charity |
achieve… | a goal |
deadly… | weapon |
designer… | boutique |
clean up… | the town |
join… | an organisation |
have… | access (to) |
go… | shopping |
raise… | money |
make… | a difference |

As you can see, either part can be removed. But bear in mind that delexical verbs such as make, do, get etc have a large number of possible collocates. Therefore stronger collocations (e.g. achieve a goal, solve a problem or deadly weapon) would work better for this activity.

**CYCLE 2 – Collocation forks**

If the previous cycle used collocations that students have come across, this one involves expanding each collocation a little. To help learners fully understand and use new words, it is useful to provide learners their common collocates. This is particularly important with partially learnt vocabulary.

Recording collocations

“Collocation fork” is a useful way of recording collocations when you want to elaborate on possible uses of a word. Draw it on the board and make sure students copy it into their vocabulary notebooks. Slowly they will get used to this recording format. For example, this is the word fork expanding the word “join”:
If you want to provide translations, remind your students that they have to translate the whole expression, rather than the word “join”. This will make them aware that words do not correspond on word-for-word basis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hebrew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>an organization</td>
<td>לאירגון</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>join</td>
<td>להשתתף</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the army</td>
<td>להתיגייס</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the club</td>
<td>לעשות מנוי</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obviously if you want to elaborate on a noun, a reverse fork should be used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hebrew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>take</td>
<td>לשלם חשבון</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pass</td>
<td>לשים לב</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fail</td>
<td>הפשע</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You can also use collocation forks to highlight impossible collocations, i.e. common learner mistakes which, for instance, can be a result of negative linguistic transfer:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hebrew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>take</td>
<td>לשלם חשבון</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pass (an) exam</td>
<td>לשים לב</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fail</td>
<td>הפשע</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity 1 – Make up a story

For example: I took my final exam last week but I failed. Hopefully I’ll pass next time.

This works well if the key word is a noun. See the list of other collocations that would lend themselves easily to this activity at the end of the article.

Otherwise, a good learner dictionary or online corpus (http://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/) is a good source of collocations.

Activity 2 – Guess the key word

What is the key word in these collocation forks?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hebrew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>an organization</td>
<td>לאירגון</td>
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<td>the army</td>
<td>להתיגייס</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the club</td>
<td>לעשות מנוי</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity 3 – Recall the collocations

At the end of the lesson, after you have collected a few word forks on the board, erase the key word and get your students to recall the collocations. You can give the first letter as a hint.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hebrew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>join (a / the)</td>
<td>a …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The idea here is to gradually move from pure recognition (passive knowledge) to actually producing correct collocations (active knowledge). At the beginning of the next lesson, write the key words on the board again and ask students to provide the collocations, this time without a hint.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hebrew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cover</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity 4 – Collocation race

Draw a few collocation forks on the board.

Divide the class into three teams. Each team should send their representative (“captain”) to the board. Supply each captain with a board marker of a different colour. Now each captain should fill one space in each fork with a correct collocation. Each team is allowed
to provide only one collocation for each fork so that by
the end of the activity each fork has three differently
coloured collocations. Each captain is of course allowed
to consult with his or her team. The team who finishes
first is the winner. However you have to go through the
collocations on the board and eliminate incorrect ones
before you announce the winner.

Alternatively, this activity can be done as a relay race.
The first member of each team takes a marker, races
to the board, writes one collocation and races back to
hand the marker to another member of their team. Again,
go through the collocations before you decide on the
winner.

Look for two more “cycles of recycling” in the next
edition of the Forum.

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### Recommended resource books

- Jimmie Hill & Michael Lewis (1997). The LTP
dictionary of selected collocations Hove: LTP
- Michael McCarthy & Felicity O’Dell (2005). English
collocations in use. Cambridge: CUP

### Further reading:

- Michael Lewis (1997). Implementing the lexical
approach. Hove: LTP
- Michael Lewis (2000). Teaching collocation. Hove:
LTP

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He writes for the Teaching English website and regularly
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### VERB + NOUN COLLOCATION FORKS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>save</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spend</td>
<td>money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>waste</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cause</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deal with</td>
<td>(a) problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solve</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td>advice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>follow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keep</td>
<td>(a) promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go on</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arrange</td>
<td>(a) trip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cancel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>return from</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set up</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run</td>
<td>(a) business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take over</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learn from</td>
<td>(a) mistake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>jail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hand in</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keep</td>
<td>(a) promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lose</td>
<td>(a) job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apply for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“Why is something expressed in English the way it is?” we are often asked in class. “That’s the way we say it,” we often tend to reply. As it turns out, there is a strong statistical preference to that statement which can be clearly demonstrated by the use of corpus data.

A corpus is a collection of electronic texts (written, spoken or a mix of both) stored on the computer. The main advantage of looking up a query in a corpus is that it provides many examples of the search item in its original context. In combination with a dictionary which provides lexical meanings, a corpus is a valuable tool to analyze word or phrase occurrences and compile word frequency lists.

How do we decide which vocabulary to teach in class? Which words should be included in an advanced level syllabus? Do we consult the vocabulary frequency lists or just go with our intuition? Do the textbooks we use in class do the job for us – that is, do the authors gather any actual evidence of vocabulary use prior to constructing dialogues, readings and exercises on various language points?

Until recently, word lists were derived from intuition or written text sources only. Nowadays, corpus evidence is used to assess how many words learners need to know to understand typical, non-specialist texts. Based on a 10 million-word corpus of spoken and written English (CANCODE and CIC), approximately 83% of these words are represented by just 2,000 vocabulary items, 87% by about 4,000 items, 92% by 6,000 items, 95% by 8,000 items – with each consecutive band progressively covering a smaller proportion of all of the words in the corpus (O’Keeffe, A., McCarthy M., Carter, R., 2007). The first 2,000 words roughly correspond to the basic level target vocabulary, growing to 4,000 words for low-intermediate, 5-6,000 for high-intermediate and 9-10,000 for advanced.

Looking at the corpus data above, two questions come to mind: what vocabulary constitutes each of the frequency bands and does the vocabulary of 9,000+ items mean that learners have reached the advanced level of learning English?

Corpus evidence shows that the first 2,000 lexical items, which are the high-frequency core items in our lexicon, are largely represented by language chunks. What’s more, some of the language chunks are more frequent than the single-word vocabulary. For example: the chunk ‘in terms of’ is more frequent than the word ‘fun’ and the chunk ‘you know what I mean’ is more frequent than the word ‘expensive’ (O’Keeffe, A., McCarthy M., Carter, R., 2007).

In the 6,000-10,000 frequency bands, which correspond to intermediate and advanced levels, the chunks become idiomatic, making it challenging for the students to understand their opaque meanings. The paradox here is that although their frequency is low, they are salient at this level and appear as more frequent than any other single words. In addition, at the advanced level the same word can have different frequencies based on its extended meaning. Compare:

chair (as a furniture piece), learned at a basic level
chair (as a person in charge of a meeting), learned at an advanced level

High-frequency meanings at the basic level are free from metaphorical meanings, nuances and subtleties, yet at the advanced level students have to come to terms with extended meanings, idiomatic knowledge and language chunks often intertwined with cultural connotations.

Below are some examples that illustrate why language chunks, mainly represented by collocations, phrasal verbs and idioms, are worth paying attention to at any level, but especially at advanced stages of instruction.

1. Language chunks create unique partnerships in English.
   There is a ‘car accident’ or a ‘car crash’ but only a ‘plane crash’ (no *plane accident) and ‘shipwreck’ (no *ship accident).

2. Language chunks make English more concise and precise.
   ‘Going to different stores to compare prices’ as some students may say is wordier than just ‘shop around’.

3. Language chunks increase comprehension and help anticipate what comes next.
   If you hear someone say ‘it went in one ear’, you will be mentally able to complete the phrase in your mind even before the speaker finishes the other part of the phrase ‘...and out the other’. Knowing language chunks helps to focus on the next part of conversation without staying behind.

4. Language chunks help reinforce grammatical structures without going into grammatical explanations.
If students are frequently exposed to the phrase ‘would you mind _____ing?’ they will be able to retain this structure without learning that the verb ‘mind’ is followed by a gerund.

5. Language chunks show how thoughts, ideas and emotions are expressed in English.

We ‘break ice’ before we start a presentation and do ‘small talk’ before we get down to business. This is a cultural aspect of the English-speaking community and that knowledge is crucial for becoming an equal discourse participant.

6. Language chunks make speakers feel belonging, connected and socially included.

Students may understand each of the words below separately, but not as one unit and may feel frustrated as a result:

- open house (Why is the house open?)
- garage sale (Is the garage for sale?)
- pop quiz (What happened to the quiz?)
- baby shower (Do babies shower?)
- pick-your-own farm (Can you pick a farm?)

And more: there are word combinations peculiar to speakers of particular English speaking communities that students are unaware of.

Canadian residents, for example, use word combinations such as ‘a green bin’ (a bin where kitchen scraps are recycled), a snowbird (someone who travels to warmer climates for the duration of winter, and yes, compound words can be considered collocations) and ‘trail mix’ (a snack food of dried fruit and nuts often taken along on hikes). There are Kleenex tissues, Ziploc bags, stop-all-way signs and HOV (high-occupancy vehicle) lanes that may exist under different names (or not exist at all) in other English speaking communities.

Implications for Teaching

This is what teachers can do to facilitate advanced vocabulary learning in class:

1. Help notice and record language in chunks (give a ride/right-of-way/notice/it some thought). Students may passively understand this language, however, if their attention is not brought to these constructions in a focused way, they will have a harder time reproducing them at a later stage.

2. Encourage lexical, not structural comparison between L1 and L2. For example, a three word chunk in English will not necessarily be translated in three words in the students’ first language.

3. Present vocabulary thematically, based on phrase meanings – not key words. For example, ‘a couch potato’ should not be presented as a food idiom, but rather as one from the lazy/hardworking category.

4. Help explore collocational fields and phrase boundaries. For example, how is cut, different from cut out, trim, mow, clip, snip?

5. Teach through texts (stories, passages rather than just sentences).

6. Teach in both breadth and depth. Not only more, but deeper focusing on collocations, sub-senses, metaphors, connotations.

7. Incorporate cultural knowledge into vocabulary instruction. Discuss people’s behavior, values, attitudes; make students familiar with prominent people of the English speaking community in arts, literature, politics; talk about holidays and traditions).

Our linguistic output consists of repeated multi-word units rather than just single words. Native speakers of English repeatedly make the same word choices when involved in similar social activities and it is a teacher’s task to consistently bring these wide-spread and frequent combinations to students’ attention. In addition to linguistic competence, cultural awareness is another prerequisite for reaching advanced levels of English.

References


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When I made aliyah I was very idealistic but became even more idealistic as I became more familiar with schools here in Israel. I followed that up with an article in the Jerusalem Post: http://www.jpost.com/Home/Article.aspx?id=184970

Here is an expansion of these ideas.

Most teachers decide to teach out of their love of children. It’s not for the money because there isn’t any. But they are told, in a variety of ways, that children are the enemy. In many schools in Israel they are warned that they are not allowed to be nice. Teachers have been threatened with being fired or removed for being too nice. Have you ever said after a doctor’s visit: “What a terrible pediatrician. He was so nice”? Have you refused to tip a nice food server?

It’s more than simply a problem with false opposites. Some might say the opposite of nice is hard-nosed or tough. It’s a problem with faulty attitudes and ignorance of the way children learn. The actual opposite of nice is mean. Do we really want students to learn by daily exposing them to mean role models? What can Israel afford least: a student who is poor at algebra or speaking English, or a student who solves social problems by being mean? Being hard-nosed is great for fighting wars. Do we really want to be at war with our children? Nice or not nice is irrelevant. What matters is effectiveness.

It gets worse.

When teachers try to implement successful, state of the art, behavior-centered solutions, they continually hear, “That won’t work in Israel.” This attitude is both demeaning and dangerous. Educators who believe this rubbish think that Israeli students are inferior and unable to solve problems as intelligently and responsibly as other students throughout the world. Effective educators should believe that our students are among the best, not the worst. Moreover, this attitude is degrading to teachers, implying they do not have the skill or ability to use effective techniques.

Punishments satiate, meaning the more they are used to correct misbehavior, the more stringent they must become. For example, if a student receives a one-day suspension, after a while, it is no longer a deterrent. If the suspension is increased to three days to really teach the child a lesson, soon that no longer works as the child becomes used to it. Eventually, every decision becomes a power struggle as the child tries to prove he cannot be controlled and the school digs in and decides that being nice doesn’t work. Poor techniques lead to irresponsible policies. And around we go.

The answer lies in building hope

The key to inspiring learning is to create a hopeful attitude in students where hope is in short supply. It is difficult to generate hopefulness when the culture of accepting even honorizing failure flourishes among the least motivated. Students who do well are castigated and rejected by many of their peers for doing well.

Hope is the foundation upon which motivation is built. Hope is the belief that things can get better. In schools, hope requires two beliefs: 1) That life can improve. It can be better for students and better than it is for their parents; and 2) That school, and success in school, can lead to an improved life. The opposite of hope is cynicism, the belief that things are bad and will stay that way. The first step in creating hope is to remove cynicism and, especially, cynical teachers from school.

No child deserves a cynical teacher. However, they are far too common in too many Israeli schools. They are the teachers who have given up. They are not bad people; they just do not belong near children. When I taught student teachers at San Francisco State University, I told my students that they would fail if they spent more than one day talking to a cynical teacher. It was an idle threat with no hope of enforcement, but it made the point.

I recall making a major presentation in Chicago to several hundred teachers. One man in the back of a very large room asked at the beginning of my talk, “What is professionalism?” I gave a long-winded, jargon filled answer, but he interrupted, “No, no,” he said, “I mean is it professional to make me come to this useless, stupid presentation?” Recognizing the cynicism in his voice, I answered, “No, it is not professional to force you to be here, but great teachers know how to learn in any situation, even this one; and because there is a chance you might learn something to help children learn, I’m glad you’re here.” He left soon thereafter. We generate hope by being hopeful ourselves. It is what separates the good teachers from the great. All teachers can fight cynicism in their school by confronting it, reducing it and recognizing their periods of frustration and not letting it fester. Here three practical strategies that I have seen to be effective in accomplishing these goals:

1. When you hear a teacher make a cynical remark say something in a gentle way, like, “That almost sounded cynical. You might give others the wrong idea about you, because everyone hates cynicism. Maybe you
Dealing with Difficulties

2. Approach a teacher you believe to be cynical and say, “I have a problem (refer to how to teach a particular lesson or an issue with a particular student) and you are so good with this type of problem. Can you help me?” It is hard to remain cynical when you help others.

3. Remember why we became educators and why we stay educators. We work to make a living; hopefully we teach for different reasons. We don’t do it to make a lot of money. We don’t do it for prestige, no one in the community says, “Look, there’s a teacher, let’s get her autograph.” We don’t do it for the power to control our own lives, not with all the federal, state and local regulations we must follow even when we know they hurt learning. The only reason that makes sense is that we care about improving the lives of children.

It is often hard to remember this, especially when confronted by the need to pay attention to such distractions as rubrics, curriculum alignment, unreasonable standards, large classes, angry parents, to name but a few. But remember it we must. Otherwise we forget the most important two principles of teaching:

1. It doesn’t matter what we teach. It only matters what they learn.

2. School is not only for good kids; it is for all kids.

Four Keys to Building Hope

Building hope in students who do not want to learn begins with four main keys:

1. Believing in them

2. Genuinely caring about them

3. Refusing to give up on them no matter how hard they try to make us quit.

4. Stop thinking, “What difference can I make?” and start making a difference. Teachers have the power to change lives. Teachers changed mine and I’m sure a teacher might have changed yours.

Believing in students is very powerful. Years ago, I did an unscientific survey of students that schools felt were their most hopeless students. I visited several campuses around the U.S. and asked students what qualities made their favorite teachers so good. “They believe in me” was among the top answers given. Believing in students means that you believe they can succeed not only in school but more importantly, also in life.

Accomplishment

Another way to look at hope is through the lens of accomplishment. Accomplishment gives the student hope for success. Knowing that I can do something because I’ve done it before gives me hope and belief in myself that I can do something similar, even if more difficult. I was confident that I could withstand a knee replacement because I had already gone through a hip replacement years earlier. A student who has mastered addition can be confident he can master division. In many schools the emphasis on fear of failure or acceptance of failure leads to a lack of confidence in future endeavors. This leads to a sense of hopelessness.

Accomplishment is a great avenue to confidence, but not all accomplishment has the same value in creating hope. The main feature in determining the value of an accomplishment is the reason the activity was accomplished. There are several reasons for success that reduce hope. For example, if a student is successful because they cheated, or the task was too simple, or they just got lucky, or they had a lot of help. These reasons would surely not build a hopeful attitude.

The key is not to make learning tasks too easy. If students succeed on a task that is clearly too simple, there is no pride for success. If they fail, then they are really bad. Make the task hard enough so that effort is determiner of success. Make it hard enough to generate pride when accomplished, but no sense of failure when not achieved.

Genuinely caring about them

Students are very adept at building walls of protection; often from their homes, environmental and social dangers, and school failure. These walls can interfere with both social and academic learning. When that happens, we need to do something to find openings in the walls, without tearing them down. The protection the walls offer is often necessary to survive in their world. If we are to get through to them in meaningful ways, they need to know that we genuinely care about them. People do not hurt those who they care about; even guarded children know that. Look at the ways that you know that people care about you. Your list most likely includes:
Dealing with Difficulties

- They really listen to you
- They do not judge you
- They spend time with you
- They do nice things for you without being asked
- They remember important events
- They tell you when you are stupid

These and the other items on your list will work for your students. Remember, it is not so much what you tell them as much as what you do to show caring. Many students require time to accept your caring attitude as genuine. They have been burned before and may even test your resolve (see below). This is especially true of students who have been abused, have lived in multiple foster homes or live with grandparents because their real parents can’t or won’t be responsible enough to raise them.

Refusing to give upon them no matter how hard they try to make us quit

Many troubled youths find a comfort zone when adults give up on them. They no longer face expectations for success, improved behavior, doing work or trying harder. Some of these students will not bother us in class if we just leave them alone. When confronted by teachers who refuse to accept leaving them alone, they try very hard to make us give up on them. They succeed far too often, because they become unlikable and unreachable. These are the students who really need us NOT to give up on them.

Try saying things like, “No matter how hard you try to get me to give up on you, it will never happen. I refuse to give in, and I’m more stubborn than you are. There will be consequences for misbehavior, but I’ll be rooting for you all the way.” If you say this, do not ever give up. The last thing students like these need is another betrayal.

Why not help each of your students find a “comfort song?” It will make a great class activity over a long period of time to hear one or two a week and have the student explain why that song gives them comfort. Build a “comfort library” in your classroom with student designed art, created by them, including posters, songs, sayings or stories. Then when things get tense either academically or behaviorally, ask the student or students to take a break and listen to their song or attend to something else from the library, before going back to try to solve the problem. Suggest times or brainstorm with the class how “comfort art” can help at home.

Stop thinking, “What difference can I make?” and start making a difference

I’m frequently asked, “I only have the student for X amount of time a day. What difference can I make? My answer is, “X amount of time is better than nothing. Every good hour is one less bad one. Maybe your hour is the only hour when the student can feel appreciated, successful or that someone believes in him.”

We never know how much difference we make with students. Have you ever gone to war with a student for a year, one who drove you crazy? Then a year or two later that same student visits you and says that you were his favorite teacher. It happens all the time. We became teachers to change students’ lives for the better. So many urban kids need better lives. Let’s do what we can.

Dr. Curwin is a professor of education at David Yellin College, frequent speaker at ETAI and the author of 20 books on motivation, discipline and student behavior.

"I would like to join all those who have written in to the list to sing the praises of the conference last week. Kol haKavod to the conveners, the committee, the volunteers, and the boys in red from Himmelfarb, who all did so much to make the conference a success. Everything went smoothly. The presentations were excellent – it was sometimes hard to choose which sessions to go to. All in all, an international conference at an international standard.

The only cloud on the horizon was the fact that out of the *thousands* of English teachers in the country, more teachers did not come to the conference. Why is that always the case? There is nothing like an ETAI conference – so much to learn, so many new ideas to try out with your classes after the vacations, ideas to share, old friends to see, and new friends to meet. I have never been to a conference without feeling inspired – and let’s face it, who among us doesn’t need a bit of inspiration now and then?"

*Tessa Shrem, Israel*
Dealing with Difficulties

How to Motivate Language Learners

Zoltán Dörnyei (Zoltan.Dorneyi@nottingham.ac.uk)

Three Principles of Motivating Language Learners

Principle 1: There is much more to motivational strategies than offering rewards and punishment.

The ‘carrot and stick’ approach may work in the short run but rarely does it lead to real long-term commitment.

Principle 2: Generating student motivation is not enough in itself – it also has to be maintained and protected.

Unless motivation is actively maintained and protected during the lengthy process of L2 learning, the natural human tendency to lose sight of the goal, to get tired of or bored with an activity and to give way to attractive distractions will make the initial motivation gradually peter out.

Principle 3: It is the quality and not the quantity of the motivational strategies we use that counts.

A few well-chosen strategies that suit both us and our learners may be sufficient to create a positive motivational climate in the classroom. Indeed, some of the most motivating teachers often rely on only a handful of techniques!

10 Useful Motivational Strategies

1. Whetting the Students’ Appetite: The key issue in generating interest in learning is to arouse the learners’ curiosity and attention, and to create an attractive image for the L2 course.

2. Increasing the Learners’ Expectation of Success: We do things best if we believe we can succeed.

3. Making the Teaching Materials Relevant to the Learners: Find out what your students’ goals are and what topics they want to learn about, and then build these into your curriculum as much as possible.

4. Breaking the Monotony of Learning: Make sure we don’t serve exactly the same meal every day.

5. Making the Learning Tasks More Interesting: Tasks that offer some challenge contain interesting topics or include novel, intriguing, exotic, and humorous or fantasy elements are always welcomed by learners.

6. Increasing the Learners’ Self-confidence: Two key aspects of confidence building are providing regular encouragement and reducing language anxiety.

7. Allowing Learners to Maintain a Positive Social Image: Don’t forget that for most school children the main social arena in life is their school and their most important reference group is their peers.

8. Creating Learner Autonomy: Students are more motivated to pursue tasks of which they feel some sort of ‘ownership’.

9. Increasing Learner Satisfaction: Take time to celebrate any victory.

10. Offering Grades in a Motivational Manner: Make sure that grades also reflect effort and improvement, and not just objective levels of achievement.

A Visionary Motivational Programme

A novel avenue for motivating learners is to create in them an attractive vision of their future language-using self. This motivational programme consists of six components:

- Creating the Vision: The first step in a motivational intervention that follows the self approach is to help learners to construct their ‘ideal language self’ – that is, to create a language-related personal vision. The term ‘constructing’ the ideal language self is, in fact, not entirely accurate because it is highly unlikely that any motivational intervention will lead a student to generate an ideal self out of nothing – the realistic process is more likely to involve awareness raising and guided selection from the multiple aspirations, dreams, desires, etc. that the student has already entertained in the past, while also presenting some powerful role models to illustrate potential future selves.

- Strengthening the Vision: Methods of imagery enhancement have been explored in several areas of psychological, educational and sport research in the past, and the techniques of creative or guided imagery can be utilized to promote ideal language self images.

- Substantiating the Vision: Effective visions share a mixture of imagination and reality and therefore in order to go beyond mere fantasizing, learners need to anchor their future self guides in a sense of realistic expectations. This substantiating process requires honest and down-to-earth reality checks as well as considering any potential obstacles and difficulties that might stand in the way of realising the vision.

- Operationalising the Vision: Future self guides need to come as part of a ‘package’ consisting of an imagery component and a repertoire of appropriate plans, scripts and specific learning strategies. This is clearly an area where L2 motivation research and
Dealing with Difficulties

language teaching methodology overlap.

- **Keeping the vision alive:** ‘Warmers’ and other classroom activities can all be turned into effective ways of reminding students of their vision and thus keep the enthusiasts going and the less-than-enthusiasts thinking.

- **Counterbalancing the vision:** We do something because we want to do it and also because not doing it would lead to undesired results. Regular reminders of the limitations of not knowing foreign languages as well as highlighting the duties and obligations the learners have committed themselves to can help to counterbalance the vision with a feared self.

### Bibliography


I join the many other conference participants in congratulating the organizers on a superb conference. I loved every minute (I attended from Monday evening till Thursday afternoon).

... I attended several excellent sessions, touched based with some old friends, and generally had a wonderful time. I filled in the online feedback sheets, and urge others to do so as well. This is really important for both organizers and presenters.

Orly Sela, Israel
Dealing with Difficulties

Memory. Why can’t my student spell this word? Why has this student written it differently in three places on the same page? HELP! What can we do to help this erratic speller? We can start to help by identifying the pattern of errors but also the student’s strengths.

Before you read on, do as we did in the presentation and try some Brain Gym®. This will centre you and in turn help your students’ focus. For help go to: http://esl.about.com/od/englishlessonplans/a/braingym.htm.

Now let’s see if there is only one way of remembering ...

Look at these numbers for a moment — then without writing them down, repeat them.

261293124512
Did you remember this by chunking the numbers 26 93 45 with 12 between?
Or
Did you say it with rhythm? 2612 9312 4512
054789123
Did you remember this as an Israeli mobile phone number? + 789 123
Or
Mobile phone 7 + sequence, 1 + sequence
3106497
Did you remember by chunking? 310 64 97

Or

By the pattern on a keyboard

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
* 0 *

405625566056

Is this remembered more easily because 56 is bold?
Or

By remembering 40, 25, 60, as significant anniversaries?

Which of these shapes represents the word ‘Israel’?

a. ||||| b. ||||| i c. |111|

Did you identify c. because first and last shape are tall as in the first and final letter of Israel?

So we remember through:

■ Visual cues:
  chunking, colour, shape
■ Audio cues:
  rhythm, sound, pattern
■ Kinaesthetic cues:
  movement and feel
■ Association

The conference was superb from start to finish. Personally it was the best I’ve been to (and I’ve been to many ...). The large variety of subjects covered by excellent speakers and the real hands-on practical tips, gave us all much food for thought and ideas to put into practice.

It was great, as usual, meeting old friends and new (and to enjoy once again the luxury of the Ramada!) — and thanks to Eric Cohen and UPP for ensuring that it wasn’t just our appetite for knowledge that was catered to.

It all seemed to go off without a hitch, almost no changes / cancellations. A special thanks to Susan’s ‘lads in red’ who did an amazing job of taking care of all the technical problems. They appeared the minute they were called, always with a smile even when blamed for something totally out of their control, actually knew what they were doing and didn’t leave until everything was up and running again!

Thanks to everyone involved.

Ann Goldberg, Israel
The word memory of ESOL learners can be sorted into 6 categories as follows:

| A | The word has been heard and written as if spoken (phonetically spelt) with an acceptable (although incorrect) English combination of letters |
|   | • husvand – husband (Urdu speaker) |

| B | The student can see the word but confuses letter order – reverses ‘no’ for on |

| C | The student can ‘almost’ see the word and ‘almost’ hear the word but there is a lack of awareness of spelling rules/acceptable letter combination |
|   | • dogter for daughter; gaet for gate |
|   | • confusion in vowel sounds ‘then’ for ‘than’ |

| D | Sounds are misheard, missing or unsequenced. |
|   | shpash__ for special expense__ for expensive |

| E | Motor: handwriting problems, repetition, telescoping: |
|   | rember, or rememember |
|   | Substituting one word for another |
|   | home for house |
|   | Omitting letters unintentionally |

| F | L1 Interference: |
|   | Pronunciation interference |
|   | p/b confusion for Arabic speakers; |
|   | v/w/b confusion for Urdu speakers |
|   | an inability to put consonant cluster /sp/ together in initial position for Arabic speakers i.e. sapeshel for special |
|   | Spelling Interference |
|   | • motha (mother), fatha (father) for Italian speakers |

(Adapted from C.Klein, 2003 Diagnosing Dyslexia)

To identify a clear pattern of errors 26 mistakes are needed (dictation in ‘Dyslexia and the Bilingual Learner.’)

Here are some errors made by students. Cover the right hand column and try to categorise them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STUDENT</th>
<th>SCRIPT</th>
<th>ERROR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J Urdu speaker</td>
<td>daughter children was husband bus neighbour</td>
<td>dogter chadron vas huvand vas naver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K Arabic speaker</td>
<td>daughter was neighbours always both</td>
<td>gotr/doth/dotr wathe nebarthe olweth/alwys/alwa poss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z Urdu speaker</td>
<td>daughter airport expensive special neighbour</td>
<td>Correct! ariepor expense shpash nibegher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dealing with Difficulties

C* Over compensation. For ‘the car’ he said “z car”. He learnt to write ‘the car’ but when he said “was” he heard ‘wa/z/’ and therefore wrote ‘wathe’; neighbour/z/ became nebarthe.

Further information also gained from a personal history and other diagnostic assessments.

How can we help?

We are going to show the students a ‘new’ way to learn, ‘a new’ route to go down by using their strengths and developing an Individual Spelling Programme – a maximum of 10 new words per week taken from errors in free writing. These are to be practised for seven days using LOOK SAY COVER WRITE CHECK. Then these words will be given in a dictation to check for automaticity and review previous words. Here are some useful aids:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technology</th>
<th>Audio</th>
<th>Visual</th>
<th>Motor</th>
<th>L1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Chunking</td>
<td>Cursive writing</td>
<td>Awareness of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processor</td>
<td>Rhythm</td>
<td>Colour</td>
<td>Touch typing</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rhyme</td>
<td>Pattern</td>
<td>Wall writing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Stress</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Song</td>
<td>Plastic Letters</td>
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<td>Clay</td>
<td>Brain Gym®</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Clay</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Feel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These techniques will give the student some positive feedback on which to build memory. Memory can be helped!

Bibliography

Dyslexia Action: www.dyslexiaaction.org.uk


Kol Hakavod to Marna and to the ETAI committee for another superb conference! Well Done! I know how hard it is to plan and arrange everything. There is no pleasing everybody (and no pleasing some people at all!!) I thought it was all fabulous! I did not even mind walking from one end of the hotel to another – good exercise!

Perhaps feedback forms would help for the future. People give ‘on the spot’ responses while it’s all still fresh.

Vivienne Tankus, Israel
Dyslexia is a specific learning difficulty which manifests itself in problems with reading, spelling and writing. This leads to problems in school such as copying from the board or overhead, missing out words when reading out loud, filtering what is heard and distinguishing between certain sounds. Many students also have problems with orientation and cannot judge distances. This means that often they are not sure where to start on a page when writing and they are unable to judge whether a word has enough space at the end of a line. Some are sensitive to light and their eyes become tired when they have to look at an overhead for any length of time or their books have white shiny paper.

However, it is important to remember that every student with dyslexia is an individual and will not have every problem mentioned. We shouldn’t forget that they also have strengths. They are often very creative and full of interesting ideas. They also see problems from different angles which is good for team work and a useful skill for managers.

How can we help such students to achieve their potential?

**General tips**

The first thing we need to do is to motivate them. It’s amazing what a difference it can make when students are allowed to use different types of pens e.g. perfumed pens, gel pens, pens with funny figures on the top etc. I’ve seen students, who were very reluctant to write anything, suddenly become very eager to try.

Use positive feedback when commenting on work. For example, “This is much better. You’ve got 10 answers right!” is more motivating than, “You’ve got 5 answers wrong.” It also better to use a green or purple pen for marking. Red looks so aggressive.

Most students will need help with organising their notes and work. It is also helpful if they have a special notebook for writing down homework or notices.

A student who has hearing problems or cannot filter sound should sit at the front of the classroom and with one side by a wall. Try not to talk to the blackboard when writing. Some students need to see your lips.

If possible, give out the homework as a note. If you write it on the blackboard, allow enough time for copying.

When giving instructions, give them in the correct order e.g. Take a pencil. Read the question. Draw a circle around the right answer. Not: Draw a circle with a pencil around the right answer after you have read the question.

**Worksheets**

Worksheets should be written in Comic Sans font size 12 or 14 and if possible, use blue print on white paper or use coloured paper. Recycled paper is also better because it doesn’t have a glare and you can help your students with dyslexia and the environment at the same time!

Use clear headings, keep instructions short and clear and don’t put too much on one page.

**Sounds and letters**

Use ways used by elementary school teachers to teach letters. Give plenty of opportunity to feel and form the letters with materials such as pipe cleaners, string, modelling clay etc. Let the students draw in the sand, air or mud or even in shaving cream, ketchup or anything else that they can find.

Revise upper and lower case letters with a matching or memory game. Pairs are formed by matching an upper case letter with the corresponding lower case one.

**Learning vocabulary**

I have found it very useful to use a vocabulary box. This is a box with five compartments. New words are put in the first compartment. Five new words a day are enough. These are written on cards with the translation or a picture on the back. The student looks at the first word, spells it out, turns it over, writes it down from memory and then checks it. If it is correct, the word goes into the second compartment. If it is incorrect, it stays in the first compartment. The following day, the words in the second compartment are practised in the same way. If they are correct, they go into the third compartment. If not, they go back into the first compartment. Then five new words from the first compartment are practised. The words in the third compartment are practised three days later, those in the fourth one week later. Each time a word is right, it moves into the next compartment. If it is wrong, it moves one compartment back. It is motivating for the student to see the pile of cards in the last compartment growing.

This method can also be used for learning letters and phrases. If the student only needs to know the word orally, they can look at the picture or translation, say the word in English, turn the card over and check.
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Students can also make their own dictionary or poster of words that they find difficult to remember. Making pictures around the word aids memory. Don’t worry if you can’t think of a picture to illustrate a word, students are usually very creative in this area. It is useful to learn the words in sentences. If you are using the box described above, the student can say or write the word in a sentence. Many students love acting so let them act out the words, phrases or sentences to be learnt. Some find that bouncing on a trampoline or swinging on a swing helps. Make word games such as bingo, dominoes, memory or activity. Better still, get the students to make the games. They enjoy doing this and are learning at the same time.

Teach the use of a dictionary. Some children have problems remembering the alphabet so put it on the inside cover of their dictionary, exercise book or file or on their desk. Songs and rhymes also help students to remember vocabulary and are especially useful for learning the days of the weeks, months, seasons and numbers when students have difficulties with sequencing. Give them helpful memory tips. For example, necessary – when you go out, you need 1 coat and 2 shoes. Make a story. For example, if they forget to put the “y” on the end of “they” you can say, “The “y” is always trying to run away. You are the policeman and must always check that it is there.”

Grammar

I work a lot with colours because they seem to help students with dyslexia remember more easily. Colours can be used for the three different forms of verbs, modal verbs, key words for each tense (each tense has a different colour) and word order. Students with dyslexia often have a problem with sequencing, therefore they need to have lots of practice with word order. Give each part of the sentence a different colour. Then let the students make sentences and exchange words of the same colour to make new sentences. The students seem to remember the correct word order by remembering the order of the colours. If they have an exercise in their workbook where they have to put words in the correct order to make a sentence, (eats / at / Tom / breakfast / 7 o’clock) put the words onto cards and get the students to move them around to find the sentences. They enjoy doing this and it is also easier than looking at a jumble of words on a page.

When teaching irregular verbs, teach those that are similar at the same time, e.g. sell – sold – sold – told. If you have a big space where the students can move, let the students run to 4 points in the room and say a part of the verb at each point and the translation at the last point.

It is often difficult for students to remember to leave off the “ed” when asking questions in the past tense, so that they write: Did you played football yesterday? One simple way to help them remember is to get them to actually cut off the “ed”. The action of “cutting off” helps to fix the rule in their memory.

Writing

Students with dyslexia are usually very creative and ideas just tumble out of their heads. However, they have a problem with putting these ideas in order for an essay. First of all, get them to write down their ideas in order before writing. If possible, allow students to write on the computer because their work then looks tidier and it is legible.

Reading

For many students reading out loud is a horror, therefore ask for volunteers. Let students use coloured plastic overlays when reading because they cut out the glare. Encourage the use of books with CDs so that the student can read and hear the text at the same time or read the text yourself. You are a good example for pronunciation and you don’t have to go looking for a CD player!

Learning for exams

Students will need help in organising their learning and it is essential to check that they have all the notes that they need. If they have to learn a long text, get them to draw a picture for each paragraph. It is often easier to remember the sequence of pictures than a text.

Teach the students how to read exam questions accurately.

Tests and exams

As far as possible, cut down distractions to a minimum. Don’t wear extra bright colours or an interesting piece of jewellery. You would be surprised how easily a student’s mind can be diverted by this. If it helps the students, allow them to have a stress ball on the desk or a ball under the table. Listening comprehensions should be without background noise otherwise it is almost impossible for some students to filter out the spoken words.

You may find that students give “unusual” answers to a question or the “wrong” answer by multiple-choice
Dealing with Difficulties

questions. Since students with dyslexia sometimes think completely differently, it is always good to ask why they gave such an answer. For them, it is logical.

Conclusion

I hope that some of the above ideas are helpful in enabling you to motivate and encourage your students with dyslexia. To finish on a positive note, here are some people with dyslexia who have been successful in life: Agatha Christie, Jamie Oliver, Richard Rogers, Richard Branson, Tom Cruise, Jackie Stewart, William Hewlett, Anita Roddick, Dr. John Horner, Thomas Edson among others. Just think, maybe you have an Edison or Agatha Christie in your class and have the privilege of helping them to fulfill their potential!

Karen White is originally from England but has been a freelance EFL teacher in Austria for nearly twenty years. She teaches all ages, levels and types of English. She is also a trainer for students with dyslexia and is always trying to find better ways to help such students.

THE MODULE C BAGRUT EXAM AND THE WEAK LEARNER

Naomi Epstein (naomi.shema@gmail.com)

The term “weak learners” here refers to pupils who are preparing for the module C exam as part of the 3-point “Bagrut” examination and have had difficulties dealing with modules A and B. These pupils have limited vocabulary, limited general knowledge and often have difficulties studying independently and organizing their own study time.

To the teacher entrusted with the task of preparing these pupils for the module C exam, there appears to be a huge gap, more like an abyss, between where these pupils are compared to where they ought to be. Such a gap can’t be “filled” in the time available. Instead, I propose focusing on strategies that help the pupils “bridge” the gap and master some skills.

The most important skill that these pupils must acquire is answering questions with answers that are relevant to the type of question asked. At this stage there is no point in continuing to work on the language of instructions – the pupils recognize the instructions graphically even if they don’t remember what words such as “complete” or “circle” mean. If there is a blank line after only a few words the sentence must be completed. If there is “Yes/No” then they must circle the correct answer and copy the words that prove it. If it is a multiple-choice question they must locate the number of answers needed. Answering what is actually asked in the question is the critical issue.

In order to have the pupils actually focus on understanding the questions we must separate the questions from the texts which are difficult for them. There are a number of ways to do this:

1. Presenting questions about a few scenes from an appropriate film. Particularly suitable for working on “Wh” questions.
2. Presenting “Bagrut Type” questions about an interesting picture. For example, the question “Where could you find such a picture?” Many pupils tend to respond in a concrete manner: “I can’t find such a picture.” Pictures are also useful for practicing questions using common tricky phrases such as “the woman looks pleased”. Pupils tend to think that look only has one meaning and confuse “pleased” with “please.”
3. Questions related to very simple texts that are much easier than the texts in the coursebook, written about a topic the pupils know. This is important for highlighting the need for students to check what they doing. Consider the following example: The text is about our school and class. The question: “Do all pupils in our class come to school by bus?” Some pupils chose the answer “yes” even though they personally know some pupils who actually walk to school. They work as if the task of answering an unseen reading passage is unrelated to anything else they know about life.

In addition, the issue of pupils not cooperating with reviewing the mistakes on their tests and repeating the same mistakes over and over again is problematic. A strategy for using color coded feedback for exams was presented. Students must review and mark the points they lost for each question for different common mistakes and keep track of it on a chart. As the information for each exam is recorded on the same chart, the students can see the progress graphically.

Naomi Epstein teaches English to deaf and hard of hearing students at Yehud Comprehensive High-School and is the “Shema” national counselor for English for the hearing impaired. She has been in this field for over twenty years. She holds a B.A. in “Education of the Hearing Impaired”, a B.E.D in “Teaching EFL” and an M.A. in “Curriculum Development.” She is the author of “Apples and Zebras” and “The Book of Keys.”
MYTHS AND REALITIES OF ENGLISH ON THE INTERNET

David Crystal (davidcrystal1@googlemail.com)

The world of electronic communication presents an intriguing and challenging research domain. It hasn’t even got an agreed name yet. Computer-mediated communication was popular for a while, but this is now too narrow, in view of the emergence of devices which present text but which are not computer-mediated in the usual sense, such as mobile phones, Blackberries, satnavs (GPSs), and voice-interactive washing-machines. Electronically mediated communication (EMC) is an increasingly used term. Within this, there has been a particular focus on the language of the Internet in all its genres, such as email, chat, gaming, instant messaging, Web pages, blogging, texting, tweeting, and social networking.

EMC presents students and teachers of global English with new challenges and opportunities. Here are some of the challenges:

- There has never been a corpus of language data as large as this one. It now contains more written language than all the libraries in the world combined, and the time it takes for its informational content to double in size is already being measured in hours, as more parts of the world come online and voice-over-internet becomes routine.

  - Much of EMC is not easily accessible. There is of course no problem in finding and downloading data from the pages of the Web, within the various legal and commercial constraints imposed by website owners. But it is a different matter when dealing with such domains as emailing, chatrooms, and texting. People are notoriously reluctant to allow their private e-communications to be accessed by passing linguists. There are now some corpora of emails and chatroom interaction, but issues of reliability and representativeness have yet to be fully explored, and some domains, such as text-messaging, remain elusive. The research literature is characterized by a great deal of theoretical speculation but relatively few empirical studies.

- The diversity of EMC is already great and is becoming greater. The stylistic range of digitally mediated communication has to recognise not only internet texts, but also the vast outputs found in the various domains listed above. Each of these domains presents different communicative perspectives, properties, strategies, and expectations.

How do we incorporate such material into a teaching model which hitherto has been focused on traditional speech and writing? The first step is to develop an accurate understanding of the realities of EMC. ‘Realities’ is here opposed to ‘myths’. Because of its recency and the lack of empirical studies, mistaken beliefs about the linguistic character of EMC have become widespread. Any genre of Internet activity could be used by way of illustration but the best example is text-messaging, where a moral panic became universal, based on a series of misconceptions. The popular belief was (and for many, still is) that texting has evolved as a 21st-century phenomenon with a highly individualistic orthography, full of abbreviations, used by a young generation that doesn’t care about standards. People believe that the practice is fostering a decline in literacy and that its distinctive forms (‘textisms’) are being found in schoolwork and in examination scripts. All these beliefs are wrong. It isn’t just used by the young generation: the vast majority of texts circulating in cyberspace are among adults, and especially by and to institutions. Only a very tiny part of text messaging uses a distinctive orthography. The abbreviations are not a totally new phenomenon. Young people don’t use them in essays, nor in examination scripts. And the research is accumulating that text messaging helps rather than hinders literacy. Texting has indeed added a new dimension to language use, but its long-term impact on the already existing varieties of language is negligible.

What are the realities of Internet communication? Certainly, some features are novel. As a new medium of communication, it differs from traditional conversational speech and from writing. It differs from speech, for example, in that it lacks simultaneous feedback – a phenomenon which is critical to successful conversation – and it allows people to carry on several conversations at once, as happens routinely in chatrooms. It differs from writing in its dynamic dimension, through such effects as animation and framing, and the use of hypertext links. But when we examine its specific influence on individual languages, we find only a limited impact. In relation to English, we see a language which is largely the same as it was before the Internet arrived.

There are, of course, a few points of difference. As with any new variety of language we see a certain amount of new vocabulary but, by comparison with other varieties, it is not a great deal. There is very little sign of new grammatical construction, though some interesting morphological developments have been noted. Orthography is the main area of novelty, chiefly in punctuation, capitalization, and spelling. But the sum of the new features does not as yet amount to much – no
more than we find in other well-established varieties of English, such as broadcasting.

The chief impact of the Internet on English, as on any language, has been to extend the expressive richness of the language through the introduction of new varieties, motivated by the technological properties of the medium. The clearest cases are those varieties which are constrained by limited message size, such as texts and tweets. But even here it is difficult to generalize since as the strategy of their operation is still evolving, as illustrated by changes in tweet prompts. The recency of the Internet also means that there is a constantly changing user-base, which is altering stylistic expectations. Among the factors are the increasing average age of Internet users, the role of anonymous interaction, and the growth in the use of the medium by non-native speakers of English. New styles are emerging. One example is blogging, which illustrates a genre of continuous public text that is novel in its lack of copy-edited moderation. The whole concept of what counts as a ‘text’ is altering in the light of such interactive pages as Wikipedia and online forums. And with voice over the Internet becoming more routine, it is plain that, linguistically, ‘we ain’t seen nothin’ yet’.

In the meantime, we need to develop ways of managing the language we find on the Internet, especially when working with young learners, for whom electronically mediated communication is, and has always been, at the centre of their lives.

There are many ways in which the task of the teacher is assisted by the arrival of EMC.

- One of the early difficulties with teaching the new varieties of English emerging globally was access to authentic examples for reading and listening comprehension. This is now no longer a problem for reading, and is becoming easier for listening.
- EMC allows local groups of users to develop their own English-using forums, in which their cultural identity can be expressed.
- The motivation to communicate is hugely increased, especially for young learners. The anonymity of many EMC situations reduces student anxiety over making errors.
- A wide range of interactive situations is now available, several of which display a simpler style of language, because of such factors as the tempo of interaction or software processing limitations. This trend is likely to increase as EMC moves from computer to mobile phone.
- The convenience of EMC in such products as the iPhone and Kindle provides more opportunities for language practice, especially in reading, and for distance learning.
- The increasingly multilingual character of EMC offers a forum for endangered dialects and languages.

Further Reading


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Globally

1. We no longer have the luxury of being only language teachers. We need to teach strategies for understanding and participating in different discourse systems (cultures).

2. As learners needs for language and literacies (the knowledge and skills needed to navigate a discourse system) become more diverse and complex, specific purpose approaches to English instruction will increasingly be in demand – and that instruction will need to be more socially situated.

3. The West is not the best. We need to put an increase emphasis on strategies that students can use to learn about accepted, expected pedagogies where English is taught as a foreign language. Blended pedagogies that are built on repertoires of both local and international approaches will respond to local teacher and learner expectations well and can be effective and dynamic.

4. Since English is a world language, all English teachers in the world need to participate in shaping not only how we teach English, but also in how English as a Lingua Franca is perceived. This means attention to World Englishes, support for Non-native English Speaking Teachers, thinking of our students not only as “English Learners” but more as “English Users” (to borrow Vivian Cook’s term). Language curricula need to be based on local needs and resources, and as I suggested before, accepting the need to develop blended pedagogies.

In The States

1. In the U.S. TESOL is becoming a mature profession. There are fewer openings and higher credentials are required.

2. Conversely the general public, English language student and even institutional administrators don’t really understand what “TESOL” is and why a rigorous academic program is required to provide quality English language teaching. This requires an education effort so that we can obtain both the respect and compensation we deserve.

3. While making a continuing commitment to provide the best possible education we can to our English Language Learners and other minority students, we are also working to convince the general public and government officials that poverty and lack of access to resources and discrimination are the root causes for why minorities, including English Language Learners (ELLs), lag behind in education.

We continue to welcome international collaboration; I know from my own experience that you always teach me as least as much (if not more) than I teach you.

Reference


Brock Brady, Co-Director of TESOL MA, Portland State University; Expert, Curriculum Design, US Peace Corps http://www1.american.edu/lfs/faculty_brady.cfm, and is currently the president of TESOL, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. A Global Education Association.

OFRA INBAR, TIME TO MOVE ON: FROM THEME TO CLIL BASED APPROACHES

Nehama Edinger (needinger@gmail.com)

Introducing the idea of Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) with several concrete examples, Dr. Inbar showed how focusing on content rather than on language can increase the effectiveness of foreign language learning. In the cases presented by Dr. Inbar students used language in a realistic and relevant situation rather than in an artificial or forced setting. In one example, a boy from Bosnia used English to write a detailed description of his virtual character in the popular computer game World of War Crafts. The boy’s involvement and excitement were easily detected in what he wrote. In another example, a first grade teacher taught her pupils about warm and cool colors, such as orange and blue, by presenting a painting and discussing it in English.

CLIL is an organic method for learning a language which improves upon the idea of theme-based learning. Theme-based learning is still common in most Israeli English programs, but this method sacrifices depth for breadth. CLIL, on the other hand, allows pupils to study
The buzz was there. People were busy running from lecture hall to lecture hall. Stimulating exchanges were going on in the lobby of the Ramada Hotel in Jerusalem. The theme of the ETAI International Conference of 2010 was “Linking Through Language” and that is exactly what was happening. People from all over the world – from Australia to Russia, from South Africa to England – met in Israel and shared insights about language teaching and research. Publishers were present to add to the atmosphere. And what better way to “link” than through writing.

On the last day of the conference at the terribly early hour of 8.15 I was ready to give my talk: “The Questions of Writing: What, When, Why, Where, How.” The room was full! With a deep breath I began linking with my audience.

The session opened with the question “What is Writing?” People wrote their thoughts down and then we shared opinions. Backed by my power-point slides we looked at a dictionary definition of ‘writing’ and at several delightful quotes of what children have to say about writing.

Next we looked at the when and where of writing. Perhaps it was obvious that we teach writing in the classroom. But what happens in the computer room and at home? These two aspects were discussed. Should writing be taught immediately or after a basis of communicative acquisition? I argued for a basis of communicative knowledge before beginning to teach the letters which form the building blocks of writing.

Why teach writing? An examination of the curriculum tells us we have to. Outside influences – society demands, tertiary education demands and the widespread use of computers – justify our teaching. Reinforcement, language development, learning style and the fact that writing is a skill were also discussed in the light of answering the question “Why teach writing?”

The “how” of writing provided the practical input of the session. The order of teaching – letters, words, sentences and paragraphs – was considered and explanations and examples shared. Writing is not only intensive but also extensive. Silent sustained writing (SSW) was explained. CLIL is used in Canada, Europe, and Asia. The model suggested for Israel calls for collaboration between English teachers and other subject teachers. It also advocates that teachers of English teach about other academic subjects which they are knowledgeable using English as the medium of instruction.

WRITING AS A LINK IN LANGUAGE

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Writing is a process. There are a number of skills involved in writing and these were considered. The final point brought up was evaluation. However, before discussing this, each participant received an authentic piece of student writing and silently evaluated it. We then shared our ideas about how to evaluate the writing so it would result in a positive modification of the student’s writing. Rubrics and checklists help achieve this.

It is important to teach writing in the classroom. Students need to acquire the physical process and progress to words, sentences and extended writing. Writing is a process which takes time. Evaluation should include positive feedback which facilitates a positive modification of the student’s writing. Writing is a skill which reinforces all language skills while being a life skill that all our students need.

Despite my initial fears, the ninety minutes flew by, and the participants and lecturer all left with a good feeling. Writing had been used as a link in language.

 Resource materials which deal with writing for the EFL classroom:

Participants gathered slowly in the Delilah Bar on the and by 9:15, although all alcohol was behind lock and key, a multicultural group was communicating enthusiastically interacting with each other in a magical atmosphere that one encounters only at a language teachers’ convention.

The aim of the workshop was to explore teachers’ beliefs and connect these to the way in which they handle text and IT (information technology) in the English language classroom. The workshop was arranged in three tiers.

First, the workshop afforded participants an opportunity to reflect upon and share some of their deep beliefs about teaching, language learning and schools. I hold the conviction that teachers’ beliefs are critical to the way in which teachers function in class. Bringing these beliefs to a level of consciousness is a useful endeavour in self understanding for improvement of teaching. Beliefs discussed that morning ranged from authority to Zionism, and from the benefits of bilingual immersion to the dissemination of democracy. We noticed that choice and then using materials to be studied reflects beliefs. Moreover, when congruence between belief and materials was strong, lessons were more powerful and students tended to be more motivated. While discussing their beliefs about the ways in which specific types of students learn and thrive, or not, the place of grammar, testing and grading arose.

Second, the presenter encouraged participants to apply beliefs to the instruction of specific teaching texts – in this case four poems (see appendix) were considered. In other words, the discussion was geared to bring to a level of consciousness some of the tacit issues and beliefs that influence the way in which we handle texts; whether are these texts the domain of random miscellany, which are often the available English teaching texts, or texts stemming from canonical literature learned by pupils at school. For example, Maya Angelou’s poem “The Caged Bird” is, many would argue, a metaphor for the suffering of black people in the US. However, depending on the beliefs of the teacher teaching this poem, it could be a metaphor for other kinds of suffering: bullying, religious persecution, or other issues pertaining to the broader beliefs held by the specific EFL practitioner. Similarly e.e. cumming’s poem about four girls at the beach can be a vehicle for the exploration of a plethora of notions and beliefs.

Third, in the last part of the discussion we moved on to the incorporation of IT into the EFL classroom. Participants explored ways in which their practice, based on the beliefs previously articulated, could be enhanced and invigorated by broader incorporation of IT into the classroom. Participants offered examples from their own practice, and explored notions such as the incorporation of videos, DVDs and snips from YouTube. These technological gambits could be used, it was suggested, in order to make meaningful bridges between learners and text-books, and also to encourage and empower learners in writing, speaking and research project work.

Due to the lack of facilities, we were unable to see my website; it is available at: www.orianit.edu-negev.gov.il/engjer/cp/homepage/.

The participation of international colleagues from the United States and Canada invigorated the discussion in the workshop. One participant from the US encouraged Israeli colleagues by explaining the bold and fearless use of internet in a very religious school in New York. She put some members of our group at ease concerning computer use in religious schools. IT use is often unpopular or even forbidden in religious settings. Our Canadian colleague, who works in a distance learning school setting, gave immensely helpful input describing totally technologically supported educational programmes run by the distance-learning establishment for which she works.

By 10:40 exigencies of time and the need for liquid refreshment forced our group to break up and part. Conference goers consulted their programmes and scattered in all directions, hungry for the next intellectual feast.


Appendix:
I know why the caged bird sings – Maya Angelou

A poison tree – William Blake
Maggie and Milly and Molly and May – e.e. cummings
Aunt Jennifer’s Tigers – Adrienne Rich

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Platforms and Program Description

**English Access Micro-Scholarship Program (ACCESS) Program Description**

Access is a comprehensive enrichment program, which increases the amount of English language teaching geared towards passing the 4-point Bagrut also encouraging cross-cultural awareness and democratic values. Students selected for this program are identified by teachers as “borderline”, with the potential to pass the 4-point examination.

With support from the U.S. Embassy, Tel Aviv, the English Access Micro-Scholarship Program was instituted by AMAL with one 11th grade class in four Negev Bedouin High Schools in 2005-2006. The program now includes 13 high schools, and a summer school program; 10th grade classes were added in 2009-2010. Increasing numbers of participating students pass the Bagrut at the level required for university admission, with some schools reporting students motivated to attempt the 5-point English Bagrut.

**Teacher Selection and Preparation**

Teachers in the Access program were selected in consultation with AMAL staff and principals. Demonstrated teaching ability, good command of the English language, leadership potential, and willingness to participate in an on-going and mandatory professional development program involving workshops, mentoring, and sharing with colleagues are criteria for participation. Professional development is considered an essential part of the program in order to assure both content and methodological competency; professional compensation (Gmul Hishtalmut) is provided to all participating teachers. An additional objective of the program is to reduce the high turnover of teachers, an on-going problem in the Bedouin sector since many of the teachers come from Arab communities in the north or around Jerusalem.

**Access Professional Development Program Design of the Professional Development Program**

The rationale for the PD program is that teaching for success in the Bagrut requires English language competence, plus an emphasis on skills and strategies. Teachers were asked to experience the methods that they were expected to use with their students. They were also expected to work with their colleagues, to consult each other and to regard the director as a facilitator and mentor both in the workshops and during observations, conferences and demonstration lessons in their classrooms.

In the fifth year of the Access program in Negev Bedouin high schools a formal evaluation by an outside researcher was undertaken, considering how heavily the program has invested in teacher training. Data reported below was gathered by the outside researcher, shared with the head of English studies of AMAL and the director of the AMAL ACCESS program, who have cooperated in providing information and in the preparation of this paper.
Methodology

Mixed methods involved in the current evaluation include development of a Likert-type scale administered to all of the Access teachers, a series of open-ended questions/statements utilized in focus groups of 2-6 teachers that included all the Access teachers, observation of professional development workshops conducted by the director, as well as presentations by guest expert and teacher/participants, observation of Access classes taught by Access trained teachers, and observation of demonstration lessons and mentoring by the director.

Conclusions & Recommendations

Based on the teachers’ reports of what is most helpful to them, reducing the number of in-service training course hours and increasing school-based mentoring should be considered. Teachers cite the observations, conferences, modeling and general mentoring of the Access program as having the greatest effect on their professional development.

Because student achievement data is a primary consideration in administrative decisions to continue support of professional development, the increase in number of Access students taking and passing the 4-point Bagrut, as compared to their peers in non-Access classes, provides credibility maintaining and expanding the program.

Recent studies of professional development have provided insight into the characteristics that make it successful (Desimone, 2009). These include: “a) longer contact hours; (b) activities sustained over long periods of time; (c) participation by teachers from the same grade, school, or subject; d) active learning opportunities; (e) coherence with other reform efforts; and (f) a focus on subject-matter content.” (Desimone, L. and Ueno, K. 2006, p. 182).

Observations and teachers’ responses show that the Access professional development program has provided, through workshops and mentoring, all of the above. Teachers appreciate the collegial manner and classroom experience of the director and the practical nature of in-service training courses, which are “well-organized” and always provide valuable materials for use in their classrooms.

Teachers indicated that they are extremely appreciative of what Access is doing for the students and, on their behalf, would like to see an English Language Center in each school. Finally, almost all teachers are pleased with the increased number of students passing the 4-point Bagrut, want the Access program to continue and to expand to help students in other schools. Finally, they want to further their professional goals by continuing to participate in the Access professional development program.

References


A Professor Emeritus of Education at California State University, Long Beach, Prof. Norma Tarrow has held two Fulbright fellowships in Spain and Mexico. She has been a Visiting Fellow at the Institute of Education, London and has directed the International programs of the California State University system for three years and two years in Mexico. Her research and extensive publications are primarily in the field of multicultural education and the education of indigenous groups ---in Israel, Spain and the United Kingdom. Currently she has been directing a research project under a grant from the U.S. Embassy in Tel Aviv to assess special programs for Bedouin high school students.

A Hubert H. Humphrey Fellow alumna, Dr. Rachel Tal has served as Director of English Studies for the Amal educational network in Israel for over 25 years. She has promoted the use of English instruction as a vehicle for promoting tolerance and cross-cultural awareness, and has lectured at international conferences on education.

Thank you very much for your appreciation. It was a great honour to be part of this well-organized and intellectually satisfying event. I admire the efforts of the Organizing committee, their devotion and professionalism invested into the preparation of the Conference.

Irena Tuchin, Israel

Thanks to you and your colleagues the conference was absolutely fantastic, I am so happy to have participated in this wonderful event.

Victoria Demidova, Russia
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE 21ST CENTURY:
THE ‘PRINCIPLED COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH’
Zoltán Dörnyei (Zoltan.Dornyei@nottingham.ac.uk)

I. Introduction
• Over the past two decades “communicative language teaching” (CLT) has become a real buzzword in language teaching methodology, but the extent to which the term covers a well-defined and uniform method is highly questionable.
• In fact, since the genesis of CLT in the early 1970s in the UK and the United States, its proponents have developed a very wide range of variants that were only loosely related to each other. So, what is ‘communicative language teaching’?

II. What is Communicative Language Teaching?
• Communicative language teaching first appeared in the 1970s to promote the teaching of active and meaningful communicative skills – i.e. communicative competence – “through learner participation in communicative events” (Savignon, 1990, p. 210).
• Activities promote real communication, that is, engage learners in the authentic, functional use of language.
• Classroom communicative situations should resemble real-life communication as much as possible.
• Fluency is more important than accuracy.
• Typical communicative activities: role-plays, discussions, problem-solving tasks, simulations, projects and games.

III. What is the problem with Communicative Language Teaching?
• The communicative reform was centred around the radical renewal of the linguistic course content – i.e. communicative competence – without any systematic psychological conception of learning to accompany it.
• Thus, communicative syllabuses were informed by a number of elaborate theories, e.g.:
• Austin and Searle’s speech act theory,
• Hymes’ model of communicative competence and its application to L2 proficiency by Canale and Swain (1980; Canale, 1983),
• Halliday’s systemic functional grammar.
In contrast, the only learning-specific principle that was available for CLT practitioners was the broad tenet of ‘learning through doing’, referring to the assumption that the learners’ communicative competence develops automatically through their active participation in ‘seeking situational meaning’, that is, their engaging in meaningful communicative tasks.

• Thus, it is fair to conclude that CLT did not properly address the psychology of learning.
• Partly because of the vagueness of the ‘seeking situational meaning’ tenet, the varieties of CLT practised around the world are rather diverse and are often contradictory to each other (e.g. with respect to teaching grammar). → “There is no single text or authority on it, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 155).

IV. Towards a psychologically valid ‘Principled Communicative Approach’ Key dilemma in language teaching: Explicit versus implicit learning
• Explicit learning: The learner’s conscious and deliberate attempt to master some material or solve a problem. This is the learning type emphasised by most school instruction.
• Implicit learning: Acquiring skills and knowledge without conscious awareness, that is, automatically and with no conscious attempt to learn them.
• Dilemma: While most academic learning is heavily based on explicit learning, the main language learning model for humans – the mastery of our mother tongue – predominantly involves implicit processes without any explicit teaching: children acquire the complex system of their L1 through engaging in natural and meaningful communication with their parents and other caretakers. Thus, if the implicit L1 acquisition process is a universally shared experience, isn’t it the obvious conclusion that we ought to model any subsequent L2 learning enterprise after this?
• Problem: Implicit learning, which does such a great job in generating native-speaking L1 proficiency in infants, does not seem to work efficiently when we want to master an L2 at a later stage in our lives. In consequence, the ineffectiveness of implicit learning mechanisms makes it necessary for us to draw on the additional resources of various explicit learning procedures.
• **Conclusion:** The real challenge of modern language instruction is find ways to maximise the cooperation of explicit and implicit learning.

• **In my view,** three key issues lie at the heart of the most forward-pointing discussions about the explicit-implicit cooperation in the literature: (a) focus on form and form-focused instruction; (b) fluency and automatization; and (c) formulaic language.

Focus on form (FonF) and form-focused instruction (FFI)

• FonF and FFI indicate a concern with the structural system of language from a communicative perspective. In other words, they represent a halfway position between a concern for communicative meaning and the linguistic features of the language code, calling for a primarily meaning-focused instruction in which some degree of attention is paid to form.

• Thus FonF/FFI refer to a new type of grammar instruction embedded within a communicative approach. According to Rod Ellis (2008), the main types include:
  - Input-based options (e.g. input flooding)
  - Explicit options (e.g. inductive instruction)
  - Production options (e.g. inducing learners to produce utterances containing the target structure)
  - Corrective feedback (e.g. recasts or explicit correction)

Fluency and automatization

• In the psychological literature, fluency is discussed under the broader concept of ‘automaticity/ automatization’, and the promotion of fluency is usually subsumed under ‘skill learning theory’. Thus, from a psychological point of view the relevant issue to explore is how L2 skills can be automatized.

• **Skill learning theory** proposes the following basic sequence: Automatization requires procedural (i.e. implicit) knowledge, which in turn requires initial declarative (i.e. explicit) input and conscious consecutive practice.

• Accordingly, a systematically designed fluency-building task will include an initial **declarative input stage** and subsequent **extended practice**, which can be further divided into **controlled practice** and **open-ended practice**.

• This ‘declarative input→controlled practice→open-ended practice’ sequence is reminiscent of the well-known methodological progression of **presentation→practice→production** (PPP).

• The three phases of skill learning (for more details, see Anderson, 2000; DeKeyser, 2007):
  - The essence of the **declarative input stage** is to provide clear and concise rules and sufficient examples, which then the learner can interpret and rehearse, thereby raising awareness of and internalising the skill.
  - **Controlled practice** should offer opportunities for abundant repetition within a narrow context, which is what drills are all about. Therefore, the key to the effectiveness of this stage is to design interesting drills that are not demotivating (see Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).
  - Finally, **open-ended practice** involves the continuous improvement in the performance of a skill that is already well established in a wider and wider applicability range.

Formulaic language

• There is something fundamental about **formulaic language** such as lexical phrases, idioms, conventionalised expressions, collocations, etc. (for overviews, see Schmitt, 2004; Wray, 2008):
  - “Communicative competence is not a matter of knowing rules … It is much more a matter of knowing a stock of partially pre-assembled patterns, formulaic frameworks.” (Widdowson, 1989, p. 135)
  - Sinclair’s ‘idiom principle’: “The overwhelming nature of this evidence leads us to elevate the principle of idiom from being a rather minor feature, compared with grammar, to being at least as important as grammar in the explanation of how meaning arises in text.” (Sinclair, 1991, p. 112)

• Formulaic language competence is directly linked to automatized, fluent language production: Formulaic sequences are stored in the memory as single units and therefore their retrieval is cognitively relatively undemanding. This in turn allows the speaker to attend to other aspects of communication and to plan larger pieces of discourse, which would naturally facilitate fluent language production under real-time conditions.

• There has been relatively little research on how to teach formulaic language; recently, however, things have started to change and some important studies have also been published on the classroom practice of promoting chunks and formulaic
sequences (e.g. Boers et al. 2006; Gatbonton and Segalowitz 2005; Taguchi 2007).

• The most principled attempt over the past two decades to develop a coherent approach for the promotion of formulaic sequences has been made by Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988, 2005). Their proposed methodology is called ACCESS, standing for ‘Automatization in Communicative Contexts of Essential Speech Segments’, and it attempts to offer a principled adaptation of communicative language teaching that aims to generate fluency by drawing on the theories of automatization and formulaic language.

V. Summary: Seven principles of the new ‘Principled Communicative Approach’ (PCA)

1. The personal significance principle: PCA should be meaning-focused and personally significant. This has been the basic tenet of student-centred, communicative language teaching and we believe that this principle is just as valid now as when it was first formulated.

2. The controlled practice principle: While the overall aim of communicative language learning is to prepare the learners for meaningful communication, skill learning theory suggests that PCA should also include controlled practice activities to promote the automatization of L2 skills.

3. The declarative input principle: To facilitate automatization, PCA should involve explicit initial input components that are then ‘proceduralised’ through practice. This declarative input can be offered in many ways, including the potential utilisation of accelerated learning techniques and even rote learning.

4. The focus on form principle: While maintaining an overall meaning-oriented approach, PCA should also pay attention to the formal/structural aspects of the L2 that determine accuracy and appropriateness at the linguistic, discourse and pragmatic levels.

5. The formulaic language principle: PCA should include the teaching of formulaic language as a featured component. There should be sufficient awareness raising of the significance and the pervasiveness of formulaic language in real-life communication, and selected phrases should be practiced and recycled intensely.

6. The language exposure principle: PCA should offer learners extensive exposure to large amounts of L2 input that can feed the learners’ implicit learning mechanisms. In order to make the most of this exposure, learners should be given some explicit preparation in terms of pre-task activities, to prime them for maximum intake.

7. The focused interaction principle: PCA should offer learners ample opportunities to participate in genuine L2 interaction. For best effect, such communicative practice should always have a specific formal or functional focus, and should always be associated with target phrases to practice.

VI. REFERENCES

This paper is based on Chapter 7 of Dörnyei (2009). The psychology of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.


Every teacher who teaches the younger grades has experienced the following: a parent, another member of the school staff or even a pupil asks a seemingly simple question about teaching English reading. Then, the hapless teacher finds him or herself stumped for a coherent answer. However well a teacher may function in the classroom, it’s hard to think spontaneously of a logical answer and it’s easy to feel put on the spot. In our session we examined frequently asked questions regarding beginning English, particularly those relating to reading, and answered them with a variety of solutions. Whilst our answers were based on academic or professional theory, we phrased them in everyday language, suitable to the informal settings in which these questions are usually asked. Our answers are not necessarily the only correct ones; they are suggestions for how one could reply.

An additional advantage for considering these types of ‘innocent’ questions at leisure without the questioner waiting for a reply, is that considering ‘why we do what we do’ in the classroom helps teachers reflect on their own teaching methods and possibly improve them.

Questions and answers raised included the following:

Why don’t you teach the letters in alphabetical order?

1. We usually introduce the most common letters first. These are letters which can be joined together quickly to make simple words. After teaching three or four consonants we teach a vowel. For example, from just five letters – STMAB – the following words can be formed: sat, mat, bat, Sam, am, at, tab, samba (and, of course, the popular snack – Bamba!)

2. We choose the simple, unambiguous letters first, those which only have one sound and have a direct ‘equal’ to a Hebrew letter. ‘C’ for example is confusing because it has two basic sounds and the name of the letter does not contain the sound it usually makes.

3. To avoid confusion, we are wary of teaching similar looking letters close together, like as, d, b, p.

What is the point of singing songs in the classroom?

1. Songs are a fun, pressure free, positive way of getting maximum participation.

2. Songs often use chunks of language otherwise not taught and ensure a lot of repetition without boredom.

3. Songs encourage an ‘Appreciation of English Language and Culture’ as required by the official Ministry Curriculum.

4. The songs are learnt by heart and this repertoire can be used for practicing reading. Song sheets with the


lyrics encourage children to ‘read’, which gives self-confidence and improves speed.

Where is the best time to begin to learn to read?
1. There is no official best time, it depends on the child.
2. For many children it is better to wait until they read well in their first language, especially because directionality is different in English, Hebrew and Arabic.
3. Children should have a basic vocabulary and some aural/oral experience before learning to read; otherwise the reading is purely technical, with no meaning involved.

What is the best method to teach reading?
1. There isn’t one ‘best method’. Different children learn better through different methods and different teachers also work better with some methods than others. It is probably best to use a mixture of methods.
2. It is important to use some type of phonic method. The main two phonics methods are:
   - Analytic phonics: Starting with familiar words and breaking them up into parts.
   - Synthetic phonics: Learning letters and using them to build up words.
3. Some other common methods of teaching reading are:
   - Whole language: stories, reading dialogues, songs
   - Global words: either an official scheme with methodical teaching of keywords, or based on individual child-chosen words

Is there any reading scheme which works for everybody?
1. No, although some appear to be more fool-proof than others. A good mixture of methods is probably the best way to ensure that the whole class is reading by the end of the year.
2. If a child doesn’t seem to be learning to read, it is important to check why. Some need the structure and ‘safety’ of a controlled scheme, with no surprises, while others need meaningful texts from the beginning.
3. A good rule of thumb: Check how a child learned to read in his first language by asking the first grade teacher, and try a similar method in English.

Why teach phonic rules when there are so many exceptions?
1. In fact, the rules are followed in the majority of cases even though it might seem otherwise.
2. It helps to give some rules to begin with. This allows the pupils to learn the basic forms and sound-symbol connections, even though later they learn the exceptions to the rule.
3. The confidence gained from knowing what symbol makes what sound is important. This is why using a controlled, phonics-based scheme at the beginning is advantageous.

Why expose the children to whole words before they have learned all the individual letters in them?
1. To make a meaningful sentence for a child to read, sometimes you need to insert a few unknowns. It is also important that students of all levels learn to cope with unknown words.
2. Some words don’t follow the phonetic rules, so it won’t help if the pupils learn all the letters or not.
3. Some pupils learn the shape of words in their entirety, as sight words, anyway, rather than sounding them out.

Can children really learn to read by being read to?
1. Yes. And not only by being read to, but being read to while they are following the printed words. This definitely helps children become familiar with the ABC and learn to recognize the letters.
2. Being read to provides language exposure which is a crucial part of reading readiness. In their first language they get this from sitting on their parents’ laps while being read to, or by looking at the books while the kindergarten teacher is reading to them. In English, we need to provide this reading readiness in class.

What’s the point of reading stories aloud when the children don’t understand half of the words?
1. Through listening to stories, pupils learn to focus on the words they know and understand the general gist.
2. Listening to stories helps pupils realize that all reading should be for meaning and that they CAN understand an English story.
3. Reading stories relates to the curriculum domain of ‘Appreciation of Literature and Culture.’

What is Whole Language?
1. It is a holistic approach in which language is treated as a complete entity and not divided into separate parts: grammar, vocabulary, decoding, spelling, etc.
2. With Whole Language, the learner analyses a text in his own way and finds clues to help him understand the meaning himself.

3. Whole Language uses authentic texts, rather than controlled, specially-prepared, secure texts.

**Why do you sometimes speak in Hebrew in class?**

**Everybody knows it’s better to use only English**

1. Sometimes what ‘everybody knows’ is a fallacy, or a half-truth. True, in instances where there is total immersion in the target language for 24 hours a day, it is better only to use that language. However, the situation in our schools is that in the early grades we have two or three 40 minute lessons per week – which is simply not enough to try and reproduce the way in which children learn their mother tongue or another language in an immersion situation.

2. Some children feel anxious when only English is used and it is hard to learn when you’re scared. They need the security of the occasional translation in their mother tongue.

3. Sometimes it is easier and more time-efficient to give a clear explanation in the first language than confuse young children with explanations in English.

General participation was positively encouraged in this session and ideas flowed freely. The questions and answers given above represent just some of the suggestions given.

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**AGE OF STARTING EFL LEARNING IN ISRAELI FORMAL EDUCATION**

Natalie Genkin (nchukcha@gmail.com)

The question of what is the most appropriate age to start teaching a foreign language in general, and English in particular, is one which is important for researchers, methodologists, educational policy-makers and teachers. We need to know the ideal age at which to start devoting time and effort to foreign language (FL) learning, so that the process may be optimally effective and enjoyable for both students and teachers. Many studies have been carried out on this important issue and the research continues.

In the modern world with the growth of political conflicts, the globalization of international trade, and cross-cultural communication, the importance of foreign language competence has become an important issue. English has become a part of elementary school curriculum in most countries. The Council of Europe even identified plurilingualism as the principle and the aim of language education policies and therefore recommends considering early language learning in elementary schools. The statement “the earlier the better” is commonly believed and began to prevail. It is used as a basis for foreign language teaching policy in many countries.

Hence, the policy of foreign language learning is changing. There is a new trend to start teaching English to young learners, both in schools and outside formal education. There are corresponding changes in overall policy, classroom conditions, teachers training, learning material, and so on.

All students in the Israeli school system begin to learn English in primary school. However, they begin in different grades. According to Michelle Horovits, the initiator of the early beginning learning EFL program and the counselor for the Ministry on young beginners, about 40% of all primary schools in Israel start EFL studies before 3rd grade (personal communication, 02.05.05). A common distribution of lesson times would be 45 minutes a week by an English teacher or 15 minutes every day taught by homeroom teacher, in grades 1 and 2.

According to popular opinion, an early start English learning in schools produces better long-term results. The purpose of this study was to find out if there is a positive correlation between age of beginning English learning in school and achievements in EFL studies in 7th grade, as indicated by vocabulary level. Achievements were measured by vocabulary size since vocabulary size is a very good indicator of general language proficiency: pupils who do better in the vocabulary size test are likely to know English better.

The present study tested the connection between the age of starting learning English as foreign language in formal settings and success in language proficiency. Subjects were 294 7th grade students in a regular Israeli school. All the subjects were native Hebrew speakers. Twenty-two students were removed from the study because of the naturalistic exposure to English; 118 started EFL learning in kindergarten, first or second
grade; 154 started learning English in third or fourth grade. Subjects’ level of proficiency was tested by a vocabulary test. The hypothesis was that there would be no significant differences between the group of early starter and the group of late starters. The results showed that, in fact, late starters outperformed the early starters. Gender and private lessons played no role in predicting students’ achievements.

The results of the study, though tentative, have various interesting possible implications. Some researchers do not completely object to L2 studies at an early age if certain key conditions are provided. First, the teachers should be well trained for young learners’ needs and need to have excellent and fluent command of the target language. Second, the curriculum should be planned for the long-term and include instruction policy for all school grades. Finally, there should be massive language exposure of at least five lessons a week and one lesson with intensive interaction per day and chances for authentic language use in the framework of English class of no more than fifteen. Clearly, the conditions for young learners in Israel hardly match the recommendation for early beginning of EFL instruction in schools in other countries. Therefore, the implication that perhaps students should not begin their EFL studies at school was discussed with the participants during the conference presentation.

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THE GOOD LANGUAGE LEARNER – ESSENTIAL CHARACTERISTICS

Carol Griffiths (Carolgriffiths5@gmail.com)

The early good language learner studies of the 1970s (for instance, Rubin, 1975) focussed on strategies, in the belief that if we could find out what it is that good language learners do to be successful, this knowledge could be taught to less successful learners. However, although the strategies-focussed studies added a useful dimension to pedagogical understanding at that time, it soon became obvious that the full picture was much more complicated. In a real classroom situation, a teacher is faced on a daily basis with real human beings with an almost infinite number of variables to be considered, none of which develops in isolation. These variables may relate to the learners themselves, to factors in the learning situation, to the learning target or to the way learners behave.

Learner variables

Of all these variables, the most variable of all are the learners. If learning is to be successful, we need first of all to consider some of the factors which are generated from within individuals and which will inevitably impact on their success as language learners. These factors make each learner unique and are intricately tied to a learner’s very sense of identity (Norton, 1997).

The degree to which language aptitude is considered as an important factor in language learning has varied over the years. It has been described as a stable characteristic of the individual which accounts for speed in language learning (Carroll, 1962). At one time, aptitude tests were commonly used to select students for language courses but in more recent years, these practices have been discredited as anti-egalitarian (Dornyei and Skehan, 2003). In spite of this, the Modern Language Aptitude Test or MLAT (Carroll and Sapon, 1958) has proven to be a relatively reliable predictor of learning outcomes in a wide variety of situations (for instance, Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Nevertheless, it is generally accepted that apparent lack of natural aptitude can be compensated for by high motivation (Ranta 2008).

Motivation has been shown to be a major factor in successful language learning. Whether it be intrinsic, extrinsic, instrumental or integrative, motivation is necessary if learners are to be prepared to make the investment of time, energy and sense of self (identity) which learning a language other than the first requires. Although over the years, claims have been made that one or other of these types of motivation is the most important for successful language learning, motivation is not a simple phenomenon (Ushioda, 2008), and it is possible that all of these motivational types may have a part to play in the outcome of language learning endeavours.

Perhaps the most stable learner characteristic of all is age: students are as old as they are, and there is nothing anyone can do to change that. There has been a great
deal of debate over the years about the effect of age on language learning, and explanations for age-related differences in language learning include an hypothesised critical/sensitive period, socio-affective influences, cognitive factors and differences in learning situation. Although agreement is far from universal, overall it would seem that younger is better. Nevertheless, it has been shown that older learners can learn language very effectively (for instance, Griffiths, 2008a).

Another learner characteristic usually considered relatively stable is personality. The most commonly used measuring instrument for personality is the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator or MBTI (Myers, 1962), from which a pattern of results is generated by four bipolar constructs: extraversion/introversion, sensing/intuition, thinking/feeling and judgement/perception. Ehrman (2008) discovered that, although overall good language learners display a wide variety of personality types, those with an introverted-intuitive-thinking-judging (INTJ) personality are over-represented among the best learners.

Personality, according to Curry (1983), is one dimension of learning style, along with information processing preferences and instructional and environmental preferences. Learning style has been defined as an “individual learner’s natural, habitual and preferred ways of learning” (Willing, 1988, p.1). Good learners seem to be more capable than less successful learners of style stretching to suit a given learning situation, and there does not seem to be any one style which is typical of good language learners (Reid, 1987).

Learners’ beliefs have the potential to profoundly affect their effectiveness as language learners (Horwitz, 1987). Especially powerful are learners beliefs about themselves and about the language they are trying to learn. According to Cynthia White (2008), good language learners are capable of adapting their beliefs to make the best of various learning possibilities rather than adhering to a rigid belief system.

Although gender was once thought to be fixed, views on this have changed in recent years. Females are often believed to be better language learners than males, although research evidence to support this belief has proven elusive. In studies where a gender difference has been discovered (for instance, Sunderland, 2000), it has in general been relatively small.

Affect has long been recognised as a powerful contributor to successful language learning, leading Krashen (1981) to hypothesise the existence of what he called the Affective Filter which is capable of blocking language learning under adverse conditions. Good language learners, however, appear to be able to manage their own affective states more effectively than less successful learners (Arnold, 1999).

**Situational variables**

Long neglected as a factor in successful learning, the importance of the learning situation and its influence on language learning has recently been highlighted (for instance, Norton and Toohey, 2001). Individuals, of course, do not exist in isolation: they are born into a particular socio-cultural/national/ethnic/family/economic/linguistic environment, and throughout their lives this will exert a powerful influence in one way or another. This complex environment has a profound influence on the way people learn and on the opportunities they have to do so, and there may be differences of perception within and among various contexts (Hofstede, 1997; Kramsch, 1993; Lantolf, 2000).

Within this already complex environment, the academic environment may have an effect on student success. This academic environment may be strongly influenced by educational philosophy, by assessment practices and so on, and all of this may in turn be very political. Over the years, methodologies have come and gone in and out of fashion, including grammar-translation, audiolingualism and the communicative approach, along with a variety of less widely practised methods such as total physical response and suggestopedia (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Methodologists have at times made quite dogmatic assertions about the rights and wrongs of particular methods, but Griffiths (2008b) discovered a remarkable eclecticism in learner preferences regarding learning method, suggesting that good language learners can flexibly employ the methods which best suit themselves and/or their situations in order to achieve their learning goal.

**Target variables**

A language is a complex amalgamation of knowledge (of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, function) and skill (reading, writing, listening, speaking), and any of these may be the main focus of learning for any particular individual.

With regard to language knowledge, at one time the teaching of vocabulary was unfashionable (Nation, 1990), suffering perhaps from reaction to the vocabulary-list era under the grammar-translation regime. In more recent years, however, the importance of vocabulary has been re-discovered. The teaching of grammar was also at one time out of fashion, especially with the advent of the communicative approach which tended to value communicative quality over correctness of form. Although there is a great deal of debate regarding the
degree to which native-like pronunciation is a desirable goal for non-native speakers (for instance, Jenkins, 2004), students often express considerable anxiety about their pronunciation and a strong desire to improve it (for instance, Sokhieva, 2005). And the importance of function (how to use language) has been and remains an essential area of knowledge for competent learners (Tajeddin, 2008).

As for skills, in a first language, listening is the first skill children usually develop, after which they repeat what they have heard. Even in a language other than the first, listening provides a necessary model for what learners will later say themselves (Goodith White, 2008). And it would seem that if students are to develop good speaking skills, there is no substitute for real oral interaction (Kawai, 2008). In a language other than the first, it is often via reading that students are initially exposed to language input, and studies have shown that good language learners read in their target language (for instance, Griffiths, 2006). With the spread of English as an international language, the importance of writing skills has been re-emphasised since international students or business people often need to be able to write correctly and at length in English (Hyland, 2002).

**Behavioural variables**

Not only are learners infinitely variable within themselves, but there is also great variation in the ways each individual learner may choose to behave when faced with learning situations and learning targets. Successful language learners are able to self-regulate (Dornyei, 2005). In order to do this they may, for instance, employ strategies; they may think metacognitively; or they may act autonomously.

Language learning strategies might be defined as activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning (Griffiths, 2008c). Good language learners have been shown to frequently use a large number of language learning strategies. Especially important are metacognitive strategies (Anderson, 2008) which relate to the ability to reflect on one’s own learning, to prepare and plan, to monitor and evaluate learning, to orchestrate strategies and, if necessary, to make changes. Good language learners are also autonomous: in other words, they are able to take charge of their own learning (Benson, 2001; Holec, 1981).

**What are the essential characteristics of a good language learner?**

From a synthesis of the foregoing evidence we can suggest some generalisations regarding good language learners. They are motivated and they have a degree of aptitude, although high motivation may compensate for lower aptitude. Younger learners and introverted-intuitive-thinking-judging personalities seem to have an advantage, but mature learners and learners of other personalities can also be successful. Although style and beliefs are relatively stable learner characteristics, successful learners are flexible and can adapt when required. While gender and affect inevitably have an effect on the way individuals learn, successful language learners can be of either gender and can manage their own affective states to meet the demands of the situation or the target. Instead of focussing on a narrow target language goal, successful learners are aware of the importance of developing knowledge and skills and they self-regulate by means of appropriate strategic, metacognitive and autonomous behaviours.

Good language learners, then, are able to regulate their own learning by selecting effective strategies which are appropriate for their own individual characteristics, situations and goals.

**References**


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motivation in second-language learning.


Carol Griffiths has many years’ experience as teacher, manager and teacher trainer in the field of English Language Teaching. She completed a PhD researching language learning strategies at the University of Auckland, and learner issues continue to be her main research interest. Carol is currently working as a teacher trainer at Yeditepe University in Istanbul, Turkey. She has presented papers at many conferences around the world, and also published widely, including her recent book “*Lessons from Good Language Learners*” (CUP).
Basic insights from modern linguistics should be integrated into teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). A linguistic perspective enriches any level of EFL teaching and makes it more effective by developing learners’ meta-linguistic awareness. Learners should be made conscious of the grammatical differences between English and their mother tongue, and of the resulting difficulties and errors. A linguistic analysis of a variety of common resistant errors and difficulties among Hebrew speakers learning English, reveals that identifying, defining and being aware of the source of these errors and difficulties are the key to minimizing their occurrence. As in any problem, if we wish to eradicate it and avoid its future recurrence, we have to address its source, and not just its symptoms.

The following are the major points exemplifying the approach proposed here:

1. **Letters should be distinguished from sounds.** The a/an distinction should be presented as a phonological rule – a rule that is based on the natural tendency in languages to facilitate pronunciation, rather than a rule that depends on the spelling of the noun. This approach will help eliminate errors such as: *France is an European country;* *They live in an old house.*

2. **“Time”, “tense” and “aspect” are NOT the same and should be distinguished,** to help eliminate a variety of extremely common errors, for example errors in conditional sentences (*If it will rain tomorrow, I will stay at home*), in the distinction between present simple and progressive (*She is drinking tea every morning*) and in the acquisition of the present perfect, which is often avoided by Hebrew speakers. It should be shown to learners that different languages can express the same meanings, using different grammatical means (e.g. verb forms, auxiliary verbs, time expressions). It should be stressed that there is no one-to-one mapping between form and meaning (‘tense’ and ‘time’, in this case), and that different languages use different grammatical means to express the same meanings.

3. **Identifying grammatical categories of words (nouns, verbs, etc.)** should be based on syntactic and morphological properties, such as position in the sentence and typical affixes. Basing the categorization on meaning rather than on structural properties produces errors such as: *It’s depend on the weather;* *You late to school every day.* Such typical errors are based on the learners’ naïve subconscious assumption that words with the same meanings have the same grammatical properties in all languages. Thus, the examples above reflect learners’ wrong assumption that *depend* is an adjective in English as it is in Hebrew, rather than a verb, or that *late* is not an adjective in English, but a verb – as it is in Hebrew.

4. **The unique grammatical properties of modals should be highlighted,** to avoid errors such as: *I can to swim;* *He cans (to) do it.* In most English classrooms there is over-emphasis of the **semantic** nature of the class of modals. Crucially, teachers and pupils are often not aware of the unique syntactic and morphological properties of modals in English: English modals do not have normal tense and person inflections, and no “helping” verb can ever immediately precede them. The ‘base’ verb form which should follow them is also less common than infinitives or gerunds. The recognition of the unique **grammatical** properties of modals is enlightening to teachers and pupils alike and will minimize errors of the type exemplified here.

5. **One of the problems with the acquisition of the English passive is that Hebrew speakers often avoid using it,** and use instead unnatural translations of Hebrew active sentences. In order to address this problem, the differences between the Hebrew and the English passive should be emphasized. The Hebrew passive is considered relatively infrequent and highly formal, which is NOT the case in English. It should be made clear that passive in English is equivalent to active subject-less impersonal sentences in Hebrew, e.g. *He cans (to) do it.* English modals do not allow the omission of subjects and uses passive instead. This rationale should be made clear and supported by natural English examples. Equivalent subject-less active (rather than passive) sentences in Hebrew should be presented. If learners understand this rationale, they are more likely to use the English passive when necessary.

It is evident that I believe the answer to the question in the title is: **NO!** My experience shows that some meta-linguistic awareness among English teachers can make their EFL teaching more effective at all levels. Learners can often arrive at linguistic generalizations by themselves, if they are presented with the right data. This is consistent with the most up-to-date approaches to teaching, which expect learners to use HOTS, and with
the national English curriculum, which expects proficient pupils to be aware of inter-language differences, and to be able to compare between English and their mother-tongue in order to gain insights into the structures of languages in general.

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**LINKING THE VISUAL AND THE VERBAL: DEVELOPING MULTIMODAL ACADEMIC LITERACY**

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In his short article “Multimodality: Challenges to Thinking” in TESOL Quarterly (Vol. 34, No. 2, Summer 2000), Gunther Kress made the point that there has been a “revolution in the landscape of communication that is changing its configurations fundamentally,” that there is a “functional specialisation of speech, writing and image in which each is used to do that for which it is best suited,” and that in this situation “language is no longer the carrier of all meaning (p.339).” English language teachers in schools, and many subject teachers, can concur with these comments; school textbooks are now filled with combinations of visual and verbal (or written) communication, with some even being accompanied by multimedia CD discs. The development of the Internet means that much of our communicational world inside and outside our schools has become strikingly multimodal.

Although the definition of multimodal(ity) varies from author to author and depends on their particular focus or context, it generally refers to situations where communication involves more than one mode. Instances may involve texts that combine written and visual mode which are very common in educational contexts, and can be page or screen-based, spoken and visual, or even combinations of spoken, visual, written, musical, and movement modes. The changes that have occurred as a result of the growth of multimodal meaning-making have also involved newer and more demanding paths to processing that meaning. For example, in the rapid expansion and change in the nature of school textbooks over the last 20 years, there has been a rapid rise in the use of visual, often colourful, means of conveying information. Many teachers working in schools have seen these changes in their textbooks, which have become much more visually dense; students (and teachers) now need to be able to unpack the meanings that are visually or graphically displayed, to talk about them in terms of visual ‘languaging’. Further, the rise of the Internet has also changed the ways that we are asked to read. In textbooks we have traditionally been required to read texts in a left-right, linear, page-turning style of reading. Now we are able, and often need, to read hypertextually, where a reader will start to read a web page and then have the choice to shift down layers into other pages via the highlighted ‘links’ provided. We are also able to jump back to the original page, and then carry on reading the original text with the extra information acquired. This is a much more demanding way to read in terms of comprehension load, which in a way obviates the criticism that the rise of the web has lead to a reduction in our reading skills! (A notion supported by David Crystal’s comments in his plenary.)

Obviously, in these multimodal teaching resources the various kinds of images, as well as the writing, have not been placed on the pages arbitrarily, but have been placed and combined in accordance with semantic and graphic design principles. They have also been placed and combined on the page or computer screen for various purposes: to present information, to extract or initiate some kind of reader/viewer reaction, and to organize or compose the page so that certain features are emphasised over others, or framed for effect based on accepted compositional or layout conventions.

Given these great changes in the modes of communication, it is important that language teachers be able to utilise the copresence of visual, linguistic and other modes in the textbooks, teaching resources and computer screens in their classrooms. This raises questions about how an awareness of multimodal meaning can be translated into practice. Which specific multimodal characteristics can be exploited for language learning? What methodologies can be deployed to prepare students for the task of decoding multimodal meanings in their own and foreign languages?

The theory of communication underlying this paper is derived from M.A.K. Halliday’s (1994) functional theory of communication, as developed in Systemic Functional Linguistics. Communicational purposes for both the verbal (linguistic) and the visual can be interpreted in terms of three metafunctions:
Ideational

- LANGUAGE and the representation of experience (subject matter)
- IMAGES and the representation of experience (what is portrayed)

Interpersonal

- LANGUAGE and the role relationships of participants (speaker / hearer)
- IMAGES and the role relationships of participants (viewer / viewed)

Textual / Compositional

- LANGUAGE as channel and organised information (spoken / written)
- IMAGES and composition or layout on the page, on the screen (framing, foregrounding etc.)

The focus here is on an Ideational interpretation and demonstrates that the semantic (intersemiotic) relations between images and verbal (written) text can be clarified and then utilised for educational purposes. The aim of this kind of intersemiotic ideational analysis for classroom purposes is to first interpret an object, person or entity represented visually, through visual representational techniques, then to interpret how these are represented verbally, through semantically-related lexical items, in the written aspect. Then, finally clarify the intersemiotic semantic relations between the visual and verbal meanings. This knowledge can then be utilized for classroom purposes.

The first step is to start with an interpretation of what the image is representing by asking a series of questions; almost any image type can be analyzed or questioned in terms of what it presents, or its subject matter. The ideational questions to be asked of an image relate to:

- **Identification**: Who or what are the represented participants, or who or what is in the visual frame (animate/inanimate)?
- **Activity**: What processes are there, or what action is taking place between the actor(s) and the recipient(s) or object(s) of that action?
- **Circumstances**: What are the elements which are locative (concerned with the setting), are of accompaniment (participants not involved with the action), or of means (participants used by the actors)?
- **Attributes**: What are the qualities and characteristics of the participants?

Two answers arise from this questioning: the first is in terms of the most obvious surface meanings (first or denotative meaning), and the second is in terms of the context of the person involved in the interpretation i.e. the viewer (second or connotative meaning). To illustrate, there may be a visual portraying a man in a white coat carrying a notepad. On a surface or denotative level we could say that we see simply “a man in a white coat.” The deeper way, and this depends on who is doing the interpreting, is that we could say that the man is a scientist, a doctor, a psychologist, a researcher etc. This is a more intertextual (connotational) interpretation, drawing on the background knowledge of the viewer who interprets the gender, white coat, and notepad and assigns a possible meaning by drawing on extra information. It is also asking for a deeper interpretation of what is being portrayed, and therefore asks the viewer to draw upon some deeper linguistic, cultural and other background knowledge. These are all things which we would like our students to do.

The answers to these kinds of questions can produce descriptive glosses which can then be recorded and used for the next stage of the interpretation, where we look at the lexical or word choices made by the writers, to see how the visual Ideational choices relate semantically to the verbal (written) Ideational choices on the page (or on the screen). When we do this we focus on the intersemiotic meaning relations, which are the multimodal mechanisms by which the visual and verbal modes complement each other’s meanings. These sense relations (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) are explained below in the table below, with examples.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sense Relation</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>The image of a scientist can be glossed as scientist, which may be intersemiotically repeated by the lexical item scientist in the verbal aspect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonymy (similarity relations)</td>
<td>The image of Alan Greenspan can be glossed as Alan Greenspan, which may be intersemiotically synonymised by the lexical item Chairman of the Fed. in the verbal aspect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonymy (opposition relations)</td>
<td>A graph showing increased degrees of temperature, glossed as increases over time, may be intersemiotically related through antonymy to the lexical item decreases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyponymy (class/sub-class relations)</td>
<td>A sketch visual showing the various types of marsupials in desert areas, glossed as marsupials, may be intersemiotically related through hyponymy to the lexical item kangaroo (a type or sub-class of marsupial).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meronymy (part/whole relations)</td>
<td>A schematic diagram showing an energy-efficient house, glossed as the super-ordinate energy-efficient house, may be intersemiotically related through meronymy to the lexical item solar panels (referring to specific parts of the energy-efficient house).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocation (expectancy relations)</td>
<td>A visual showing the effects of silting in harbours, glossed as silting, may collocate with the lexical item/phrase dredging (both words can commonly co-occur in this topic area).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following analyses will attempt to illustrate how an examination and interpretation of a multimodal text in terms of the glosses and associated lexical items can constitute a rich source of material and insights to exploit in the TESOL classroom. Below is a single image taken from a Japanese high school EFL textbook; it is the first of a sequence of eight images:
Asking the questions discussed previously reveals the following features:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTION FOCUS</th>
<th>FEATURES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Denotative meanings:                | 2 men
|                                     | 1 machine                                                                |
| Connotative meanings:               | 1 scientist/researcher;                                                  |
|                                     | 1 manager/boss                                                           |
|                                     | 1 super computer                                                        |
| Characteristics or signifying qualities: | Computer (wires; plugs; frame/boxes, lights; switches). |
|                                     | Scientist (lab coat; glasses).                                           |
|                                     | Manager (business suit/tie).                                             |
| Activity (processes):               | \textit{Interacting}: 2 men with machine; 2 men talking to each other   |
|                                     | (vector between eyes)                                                   |
|                                     | \textit{Pointing} (vector from finger to machine);                      |
|                                     | \textit{Explaining} (gesture of pointing)                              |
|                                     | \textit{Listening} (assumed behaviour)                                  |
|                                     | \textit{Smiling} (facial gesture)                                       |
| Setting:                            | Unclear or not represented.                                             |

A subsequent visual-verbal sense relations analysis of this image should reveal a range of words that relate to this image (a range of repetitions, antonyms, synonyms, meronyms, hyponyms, collocations, all of which will vary in number based on the text-type), which can then be exploited pedagogically to help students extract just what the visuals are trying to “say”, to relate these messages to the verbal aspect, and then use them to contribute to developing students’ multimodal communicative skills.

Below are some suggestions regarding the ways that these conceptualizations can be applied in the language classroom.

**Reading skills development**

For reading readiness development: students ask questions of the images about the content (who, what, where, what is happening, to whom, etc.), all of which generate purposeful language before they start to read (and which reduces that initial ‘text-shock’).

For narrative plot understanding: visual sequences often follow a story line, which can be used to introduce a story before they start to read. In well-designed textbooks, these images are usually placed on or very near the pages where the specific language used in the plot relates to the meanings portrayed.

For exposition understanding: an explanatory visual can be used to extract content information. For example, a water cycle diagram can be used to look at how processes are described in scientific or geographic language, as well as emphasizing cause/effect or sequence relations.

**Writing skills development**

For narrative writing: use the visual sequences which often follow a story line to help students understand and develop a story or plot before they actually start to write it.

Follow up writing to this could be a journal or a magazine developed individually, in groups, or by a whole class.

Various genres can be introduced, depending on the type of image being used: descriptions, recounts, instructions, narratives etc.

**Speaking and listening skills development**

The activities above can all generate speaking and listening activities.

Report back to class, give short speeches, explain or describe while the rest of the class listens. This could be targeted listening with some students required to ask questions based on what they hear, or to report to others what they have heard.
Images can be used for testing of speaking: show an image from a book the students have read and ask them questions, or ask for a short spoken recount.

Pronunciation can be practised also in all these activities.

Vocabulary development
Looking at a visual involves using known and finding new words. Skills can be developed by skimming, scanning for specific words in the reading that have been generated from a visual.

General language and topic development areas
Lexical (nouns, verbs, adjectives, modals etc)
Sentences (simple statements, complex sentences)
Genre (types of spoken, writing and reading discourse)
Character and character development
Feelings/attitudes/emotions
Actions/activities
Characteristics (descriptions)
Stages of the story (linking words)
Themes/messages/topic
Morality (ethics)

Thus, almost every image, still or moving, can be interpreted in terms of what it presents, who it presents to, and how it is presenting, and the ways that it is connected to the co-occurring language. By drawing upon these understandings, and by using these visual interpretative skills, we can work towards building up and developing our students’ academic multimodal literacy, and supplement the range of skills and activities we are already using in our classes.

References and further reading

Dr. Terry Royce is a senior lecturer and research coordinator at the University of Technology, Sydney (UTS). His research interests include the analysis of multimodal discourse, forensic linguistics (critical incident policing), discourse and cohesion analysis across disciplines (scientific and economics discourse), systemic-functional linguistics, and TESOL education. His most recent book on multimodality is an edited volume with W. Bowcher 2007, New Directions in the Analysis of Multimodal Discourse with Routledge, and his most recent article in forensic discourse analysis is in 2009, ‘Critical Incidents: Staging and process in crisis negotiations’, in the Journal of Policing, Intelligence and Counter Terrorism.

“...I’d like to add my voice of thanks and appreciation to those who organized and pulled off an amazingly successful conference. I was able to attend one day only, and kicked myself for not planning to be there for all three days. In just the one day, I managed to hear several outstanding lectures, attend one good workshop, and most importantly, renew friendships and see colleagues whom I hadn’t seen in years.”

Randi Harlev, Israel
FROM CATERPILLARS TO BUTTERFLIES: MENTORING AND PEER SUPPORT FOR TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Victoria Demidova (redroseburns@yandex.ru)

The British Council ETTE (English for Teaching: Teaching for English) regional project unites seven countries of Central and South Asia: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Nepal, Pakistan and Uzbekistan which have similar teaching context and share such challenges in teaching English as a low language proficiency level of EL teachers, insufficient knowledge of present-day teaching methods and lack of resources. These peculiarities are reflected in the project aims:

1. to improve classroom performance of EL teachers across the region, including those teaching in remote or marginalized areas, so as to enable them to teach more effectively;

2. to increase teachers’ access to a variety of developmental methods and ELT materials, which they will feel confident in using and adapting;

3. to build the capacity of English language teaching associations in the region, strengthen their role and increase the menu of services provided to members.

In order to achieve these project aims three strands – a teacher training materials design, cascading teacher training courses on the materials designed and, finally, establishing and running mentoring and peer support groups (PSGs) – were developed. Although all the three strands are important, mentoring and PSGs are indispensable for sustainability of the whole project, as this engages participants in a continuing professional dialogue and fosters their further professional development.

There are a number of concepts defining mentoring; however, in the ETTE context mentoring describes a voluntary relationship between two professionals, one of whom is less experienced than the other and is willing to communicate with a more experienced colleague. Besides mutual sympathy, understanding of each other’s perspectives and genuine interest in each other, which are the essence of effective interaction in mentoring, both, a mentor and a mentee, are to be aware of their roles. Thus, in relations with a mentee a mentor acts as an educator, a model, a supporter, an acculturator and a sponsor (Malderez and Bodoczky, 1999, p. 4). At the same time, a mentee is not a passive recipient of mentor’s recommendations. On the contrary, efficient mentors conduct mentorials in a way to encourage mentees to become reflective practitioners – autonomous in terms of reflecting upon their own experience, learning from it and making their decisions for their further professional growth. This interpretation of the concept of mentoring was absolutely new for Uzbekistan: traditionally our experts responsible for professional support of novice or less experienced teachers are supposed to express openly and categorically what they believe is true about their mentee’s teaching, without taking into consideration mentee’s experience and without an intention to develop mentee’s autonomy. Furthermore, in our context mentors’ criticism of mentees’ teaching practice is regarded as an integral part of their professional duty.

Similarly, the idea of PSGs as another form of professional communication with the central principle of parity and equal responsibility of all participants for mutual professional and personal support was also challenging for EL teachers in Uzbekistan. PSGs differ dramatically from what teachers were accustomed to during teacher training seminars and courses when one person, a trainer, delivered sessions and participants, even the most active ones, played only a secondary role. The other principles of PSGs are the following:

1. PSGs are informal voluntary regular meetings of teachers;

2. PSGs combine professional and personal interaction;

3. L1 can be used for communication;

4. PSGs unite all participants and value experience of each participant.

Although these principles are true for mentoring too, the key difference is that mentoring, being a face-to-face practice of only two persons, implies much more intimate relations than those possible in PSGs.

Both mentoring and PSGs employ a dialogue as the main tool for boosting critical and creative thinking among participants. Thus, articulating and verbalising appropriate questions leading to overcoming difficulties and solution of a certain issue becomes a skill of primary significance. Consequently, activities used during mentoring and PSG sessions include discussions of various kinds: after reading professional articles and watching video clips, after lesson observation and while giving feedback. All the activities are reflective and they trigger participants’ ability to learn from reflection on their own and on others’ knowledge and experience. One of the activities our participants like best is to draw inferences from parables; a parable about a caterpillar...
turning into a butterfly became a symbol of mentoring and peer support.

In Uzbekistan mentoring and PSGs is supported by the British Council’s partners of the ETTE project, namely, the Ministry of Public Education and UzTEA (Uzbekistan Teachers of English Association). The latter has a number of regional branches throughout the republic and Samarkand branch, being one of the most active ones, has been conducting sessions on mentoring and PSGs since January, 2010. From the very beginning mentoring and PSGs were enthusiastically met by Samarkand EL teachers involved in the ETTE project, who emphasize that they benefit from their participation immensely. Here are some excerpts from their feedback:

“I like the idea of PSGs and having sessions with my colleagues as facilitators. As all the sessions are conducted by different teachers, we have a chance to learn from each other.” ~ Ulugbek Sodikov, school 67

“Thanks to the PSG project I like my profession more and more, because I keep learning new things about teaching English. I wish that not only we participate in the PSG, but all other teachers would be involved in the project.” ~ Damira Abdusalyamova, school 35

“My participation in the PSG project plays an important role in my life. I got much useful information about teaching during the project and I was co-facilitating some sessions. I like the idea of PSGs because it encourages us to be more confident, active, professional. I’m going to share my experience with my colleagues and use the knowledge in my work.” ~ Albina Khayretdinova, school 29

“I like the PSG project, it is very interesting and useful for my professional development. Now I know how to help my students to love English and use it in real life. This project helps me improve my English as well as deepens my interest in teaching.” ~ Kamilla Gienko, school 37

“I like the idea of PSGs because it really helps us to be more creative, to achieve our goals and it motivates us to share our experiences with other EL teachers.” ~ Aziz Latipov, school 53

This feedback indicates that EL teachers are proud of belonging to a professional teaching community, they feel motivated to develop their teaching skills and they appreciate the opportunity to share their knowledge and experience with colleagues. Similar opinions were expressed by EL teachers from other regions of Uzbekistan where mentoring and PSGs are being run now. Thus, mentoring and PSGs have proved to raise EL teachers’ self esteem and confidence, enhance good relationships, encourage risk taking. As a result of participation in the ETTE project Uzbekistan, EL teachers have become more self-directed and autonomous.

The phenomenon of mentoring and PSGs as non-formal professional communication could be explained with the help of Glasser’s theory of Basic Human Needs (Malderez and Wedell, 2007, pp. 86-87). According to the theory these needs are the sense of belonging, the need for success, safety, fun and opportunities to make choices. If these needs are met during mentoring and PSGs, relations between participants become long-lasting and efficient. Thus, Glasser’s theory is one of factors making the concept of mentoring and PSGs universal and applicable to practically any teaching context.

In conclusion, regardless of participants’ level of knowledge, experience and teaching skills, mentoring and PSGs help EL teachers acquire “a deep understanding of the principles of professional action, enabling him or her to innovate and to relate critically to the innovations of others” (Ur, P., 2002, p, 390) and become real professionals.

References


Victoria Demidova works as an EL teacher and a teacher trainer at Samarkand Regional Language Centre and she is the head of UzTEA (Uzbekistan Teachers of English Association) Samarkand branch. She is happy to have participated in the 6th International ETAI conference in Jerusalem.
The initial findings of a pilot study of a college writing course in which grades were not given were enlightening. Students – first year college students who were mainly non-native speakers of English – felt more comfortable experimenting with new vocabulary and syntax when they knew they would not receiving grades. They also claimed to enjoy writing more, and to write about topics that were genuinely important to them. Students’ attendance was good; they completed the assignments on time and according to the prescribed length. Furthermore, students claimed that they were able to concentrate more on “writing what was interesting instead of thinking about the grade.” These results came as a surprise to some of the teachers present at this conference discussion group, who had expected that students would stop trying, that the overall quality of their work would drop; in short, that students would become lazy and unmotivated. Reflecting on the possible gaps between the goals and practices in our teaching may lead first to greater awareness on the part of teachers and, later, to instruction that better serves the long term interests of our students.

With the results of the study as a backdrop, the following questions were considered during the course of the open discussion:

• What respective roles do we envision for ourselves, our students, and our students’ writing?

• What functions do we ascribe to grades in our writing classrooms? What functions does grading serve, practically and ideally? What do we envision when we imagine a classroom without grades?

• How do we want our students to respond to grades? What factors and scenarios do we consider when we grade? What is our experience of how students really respond and react to grades?

In spite of the success of the pilot study, most teachers present felt strongly that giving grades was essential to their maintaining classroom discipline and student motivation. Although these elements are not part of what the teachers felt to be the foundations and goals of their teaching, most of them nonetheless felt unable to envision other classroom models, models that don’t rely on external motivations such as grades. And, many teachers mentioned the requirements of department, school, and ministry of education regarding grades.

However, a vocal minority of teachers present described alternative school settings in which teachers and administrators did not require, nor recommend, that teachers give grades. These teachers talked glowingly about the innate student enthusiasm for self-expression and creativity that could be nurtured in a non-judgmental environment. They also appreciated the change in their role from critic, judge, and “policeman” to aide, mentor, and “cheerleader.” Furthermore, relationships between students improved dramatically when students (1) were no longer compared to each other by the teacher regarding the caliber of their work, and (2) could no longer compare their work to that of their fellow students, at least in so salient a fashion as grades formerly provided. These observations echoed the findings of the pilot study.

Many teachers confessed to some surprise, and dismay, that, upon reflection, grading student work in general, and grading writing in particular, may in fact be hindering their educational goals rather than furthering them. Some teachers described the frustration in trying to respond to student writing, which everyone agreed was a time-consuming, unwelcome task, in a way that would justify the grade without discouraging the student. Yet, in spite of the theoretical and practical drawbacks of grading, the majority of the teachers present still felt that grades were an indispensable element of classroom teaching.

The initial reason for the format of this presentation – a discussion group rather than a frontal lecture – was based on the assumption that the culture of grades is too deeply entrenched in our educational structures for most teachers to consider abandoning it. Indeed, the educational community has few models of classroom settings that do not rely on grades either for assessment or for motivation. Yet, I believe discussions such as this one are essential as modest first steps in encouraging teachers to be more reflective about their practice, to discover the unexpected consequences of certain classroom techniques, and to open their minds to other possibilities.

Sue Rosenfeld holds a MA from Columbia University Teachers’ College and a PhD from the University of Pennsylvania Graduate School of Education. She is currently teaching at the Michlala Jerusalem College for Women and in the Melton Center for Jewish Education at the Hebrew University.
Since 1999 the Ohalo Teacher Training College in Katzrin has sponsored a Study Tour to London for pre-service English teachers. This very unique pre-service English teacher’s travel program immerses students in an English speaking world. I hope that others who have dreams for their teacher training programs will believe their dreams can also turn into a reality, after hearing about Ohalo’s study tour!

The students who are in our English training courses are generally non-native speakers. Most have never experienced an English speaking environment. The London Study Tour exposes pre-service students to an English language environment and culture. Why is this valuable? Mastery of subject matter itself is not enough to make an effective educator. An educator must be able to connect to a large body of world knowledge and also possess a broad understanding of culture and historical processes.

The program is not a “tourist trip” in the usual sense but rather a blend of structured and guided experiences combined with individual exploration. It enlarges the knowledge base of teacher trainees and raises their awareness of this need in the classroom.

The tour runs every two years and all third and fourth year pre-service students are encouraged to take part. Participating students gain course credits for going. The group is generally multi-cultural, with 1-18 Jewish, Moslem, Christian, and Druze students participating.

Each of the stages (pre/during/post) of the Study Tour reflects the Ministry of Education’s English Curriculum incorporating all the domains: Social Interaction, Access to Information, Presentation, Appreciation of Literature and Culture, and Language.

Prior to the trip, students are given responsibility for researching and planning one of the travel days. In London they will be the group’s “guide” on that day – sharing what they will be visiting, any relevant background information and taking care of all the logistics for that outing. On each trip, students see a Shakespearean play. The semester before the trip, students prepare for their evening at the theater by reading and studying that particular Shakespearean work.

During the week in London, students meet in the lobby of the hotel each morning after breakfast. At these morning sessions, students record in their journals their thoughts, feelings, impressions of the previous day’s experiences. They are put into “focus groups” and each day the groups are expected to focus on either the architecture, the advertisements and signs, peoples’ manners and behavior, or what’s happening in the news. These observations are then shared in the next morning session.

The student “guides” inform the students of that day’s excursion based on information they collected in their pre-tour planning. Before setting out, the students are given a task to be completed that day.

One task is at the British Museum where students choose an item in the museum that interests them. They are then required to gather information about the item at its site and in the museum’s magnificent circular archives. Later in the year, students set up a mini British Museum and display their items in an exhibition which they create together.

London is known for its many museums and art galleries; visiting them is a national pastime and a must for our students! The students are mesmerized by the orderly groups of young children walking quietly through the galleries, listening carefully to the museum docents, and asking thoughtful questions. What a cultural experience this is for our students!

What would a trip to London be without shopping?! On “Shopping day”, students are sent out with charts and expected to find their way to Marks and Spencer, Selfridges and Harrods. At each store they are to locate specific items and record their costs. In addition, they are told to plan a dinner party with a budget of 100 pounds sterling.

These London assignments become both learning moments for the student travelers as well as a springboard for their own teaching experiences.

After the Study Tour, students fill out a questionnaire reflecting on their travels. These have helped in improving future study tours and are a resource for research in determining the program’s effectiveness for teacher training.

Throughout their travels students gather materials such as a map of the underground, a ticket to a play or a shopping bag from Marks and Spencer. These then turn into authentic classroom resources. In addition to the British Museum exhibition, students are expected to create a unit on London and teach one lesson during their practice teaching observed by the pedagogical trainer.
All students look back on their study tour experience as life-changing, they appreciate their new cultural awareness and feel their teaching has been positively influenced by the time spent in London.

Michelle Kinsbursky has been teaching English in various colleges in the north for the past 14 years. Ohalo College in Katzrin is her home base where she is a teacher trainer in the English Department and an EAP instructor.

PERSONALISED PROGRAMS FOR STUDENT SUCCESS

Liat Ben Horine (poppy@macam.ac.il)

After more than a decade of struggling to find a challenging, interesting and realistic way of involving our exemption level college students in their E.A.P. Studies, my colleague Michelle Kinsbursky and I, set out to present our innovations to a wider teacher forum at the ETAI international conference in Jerusalem this summer.

As teachers of E.A.P. with much experience in a variety of academic institutions in the north of the country, we perennially encounter problems in motivating our students to really engage with our materials rather than just “do” the course and “get through” the exam. This is particularly true for students who enter programs at lower levels, and who may feel jaded or bored after three or four courses of practicing texts, and answering reading comprehension questions. Thus the project course that we developed was intended to motivate students by diversifying and personalizing their readings tasks, whilst maintaining national standards of achievement.

Within this framework, students are guided by the English staff and college librarians to find two related texts (one primary text that has to be academic, and a secondary article that can be shorter), that relate to their academic interests or needs. The principal text must conform to national standards of exam texts regarding its length and complexity.

Having chosen texts, and having had them approved, students prepare a presentation of the materials they have read. The students attend a workshop during which they receive instruction on how to make an effective presentation, and are exposed to examples of previous projects. Presentations last for one half of an hour and must include the main idea or claim of their principal text, relevant and interesting supporting details, and an interactive activity which involves the audience and illustrates the main idea of the texts. Students are also responsible for teaching the key vocabulary of their text to the class, and providing a short practice activity involving the chosen words. Additionally, they are requested to formulate a number of exam type questions on the text, which they type up and present to the teacher together with an answer key. Finally, students are expected to share their reflections or insights on what they have read with the class.

Students are given a certain amount of class time for this work. This is necessary as many of them chose to work in pairs, and as English is interdisciplinary, it may be the only class time during the week in which they meet. This in class prep time also helps guarantee that the work is done by the students themselves. Also included in the course timetable is a compulsory personal interview or tutorial, during which students share their plans for their presentation with their teacher, and receive feedback, suggestions and corrections to be made.

Audience participation during the presentations is expected; in addition to participating in the illustrative activity, each class member has a booklet with the texts inside, followed by a page in which to write down the vocabulary taught, and this includes a place in which to summarize the presentation in their own words and in the language of their choice. As an additional motivating factor, the students are informed that their final exam will be selected from one of the many texts presented.

The grade for the course is based on a combination of exam and class work, however, students must achieve a passing grade on the final exam to pass the course. During the course, students are given 2-3 texts to complete independently and also two practice exams in test conditions. The teacher also selects a limited number of the texts from those presented and works on them with the class using the students’ questions in addition to any s/he may have added.

During the ETAI presentation, examples of students work were displayed, and filmed samples of interactive activities which show students participating and enjoying text related activities were screened. We also shared students praise and criticism of the project, and our own reflections of the advantages and disadvantages of this kind of work as an alternative program.

Our experience has been that for the average or weak student, this program offers a highly successful
alternative, and that its structured and varied format is more appropriate to the late time slots that English now occupies our college. Both teachers and students report an increase of motivation and enjoyment when participating in this course, although the teacher work load is inevitably increased. Unfortunately, such a course reduces time spent on text practice, but supplementary texts are available to students who request them, and the final exam results have been satisfactory. Additionally, this course meets with approval from college staff members outside the English department, as the relevance and usefulness of such independent work in English is obvious to all. In the discussion which concluded our presentation, it was suggested that such a project could be integrated successfully in Bagrut programs in High School, and we believe that the same motivating factors which have contributed to this program’s success could indeed be applied to school students.

In conclusion, our program is continuously evolving as we experiment with the best way to stimulate student motivation and success!

Both Liat Ben Horine and Michelle Kinsbursky are lecturers and material developers of EAP in Ohalo College for Teacher Training, Katzrin.

"What a wonderful conference! The level of the presentations and the atmosphere were delightful.

I take off my hat to the ETAI committee for putting together a top line international conference under very trying conditions. Let us not forget that they are volunteers, dedicating themselves selflessly to the task. Most of my dealings were with Valerie and Susan who I would like to mention in particular. Marna, thanks for being so patient and hard-working. As for Lior, head of the red T-shirted boys, it was a pleasure to work with him. Always efficient, well-organized, pleasant and smiling, I think he has a great future ahead of him.

But I must say a special thank you to our out-going chairperson, Penny Ur. We are all aware of her talents as a teacher, teacher-trainer, presenter, writer, diplomat and mensch. As ECB representative at Cambridge University Press events abroad, I have always been concerned about attitudes towards Israel. When my colleagues abroad hear where I am from, the reaction is “You’re from Israel? Do you know Penny Ur?” When I answer in the affirmative, they ask me if I think she would come and present in the country they represent. So I’d like to add ambassador to my list of her merits. Thanks Penny!

Here’s wishing good luck to Mitzi in her new role as chair."

Gay Bergman, Israel

"To the organizing Committee of the International Conference and all the hard workers who made such a wonderful Conference possible – THANK YOU. It was an amazing social get-together, and from beginning to end (I attended all 3 days) a special experience of FUN, learning, and sharing."

Avi Tsur, Israel
You can depend on our support
Have you ever met someone from a different culture who did or said something that seemed strange to you? In this kind of situation, we find ourselves examining our expectations. In such encounters, behaviour that we assume to be natural may turn out to be cultural – that is, specific to our own culture. In intercultural encounters, we use Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) to try to figure out if our expectations are bound to our cultural context or individual, perhaps even idiosyncratic. “Compare and contrast’’ is perhaps the most helpful of HOTS in such situations.

Another HOTS that we use in such encounters is “explaining patterns.” Biologically, the most primitive part of our brain is wired to seek patterns, to decide whether the creature in front of us is friend or foe and if we should stay or flee. Mates are chosen if they are symmetrical, whereas asymmetrical animals draw the attention of predators. Tracing and explaining colour, movement and behaviour patterns can be an existential necessity.

Literary texts provide opportunities for raising awareness to the complex and problematic aspects of culture. Studying literature in the EFL classroom helps pupils develop intercultural competency. Literature provides contexts for language learners to become more aware of their own culture and to compare with the “other” culture while practicing language skills. Such comparisons foster critical and abstract thinking about the implications of cultural difference and make us more adept at using higher order thinking skills (HOTS).

Literary texts draw on our innate sensitivity to patterns: visual patterns, sound patterns and imagery patterns. By tracing and explaining aesthetic patterns in literature, students enhance their appreciation of language uses.

The main part of the presentation focused on prose and poetry appropriate for all ages, including texts listed in the Israeli high school Bagrut program. Tasks for developing intercultural awareness through these literary texts were demonstrated. A handout was distributed including diverse literary texts recommended for elementary, intermediate and Bagrut pupils with suggested activities.

*Zebra Stripes?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zebra by Gavin Ewart</th>
<th>Zebra by Jack Prelutsky</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White men in Africa</td>
<td>The zebra is undoubtedly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puffing at their pipes,</td>
<td>a source of some confusion,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think the zebra is a white horse</td>
<td>his alternating stripes present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With black stripes.</td>
<td>an optical illusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black men in Africa</td>
<td>Observing them is difficult,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With pipes of different types,</td>
<td>one quickly loses track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know the zebra is a black horse</td>
<td>of whether they are black on white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With white stripes.</td>
<td>or rather, white on black.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What do you think?

Dr. Barbara Kolan is a lecturer and former head of the English department at Achva College of Education. She is an expert in teaching literature with extensive experience in the EFL classrooms in schools and at Bar Ilan University.

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I would like say how wonderful the conference was. I truly find it inspires me and recharges my batteries – something we all need after the school year. And I too take off the hat that I don't wear to the organizers. Really – you did a splendid job and everything ran so smoothly.

Eleanor Zwebner, Israel
EXTENSIVE READING IN THE CLASSROOM: HOW TO MAKE IT WORK
Amanda Caplan (amandacaplan@gmail.com)

If you teach classes of high-level, motivated pupils who read books in their own language and like to sit quietly reading an English book, then stop reading now, you don’t need to read this! If your pupils aren’t like that, please read on and maybe you too will have a student like mine who complained “I wasted all Shabbat reading that book, I couldn’t put it down”. Unfortunately, not all my pupils say this kind of thing, but I can say that a large proportion of my pupils, including very weak ones, really read books, and even enjoy them!

There are two big questions here: why do we want our pupils to read and then, how do we get there? Many researchers explain why extensive reading aids EFL learning; for example, Bell (1998) declares:

• It can provide ‘comprehensible input’
• It can enhance learners’ general language competence
• It increases the students’ exposure to the language
• It can increase knowledge of vocabulary
• It can lead to improvement in writing
• It can motivate learners to read
• It can consolidate previously learned language
• It helps to build confidence with extended texts
• It encourages the exploitation of textual redundancy
• It facilitates the development of prediction skills

So the theory is clear, but most teachers know that when faced with up to 40 Israeli teenagers the majority of whom don’t read in their first language, putting the theory into practice is not an automatic step. How do we get our pupils to read? And especially – how do we get our weaker pupils reading? One way is to say, “I’m giving you a book report, read a book and hand in the report in three weeks.” Will that work? NO! What we need to do is to very gently introduce the idea of books, books in English, and finally, the idea of reading books in English.

Here are a number of pre-reading activities to help bridge the gap between what we want our students to do – reading books – and the limited enthusiasm our students have for reading.

1. Remind them of the books that they enjoyed when they were non-readers, the ones their parents read to them. I mention מתעשת במטישה בוליוות and מי מטל.

They remember that once they loved books. Ask them which book was their favourite.

2. Ask them to consider a few sentences about reading in English e.g., “Reading in English is difficult,” “Reading in English is boring,” “Reading in English is fun.” Hang the sentences in duplicate around the room. The pupils must read the sentences, decide whether they agree or disagree, remember their chosen sentence, return to their desks and write it out in full.

3. Match front covers of books to the blurb, working in groups.

4. Match blurbs to genre, working in groups.

5. Give each group first paragraphs from books with some LOTS questions e.g., who is the main character, where does the story take place?

6. Match book titles in English to the appropriate title in Hebrew / Arabic.

7. Complete a word search using names from famous books such as The Hobbit or the Harry Potter series.

*You can download the conference handout for ready-made materials at http://www.etai.org.il/old_handouts/2008_09.html.

These activities gradually introduce English books into the classroom. The cover of the book, including its blurb, is now familiar to the pupil and therefore less threatening. By reading the first paragraph pupils realise that they can understand English books. Whilst participating in the activities, pupils discover there are books that interest them whether it’s a book of a familiar film, or about one of their sports heroes, or maybe the cover just appeals to them. A major hurdle has been overcome – pupils discover books might actually be interesting!

Kindling their interest is the main aim of these activities. The next step is to actually get the pupils reading! I cannot stress how important it is that the pupils choose the book they want to read, we’re talking about reading for pleasure, and the teacher’s personal choices are irrelevant here. It is the school’s responsibility to provide a wide selection of books at an appropriate level. Pupils must be allowed to read ‘easy’ books rather than despair in attempts to read a book above their level; if it’s too easy, they’ll become bored and move on, when they’re ready.
Now that your pupils want to read, it’s up to you how to take advantage of the situation. You can start lessons with Sustained Silent Reading (SSR). It has a calming influence at the beginning of the lesson, making it easier to implement the rest of your lesson plan. Your pupils are now ready to complete a book journal, do book reports, or just enjoy reading. And maybe, you will also have pupils who complain that they too “wasted all Shabbat reading”!

Reference

Suggested further reading

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SOMETHING TRICKY THIS WAY COMES: SHAKESPEAREAN ADAPTATION BY EFL TEACHER TRAINEES

Jen Sundick (sundick@macam.ac.il)

“I learned for the first time in my life a Shakespeare play! Now I understand that I am able to change hard stuff into understandable pieces of literature if I will just try hard.”

This third year teacher trainee, a native Hebrew speaker, reflected excitedly on the experience of adapting and performing Shakespeare’s “Macbeth” with her classmates. Many of the students had never previously read, or seen performed, any of Shakespeare’s plays in English. Yet during the course of five sessions this third year literature class tackled Shakespeare’s original script, rewrote it, and performed it as theater-in-the-round. Students worked in groups of mixed English competencies, including native English speakers and English language learners with a wide range of levels. As this student and others reflected, the unit not only gave them confidence in understanding Shakespeare, but suggested a strategy for approaching other similarly challenging pieces of literature. The group task offered an opportunity for dynamic interaction between native speakers and ELLs that encouraged didactic, interpretative, and cooperative efforts in engaging a difficult text. It facilitated student involvement regardless of language competency.

During five sessions, these undergraduate pre-service education students and retraining teachers worked in small groups to interpret “Macbeth.” Each group allocated the work load according to the participants’ preferences and strengths. In some groups the native speakers focused on rewriting, while the ELLs organized scenery and costumes; in other groups native speakers read the original text out loud and then prompted the other participants to paraphrase and interpret as they rewrote together; other groups chose a more integrated distribution of tasks. Many students subsequently reflected on the positive group dynamics that developed. One student described “collaboration and cooperation between us all.” Another explained, “We distributed the work amongst us so everyone could do something according to their abilities. It worked out great!” Students ultimately participated in a class-wide performance, to which each group contributed several scenes. According to their reflections, the experience effectively used rewriting and drama to help bridge the gap between varied levels of English fluency within the class.

As prereading activities to appreciate Shakespearean theater, the class read and discussed a chapter of Shakespeare’s Scribe, a historical novel for teenage readers, and viewed background material on theater-in-the-round. To familiarize themselves with the play’s plot, the class read Charles and Mary Lamb’s nineteenth century prose adaptation of “Macbeth” and viewed sections of several contemporary graphic novel adaptations of the play. Groups of five to six students then worked on ten page sections from Shakespeare’s original text, which they were instructed to rewrite as they chose. Once each group had produced a script, class time was devoted to rehearsal, including attention to such staging aspects as blocking, voice, and gestures. At their initiative, groups chose to collect and create props, costumes, and scenery. Finally, the groups performed their scenes in the classroom, which had been set up as theater-in-the-round. The students reflected upon the
experience in a class discussion and written assessments. At the end of the process, the class viewed scenes from several movie versions of “Macbeth.”

In rewriting, groups encountered and found solutions to the following problems: how to convey plot details in a condensed script, adapt language that was antiquated or too difficult for English language learners, and abridge wordy passages. These problems required students to draw upon a variety of higher order thinking skills, including comprehension (understanding the meaning of text, translating, and paraphrasing), application (using comprehension skills to interpret text and conveying information in writing based upon textual comprehension), synthesis (constructing meaning from original text to rewrite as new text), and evaluation (making judgment calls about main points and word choice and summarizing plot details). They bridged plot details that were missing from their revised scripts by presenting an explanatory prose narration read in the course of the play or by introducing a speaking part for a narrator. To deal with complex language, groups chose modern or simpler words and phrases. Alternately, they retained the original Shakespearean language, but abridged passages. In some groups these choices entailed identifying rhyme schemes to decide which lines to remove, debating the appropriateness of passages, and evaluating the aesthetic and cultural significance of phrases in the original text. These discussions and strategies were sophisticated and student initiated.

This class production of “Macbeth” will hopefully encourage participants to bravely engage and find ways to meet the challenges of English literature for their future Israeli students, on whatever level. One student, in assessing which activity had been most meaningful to her throughout the semester, observed, “I learned the most from the performance of ‘Macbeth.’ By playing scenes from the play and watching others play theirs, the text became . . . alive and it helped me understand it more.” Another reflected, “It made the text our own and simplified it to a point where I could internalize what was going on.” Such a dynamic relationship to text helps develop an empowering skill set to draw upon when something tricky “this way comes.”

References

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TEENAGER’S VOICE – GRAINS OF SAND: THE FALL OF NEVE DEKALIM – A 2010 ENGLISH TEACHERS’ INTERNATIONAL SUMMER CONFERENCE POSTER SESSION EXHIBIT

Sara L. Shomron (publicist.sls@gmail.com)

The literary work Grains Of Sand: The Fall Of Neve Dekalim, a novel of historical fiction, was written by a teenager in an easy-to-read, simple but not simplified accessible English. The excitement of teens reading a book penned by a peer makes teens want to read; it motivates them and ideally will encourage them to give written expression to their own voice.

Recent Israeli history comes alive through the historically accurate, fictionalized Grains Of Sand: The Fall Of Neve Dekalim. With an insightful and poignant voice, Shifra Shomron, a teen author raised in Neve Dekaim, utilizes narrative, poetry, diary entries, news articles, photos and Biblical text to give the reader an intimate view behind the major news network coverage of the 2005 Israeli withdrawal from the Gush Katif communities in the Gaza Strip. The reader is able to blend their thoughts with the story and have a better understanding of national issues being grappled with to this very day. And readers respond to Shifra’s book; they think, they question – what if, and engage in meaningful discussion in and outside the classroom.

“Grains Of Sand” spans time and place with universal themes such as social responsibility, identity, a teen coming of age; themes of family and community; of faith, and unfulfilled dreams; of loss and hope; and the meaning of land. Shifra has heard from a diversity of readers: teens, middle-aged and older; male and female; those from different streams of Judaism and various denominations of Christianity; from Israel and abroad.

There is a literature study guide for Grains Of Sand: The Fall Of Neve Dekalim to assist the educator and reader in better understanding of the content, ideas and
Guy de Maupassant’s short story, “The Necklace,” is famous (some say infamous) for its surprise ending.¹ The final line of the story, in which Mathilde learns that the borrowed necklace that she lost was false, and the ten years she worked to pay for a new one had been for nothing, has surprised readers since the story was published in French in 1884. Admirers of the story call the ending tragic and ironic; detractors see in it a “trick ending,” a cheap ploy that takes the place of richer writing techniques. I suggest that the story’s ending can serve as the beginning of multiple interpretations of the work. By showing how such a familiar story can be read in different, unexpected, even contradictory ways, I hope to encourage English teachers wary of the literature component of the English Curriculum to appreciate the potential of great texts to inspire their students and enrich their teaching.

I first approached the story traditionally, focusing on the surprise ending. The great nineteenth century short story writer and first theorist of the genre, Edgar Allan Poe, suggested that the point of a short story is in the effect aroused in the reader, climaxing in the work’s denouement.² Poe put theory into practice in his own horror stories, creating endings crafted to leave the reader terrified. “The Necklace” works well from this perspective, with the unexpected twist of the ending leaving the reader surprised, shocked, dismayed. While students today, experienced in reading short stories, might guess the ending, the Loisels’ wasted ten years and their precipitous fall in social and economic class for absolutely nothing can still arouse an effect, feelings of sadness or anger.³

The surprise ending, then, can be a starting point for discussion of the story, though if that’s all the story has to offer, it becomes an ending point as well: the reader can only be surprised once, after all. Happily, “The Necklace” is rich enough to allow for other readings. For example, one can look at the work symbolically. In this approach, the false necklace symbolizes the falseness of Mathilde’s dreams. Mathilde threw away her life and her husband’s for a pipe dream; her vision of the lives of the rich was as much a sham as the glass necklace that destroyed her. This symbolic ending can be expanded to create a message about pursuing other false dreams, visions of riches, fame, or power that look beautiful but ultimately prove worthless.⁴ Perhaps another expression of this dark message is reflected in the epitaph that de Maupassant wrote for himself: “I have coveted everything and taken pleasure in nothing.” Another reading of the story takes an “intertextual approach,” focusing on the work’s relationship to another narrative. The story of a poor but lovely young woman who turns overnight into the belle of a ball with the help of another woman, but who returns in a degraded carriage back to everyday life – this is the story of “The Necklace,” but it is also part of the traditional tale of “Cinderella.” The opening scenes of “The Necklace” parallel the story of “Cinderella” in a number of details, including the invitation to the ball and the heroine’s triumphant evening and its abrupt conclusion. Cinderella leaves behind her slipper; Mathilde leaves behind her wealthy friend’s necklace.

The different endings share one ironic element – Cinderella’s lost slipper was made of glass, as was the “diamond” necklace. However, Cinderella’s happy ending contrasts sharply with Mathilde’s darker fate, heightening the effect of the tragedy by dashing our expectations: at story’s end, Cinderella should become a princess, not a household drudge. Perhaps de Maupassant is also questioning the value of Cinderella-style tales with their inevitable happy endings, emphasizing the harm that romanticized views of reality, like those of Mathilde, can cause.

When I teach the story, I touch on the above, familiar readings of the work and then go on to share my own
view of the story, one that is counterintuitive, even provocative. For there is one more element that “The Necklace” shares with the Cinderella story, and that is – the happy ending.

Wait a minute. What happy ending? Can ten years of backbreaking work, ten years of financial struggle, ten years wasted for a night’s false pleasure be considered happy? Yes it can – and a positive answer here hinges on one grammar point, on one word, and on a modern sensibility.

The first paragraph of the story tells us that Mathilde, her head turned by romantic dreams of an idealized world, “let herself be married to a little clerk of the Ministry of Public Instruction.” The passive construction reflects a passive heroine living in a dream world that makes her reality seem colorless and drab. With the loss of the necklace Mathilde is forced into the reality of soapsuds and shopkeepers. It isn’t pretty, but when the author uses the word “héroïquement” to describe Mathilde’s efforts he reminds us that a real heroine need not be the beautiful princess rescued by Prince Charming; she can be a work-worn woman proud to have paid her debt completely and whose calloused hands reflect a life that has been lived actively, not wasted on a false dream.

Could de Maupassant, living in 19th century France, have intended such a reading? An answer would depend on deeper study of his life and times, but we need not worry about it in order to enjoy the possibilities of the reading. For the mark of literature, of great writing, is that while it reflects the author’s ideas, conscious and unconscious, it is wide enough and rich enough to allow for different, contradictory readings, opening up as many questions as it answers, able to change and grow with the times. Literature like “The Necklace” gives the English teacher an opportunity to experience the power inherent in language. For language is a rich mine of meaning – and a great short work is a true diamond, sharp and shining and glowing with possibility.

1 Spoiler alert: In the next sentence, I give away the surprise ending. If you haven’t read the story, run and read it and then come back to the article!

2 Poe discusses his ideas about effect and denouement in what he called a “prose tale” in his review of Hawthorne’s Twice-Told Tales. He develops these ideas in relation to poetry in “The Philosophy of Composition.”

3 The one Higher Order Thinking Skill I would not use in this story is predicting; one bright pupil who guesses the end can ruin the surprise for the whole class.

4 One participant at my session told me privately that she avoided teaching “The Necklace” in her school, located in one of the richest towns in Israel, because she worried about her pupils’ reactions to a reading that symbolically called into question the value of wealth. On the other hand, I have found this larger symbolic reading resonates well with religious students who feel that a story has to have some sort of ethical message to make it worth reading. In fact, the story has been loosely adapted for use in Chareidi schools.

5 Teaching “The Necklace” brings up many questions about studying works in translation, issues beyond the scope of this article. However, since my reading hinges on a point of grammar and vocabulary, it is important to note that it “works” in the original French as well. In the original story, de Maupassant uses the passive construction, “elle se laissa marier” to describe Mathilde’s marriage, and the word used to describe her efforts at paying the debt is “héroïquement.”

Works Cited


Dr. Emmy Zitter is Chair of the English Department at Michlalah-Jerusalem College.
Some years ago, looking for authentic literature written in English from an Israeli perspective, I came upon a hundred-page poetry anthology, the Tel-Aviv Review, vol. 4. I was sure I’d struck gold, but was disappointed; my presentation at ETAI 2010 was an attempt to explain why this happened.

The poems simply did not see or show life in Israel, but rather two other views: either the writers concentrated on biblical aspects, characters and events taken from the Bible or other Jewish writings, and/or contained massive borrowings from canonical works of English literature, usually by modernists like W.B. Yeats and T.S. Eliot, and of course Shakespeare. The poetry was mostly derivative in its figurative texture, limited in subject matter, and unsuited to the concerns of my Israeli students at the college.

The Tel-Aviv Review, vol. 4, appeared shortly after Yitzhak Rabin’s assassination at the beginning of 1996. This literary journal, now defunct, was a venue for modern Hebrew prose and poetry. In an exceptional move, this volume was devoted to poetry in English written in Israel, edited by Karen Alkalay-Gut. The first part of the anthology was devoted to poems written in direct response to the assassination, and the rest was allocated to Israeli poets writing in English, many of them lecturers of English literature at universities and colleges.

My talk tried to analyze why, despite the direct involvement in the modern Israeli context that these poets explicitly profess, their writing seems so removed from it.

Here is one example of the kind of writing I discuss, the very first poem in the anthology, by Karen Alkalay-Gut, to whose introduction I shall also refer.

### The Hope / By Karen Alkalay-Gut

On the night Rabin died I dreamt I wandered the streets homeless and lonely in a crowd of confusion, ricocheting off relatives and friends barely regarded, while dogs of peace ran with panthers and tigers all loose and all free.

(II. 1-4)

The reaction to the public and political event is not only private; it is a dream, an attempt to remove the event from the concrete realm, to turn the event itself into metaphor. This tendency is evident already in the title, which is a translation of the title of the national anthem, “Hatikvah”, now removed from that context to the metaphorical death of hope in Israel. Here, at the beginning of the poem, the metaphorical mode is dominant, both in the movement from the concrete, Rabin’s assassination – to the personal, “I dreamt”. It is also dominant in two major linguistic manifestations: the creation of explicitly metaphorical idioms (e.g. “crowds of confusion”, “dogs of peace ran with panthers and tigers”), and the use of quotations from English literature. The “dogs of peace” are an ironic reference to Shakespeare’s *Julius Caesar* (3.1.273), where Anthony prophesies that the ghost of Caesar will “Cry Havoc! And let loose the dogs of war.” There is a triple or quadruple distancing from Rabin’s assassination here: first, Shakespeare’s own phrase, “the dogs of war,” is metaphorical; second, Alkalay-Gut applies this, strangely enough, to supporters of Rabin; third, Rabin’s death thus becomes an analogy of Caesar’s murder; and fourth, the reader – even the educated reader who recognizes this intertextual play – is forced to consider the series of analogies, rather than contemplate Rabin’s death and its ramifications. In other words, Rabin’s assassination has been aesthetisized out of existence, and together with it all Israeli reality.

Why does this happen? Alkalay-Gut herself suggests one reason. In her introduction to the anthology, “The English Writer in Israel,” Alkalay-Gut calls the writers “stubborn immigrants (19)” for staying here and pursuing writing careers. She notes that they “came here of their own volition to join in a Jewish community, and yet chose at some level to remain foreigners within this community,” and they “maintain deep and conflicting loyalties (17).” The dual loyalty is to Israel as their place of residence and everyday life, and to the English-speaking country of origin as the place of cultural identification. At the end of the poem Alkalay-Gut writes:

The river was solid and the earth Liquid under our feet – the worst walked on water while the best fell in the treacherous sands

Nothing held the dream together and everything could fall apart at any random moment

(II. 17-23)

These lines are a deliberate reference to W.B. Yeats’s apocalyptic poem, “The Second Coming,” where he...
says that “the centre cannot hold.” For Yeats this means that the centrifugal forces surrounding the center will tear it apart. For the immigrant poet the center is not Israel, Israel is “the dream.” The center is in the country and culture of the mother tongue, and the English writer is dependent on the recognition of this faraway center for his or her identity as a writer. Shakespeare and Yeats symbolize Alkalay-Gut’s stable cultural center, and its collapse is unthinkable. Anarchy refers only to Israel, which is a “dream” – so that “everything [can] fall apart / at any random moment.” The fear that the dream will break apart, then, is the reason for using the words of the “center” to bolster it.

The immigrant’s fear of Israeli anarchy leads to a muteness about Israel that is overcome by saying the magic words, the words of the mother-tongue, the mother-culture. This is a form of denial that occurs in many of the poems in the Tel-Aviv Review, while in many others the volatile Israeli experience is stabilized – and again denied – by pairing it with biblical eternities.

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I have always loved poetry. I have loved reading it, attempting to write it, analyzing it, and listening to it being read. Mostly, I have loved teaching poetry, particularly for ESL/EFL learners. During my 24 year teaching career as an 11th and 12th grade teacher of English at the Hebrew Gymnasia in Jerusalem, I was particularly fond of the poetry unit that we reached in the 12th grade. Additionally, my lively student feedback invariably encouraged me to create new and varied ways of approaching and utilizing the poems that we then found in The EMT (English Matriculation Texts) by Alice Shalvi, Linda Zisquit, and Peter Cole.

There are several reasons that I have always found poetry intensely interesting and useful as a language-learning tool. Poetry is concentrated thought. A few lines, indeed a few words, can carry a huge load of meaning and, thus, generate an enormous amount of language. For example, when Edwin Arlington Robinson tells us that his “Richard Cory” (Shalvi et al. p. 12) was “a gentleman from head to crown,” we can immediately speculate on issues such as what did he look like? What did he wear? Where did he live? Who were his friends? Why was he admired? How is a person a gentleman? How is being a gentleman different from being a gentle man? Or a gentle woman? We have, in my classes, stumbled from the ridiculous to the sublime on these issues. For example, does Richard Cory carry an umbrella? A walking stick? What kind of watch does he wear? Does he have a dog?

Another reason I find poetry to work so well in the language classroom is its fundamental value as an oral art. Poetry asks, actually it demands, not only to be read out loud, but also to be repeated. A poem must be read over and over again, each time with a slightly different language learning task. A skillfully teacher-read poem invites first reactions. A chorally read poem zings with language favor, and a poem read with a partner, or in a small group to classmates is a fine invitation for discussion. Individually read poems during a class poetry reading demand much practice. They require presentation and performance skills.

In addition, the most important reason for my great enjoyment of poetry as a language-teaching tool is that poetry offers both readers and writers patterns that invite creative thinking and writing. Everyone, it turns out, is a poet. We are all poets because emotions are legitimate subject matter for poetry, and because poetry offers the kind of patterns that allow us to express our emotions through established resources. These prototypes, I have found, liberate our thoughts while they give us enough structure to formulate those thoughts.

The best part of teaching poetry in the language classroom is the concept of poetic license, which gives the learner a possibility to play with language without the worry of making mistakes. In poetry, as E.E. Cummins has so amply demonstrated (Shalvi pp. 219-221), a “mistake” in grammar is just the thing that turns you into an original poet!

Some of the patterns that I have found successful and that we worked on together during this year’s ETAI International Conference in Jerusalem are explored below. The group became particularly involved with the 10 line “It is” place poem, which I describe in detail below. Prior to writing the poem, participants spoke about places that have been meaningful in their lives. The title of the poem we were going to write was simply, “What is _________ to me?”

Each participant wrote the name or the description of a place in the blank. The titles could be as varied as “New York City,” “My Childhood Neighborhood,” “home,” or “Granma’s kitchen.” The title was to be followed by ten lines each beginning with “It is…” I usually give ten minutes for the actual writing – one line per minute. Amazingly, most participants in Jerusalem finished in half the time! And the poems were wonderful! I will never forget the lady who was writing about home, and whose poem began with the line, “It is the place where I can take off my hat!”

Below are examples from other workshops:

**What is My Country to Me?**

- It is my mother. When I make mistake, it will forgive me
- It is my wife. When I feel sad, it will sit beside me.
- It is my children. When I like to express out of my chest, I will talk with it.
- It is my book. When I like to spend my spare time, I will read it.
- It is my pen. When I feel to write about love, I will write with it.
- It is my eraser. When I feel like erase something bad from my mind, I will remember the happy days I live in it.
- It is my lungs that I will breathe fresh air with it
- It is my eyes that I will see the light after dark with it.
It is my life. I was born in it and I will die in it.  
It is my heart.  
It is my love  
It is everything to me.  
My life is nothing without it.

*a very homesick student 11/3/98  
Center for English as a Second Language (CESL),  
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What is school to me?  
It is an addiction.  
It is exhilarating.  
It is learning things that seem impossible.  
It is a place for growing and achieving.  
It is expensive.  
It is money well spent.  
It is the ability to thumb my nose at all those who thought I couldn’t do it.  
It is where I can be “student” when all day I am “teacher.”  
It is what made me ME!
By Isabelle Santa Cruz – 4th grade teacher, Yuma, Arizona, Summer ‘06

As soon as participants have finished writing the poems, they stand up to mingle with classmates. Poems are read to any partner one meets and can be repeatedly read and commented on. During my demonstration in Jerusalem, volunteers read their poems to the entire group. Once the chain of readings had started, everyone wanted to contribute. We virtually travelled around the world in what became an intensely shared experience of meaningful places. Memories of places consistently bring us recollections of pride, dignity, comfort, and belonging, and patterns allow such memories to be codified and shared.

We didn’t have much time for anything else during the demonstration in Jerusalem, but in my classes, we take these poems home, think about them and perhaps re-write them. In the follow-up sessions we post our poems on the walls of the class, read one-another’s work, and comment positively on the blank page posted next to each poem.

We create poetry readings in which students read one another’s poems, previously consulting about language and pronunciation with the author. We create class journals of poetry, which we can publish in either paper editions or online. We can illustrate with photographs or art work, and we can read poems that have found their inspiration in places such as E. E. Houseman’s “A Shropshire Lad,” another one of the poems that used to be included in the Matriculation Program (Shavi et al p. 117).

Below is a sample of other patterns that has worked well and elicited much language. Enjoy!

**Varieties of Pattern Poems**

**The Couplet**
This is the simplest rhyming pattern. It consists of two rhyming lines that usually bring out a humorous twist. The lines can be any length, but make sure that the rhythm and the rhyme match the thought and mood of the poem.

**Examples:**
The teacher called the students in  
Then wished he could escape the din!  
I love ice-cream on my lips  
But I don’t like it on my hips  
Can’t you really figure out  
What our school is all about?

**The Lantern Poem**  
Lantern poems are shaped like Japanese lanterns.

Here is how you write a lantern poem:

- First line: one syllable  
- Second line: two syllables  
- Third line: three syllables  
- Fourth line: four syllables  
- Fifth line: one syllable

**Examples:**
Boys  
Climbing  
Running Fast  
Playing some games  
Fast  
Sky  
So blue  
Many clouds  
Above the earth  
Now
The Haiku
The Haiku is an unrhymed Japanese poem containing five, seven, and five syllables respectively. It is usually light and delicate in feeling and talks about something beautiful in nature.

Examples:
Loud crashing thunder
And then the rain pouring down
The rainbow appears
Sweet daisies smiling
Like little sunshines at me
Swedish summer day

Tanka
The Tanka is another oriental poem, very much like the Haiku, except that it has two more lines of seven syllables each. The Tanka has a total of 31 syllables.

Here is how the Tanka looks:

Line one: 5 syllables
Line two: 7 syllables
Line three: 5 syllables
Line four: 7 syllables
Line five: 7 syllables

Example:
The gate is unlocked
Boys and girls with shining shoes
And full lunch boxes
Gather to talk of summer
While they listen for the bell.

Cinquain
The Cinquain is a short poem made up of five lines.

Here is how it looks:

Line one: One word made up of two syllables (This can be the title.)
Line two: Four syllables describing the subject of the title
Line three: Six syllables showing action
Line four: Eight syllables expressing feeling or observation about the subject
Line five: Two syllables describing or re-naming the subject

Examples:
Kittens
Frisky, playful
Mewing, bouncing, jumping
Creep silently on padded feet
Mischief

Mountain
Isolated
Snowcapped and cloud touching
White against shining azure sky
High Peak

The Diamond Poem
This poem is named for its shape. It compares two things. Linguistically speaking, it uses nouns, adjectives, present participles (the “ing” form of the verb), and adverbs. It describes one object and half-way through after the second adverb in the fourth line it switches to describing the compared object.

Start the poem by considering the two objects/people you will compare

First line: names first object/person – one word
Second line: two words associated with object
Third line: three participles describing object
Fourth line: four adverbs, two describing 1st subject last two describing 2nd object
Fifth line: three participles describing second object/subject/person
Sixth line: two words associated with second object
Seventh line: names second object/person – one word

Examples:

Corn
Tortillas, grain
Grinding, cooking, tasting
Delicately, deliciously, cheerfully, painfully
Burning, glowing, rising
Sun
Darcy
Reward, punishment
Piercing, pointing, placing
Severely, strictly, kindly, forgivingly
Sharing, giving, promising
Reader, knower
Teacher
Acrostic
The basic acrostic is a poem in which the first letters of the lines read downward forming a word, a phrase or a sentence. Acrostics are easy to write. They should first be tried with student names. Start with one word and move to sentences. Then the acrostic can become a paragraph.

Example: (The word is Perception)
Pizaro went back to ask for permission.
Every Inca thought the Spanish were gods.
Reception for the Spanish was friendly.
Cajamarca was the home of the Incas.
Emperor Althualpa did not know about Christianity.
Pizaro held the emperor captive.
The emperor did not think the Spanish immortal Incas at first trusted the Spaniards
Offers were made to help Altahualpa
New perceptions came later

The Bio Poem
A “bio-poem” encapsulates your life and your opinions in a very basic and poetic form. In the ELL framework, we can use bio poems in many interesting ways:
• Students can introspect and write about their own lives, share their poems and thus learn about one another.
• Students can interview classmates and write bio-poems about one another.
• Students can write bio-poems about characters in stories.
• Students can write bio-poems about historical figures.
• Students can write bio poems about members of their families.
• Students can write bio-poems about people they admire.
• A class can collect bio poems from all class-mates and create a bio poem book for the whole class. This makes an excellent conclusion to a writing class. If each student gets a copy of the book, students can write notes in one another’s books – year-book style.

The Basic Bio-Poem Pattern
Line One: First Name_____________________
Line Two: three “ing” verb forms describing the person
Line Three: Relative of _________________
Line Four: Lover of _____________________ (List several people and/or things)

Line Five: Who feels ____________________________
(several things)
Line Six: Who needs ____________________________
(several things)
Line Seven: Who fears ____________________________
(several things)
Line Eight: Who gives ____________________________
(several things)
Line Nine: Who would like to see ____________________________
(several things)
Line ten: Resident of ____________________________
Line eleven: Last Name ________________________

Example from Yuma Teacher
Elizabeth
Hard-working, trying, setting goals
Mother of Susan, James, and baby Anna
Lover of ice-cream, daisies, and Yuma clear skies
Who feels frustrated in her work, but happy and grateful to have a job just the same.
Who needs a hug every day and more time.
Who fears terrorism, disease, and old age.
Who gives of herself every day.
Who would like to see her children as successful adults and her professional goals accomplished.
Resident of this beautiful world and sunny Arizona
Stewart

The Metaphor Poem
Brainstorm
Marriage: Union / Onion / Melting / Blanket – Safety / Rings / Companion / Love / Two birds flying together / Hope/Comfort/Holding Together/Children/Friendship / Soulmates / Trust
Marriage is an onion
Folding itself together through layers of
Love, comfort, trust and union
Marriage is a blanket
Embracing us in safety, comfort and companionship
School is ____________

Simile Poem
Teaching
Teaching is as comfortable as a pair of worn slippers
Teaching is as joyous as a singing lark
Teaching is as varied as a newborn rainbow
Teaching is as stretching as a blown balloon
Teaching is as soft as a feathered bed.
Teaching is as scary as a deadly ghost
Teaching is as hard as the hardest rock
Teaching is as prickly as a porcupine
Teaching is as tricky as a gambling knight
Teaching is as chilling as an ice-cold night
Teaching is like nothing else in sight.
Many of the examples above are not original with me but were brought to me by students in various courses. Sadly, I can no longer give credit to the original authors.

References:

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“I was happy to become part of the 2010 conference and surely I am looking forward to further professional development through the association as an international ETAI member.

I would also like to say that I was very fortunate to be a participant of this well-organized and extremely enjoyable conference. It was a truly memorable experience, I have learned a lot from the wonderful plenary lectures and talks at sessions. Congratulations on a successful conference!

Well done for all the work the ETAI conference committee has put into the event!

Marina Rassokha, Russia

Greetings from Austria.

Just to let you know I really enjoyed the conference and the tour I did of your beautiful country afterwards. I still look back to my time in Israel with fond memories.

Karen White, Austria
We look forward to seeing you at
ETAI’s Annual Winter Conference
“Myths & Truths in English Teaching”

Ben Gurion University of the Negev

December 5th, 2010
8:30 – 16:30

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