INFORMATION TO USERS

This material was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or “target” for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is “Missing Page(s)”. If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.

2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.

3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in “sectioning” the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again — beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.

4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value; however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from “photographs” if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of “photographs” may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.

5. PLEASE NOTE: Some pages may have indistinct print. Filmed as received.

Xerox University Microfilms
500 North Zeed Road
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106
SALCZER, David Otto, 1932-
ENGLISH EDUCATION IN THE ISRAELI SCHOOL SYSTEM.
The Ohio State University, Ph.D., 1975
Education, general

Xerox University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

Copyright by
David Otto Salczer
1975
ENGLISH EDUCATION IN
THE ISRAELI SCHOOL SYSTEM

DISSertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By

David Otto Salazar, B.A., M.A.

* * * * *

The Ohio State University
1975

Reading Committee:
Dr. Donald R. Bateman
Dr. Robert L. Chazan
Dr. Yehiel Hayon

Approved By

Donald R. Bateman
Adviser
Department of Humanities Education
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I should like to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Donald R. Bateman, Dr. Yehiel Hayon, and Dr. Robert L. Chazan for their assistance in the preparation of this dissertation.

I wish to extend sincere thanks to Mr. Raphael Gefen, Dr. Moshe Smilansky, Dr. Elite Olshtain, Ms. Sheila Sar-Shalom, and Mr. Yitzhak Ernest who so willingly gave of their time and attention during my research in Israel, to Ms. Sally Overbey for typing and to Mr. James Calland for his fine editing assistance.

Special appreciation and deep gratitude are expressed to Dr. Marvin Fox for his unwavering encouragement and advice.

My sincere appreciation is extended to my wife for her typing, interest, and thoughtfulness throughout the course of this undertaking.
VITA

January 3, 1932 ................ Born - M. Ostrava, Czechoslovakia

1961 ................ Teacher's Certificate - Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, Israel

1970 ................ B.A. The Ohio State University Columbus, Ohio

1971-1974 .............. Teaching Associate of Hebrew Language and Literature, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

1972 ................ M.A., The Ohio State University Columbus, Ohio

1974-present ............ Lecturer of Hebrew Language and Literature, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Field: English Education/Tesol

Adult Education. Dr. John Ohliger

Studies in Hebrew. Dr. Yehiel Hayon
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACKNOWLEDGMENTS</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VITA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. THE ISRAELI EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. THE ENGLISH CURRICULA IN THE ISRAELI SCHOOL SYSTEM</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. THE ENGLISH MATRICULATION EXAMINATION</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONCLUSION</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF REFERENCES</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION

When one speaks of foreign language education in the U.S., many languages come to mind. Some of the languages being taught are French, Spanish, German, and Russian. The choice of which language to teach is contingent upon the priorities set by the particular local board of education, which in turn may be influenced by the ethnic affiliation of that community, geographic location, or other considerations.

The decision-making process, and ultimately the decision itself, may therefore vary considerably from state to state or from community to community. The selection of a language is followed by a number of other equally important questions, such as: "What are the objectives to be achieved in the teaching of the particular language?;" "Should the instruction be culture-oriented, or should language skills be stressed?"

There are many sub-questions that can be asked; e.g., if more emphasis is to be put on literature (culture), should the literature be classical, or modern, or both? Is it preferable to select one piece of literature and delve into it in depth, or is it more important to expose the students to a wider range of literary works on a more superficial level? In other words, should it be a question of quality
versus quantity? On the other hand, if language instruction enjoys the higher level of priority, which aspect of it or which skill should be emphasized? Should it be translation and grammar, or should it be oral and/or written communication, or all four? Should it again be a question of quantity versus quality? And what about the questions of methodology, textbooks, etc.?

Thus, in two given communities where the same foreign language has been chosen, the two language programs may differ totally in goals, content, structure, methodology and final results.

In contrast to what has been said thus far, what are the criteria by which English is taught as a foreign language, especially in countries outside the United States? Is the decentralization of programs as widespread there as it is in this country? Are there places where the opposite, i.e., a totally centralized uniform structure of curricula, can be found? And if so, how does it operate and how successful is it?

The purpose of this dissertation is to describe and investigate these latter questions. The information gathered in this descriptive study may be helpful for those interested in

(1) foreign language education in general

(2) the teaching of English as a foreign language in general, and specifically in foreign countries.
(3) English language instruction in a country with a nationally standardized teaching and testing program in its school system

(4) the current shift of priorities within the framework of teaching English as a foreign language

(5) some of the problems arising from teaching English in a country where it is a non-cognate language for the natives (with all of the difficulties that it implies) and still the most popular foreign language.

The country chosen for the purpose of this study is Israel.

Israel (a small nation with a population of approximately three million) is the ideal place to find the necessary information for the previously described purpose. It has a centralized, uniform structure of curricula, a nationally standardized teaching and testing program, and English (a language non-cognate to Hebrew) is the most popular foreign language taught there.

Some of the reasons for the significance of the English language in Israel can be attributed to the following:

(1) Hebrew (the official language of the land) is considered by many people to be a holy tongue. Outside of Israel, however, modern Hebrew, as a language of communication, has little practical value.
(2) English is the most widely used international language in the Western world.

(3) English is one of the most important languages insofar as technological terminology is concerned.

(4) The English language gained prominence in Israel (at that time, Palestine) during the British Mandate period (which lasted from the end of WWI until the establishment of the State in 1948), and was an official language during this period.

(5) Many Palestinian Jews served in the British Army during WWII.

Since the State of Israel maintains strong economic, scientific and cultural ties with the United States, points (2) and (3) are particularly significant.

It is not the intention of the main body of this study:

(1) to find solutions for the existing problems of English teaching in Israel in particular

(2) to provide a comprehensive description of the Israeli educational system

(3) to criticize the policies, curricula, or syllabi of the Israeli Ministry of Education and Culture concerning English education in that country.

A. Procedure

In addition to all the available data and literature on the subject (which, in certain cases, was limited) a personal fact-finding tour to Israel was conducted in
August-September of 1974. It included interviews with as many people connected in some way with English Education in Israel as possible. More specifically, with people who are involved in the policy-making process in the Ministry of Education and Culture, such as members of the Planning Center for the Teaching of English, the Chief English Inspector, other English inspectors, university professors in the field of teacher education, English education and English textbook preparation; school principals, "master teachers," teachers, and students.

There were also visits to English classes in grades 10, 11, and 12.

B. Content

This dissertation consists of three chapters, appendices and a bibliography.

Chapter I is a general overview, but by no means a comprehensive study, of the Israeli educational system. It attempts to describe the Israeli educational system--its background, and organizational and institutional frameworks, in order to facilitate the reader's understanding of English education within that system, in the proper perspective.

Chapter II describes the English curriculum in the Israeli school system--its origin, formation and the controversy it generated.

Chapter III discusses the culmination of the students' 8-year long study of English, the nationally formulated
Matriculation Examinations which are designed to reflect the final results of the complete English program. Chapter III describes the most recent, and not so recent, changes in the structure and content of the Matriculation Exam, and some of the problems which accompanied these changes. Following Chapter III there is a conclusion. Incidentally, the Bibliography contains the list of literature used in the preparation of this study, and books or other works, which, although not utilized in this project, are in some way related to the subject discussed here.
CHAPTER I

THE ISRAELI EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

In September 1949 the First Knesset (Israeli Parliament) passed the Compulsory Education Law. The introduction of free and Compulsory primary education during a period of unprecedented mass immigration and consequent economic hardships, indicates the high priority given to education in Israel.

The following aspects of the Israeli Educational System will be discussed in this chapter.

I. The Educational Background

II. The Organizational Framework of the Educational System

III. The Institutional Framework of the Educational System.

I. The Educational Background

Education in the State of Israel did not commence on May 14, 1948, with the official declaration of Independence and proclamation of Statehood. It is, instead, a confirmation of the successive historical processes of Jewish Education which had existed for many centuries. Hence, it is almost impossible to properly understand the objectives,
problems, difficulties, successes and failures of the Israeli educational system since the establishment of the State without the necessary background information.

On the other hand, it would be equally difficult to describe, in full, the history of Jewish education within the scope of this study. Since mass Jewish immigration in modern times began in the late nineteenth century, the educational activities in the Turkish-occupied Palestine of that time will be the starting point of this discussion.

The educational activities of the Old Yishuv (The Jewish settlement prior to the influx of Jewish immigrants beginning in 1881) were primarily religious in nature. The new immigrants however, created a change in the composition of the Jewish population by supplementing, or sometimes substituting the existing religious values with nationalist, Zionist values. Eventually, a variety of types of schools financed and sponsored by Jewish philanthropic and Zionist organizations from all over the world were established.

The most important of these organizations were the Alliance Israelite Universelle, the Anglo-Jewish Association, the Hilfsverein der deutschen Juden, and the Hovevei Zion.

A. Alliance Israelite Universelle

This French-Jewish philanthropic organization made its mark on the Palestinian educational system for the first time in 1870, when it built the Mikveh Yisrael Agricultural
School which, to this day, is a leading school of its type in Israel. It was built on land received on concession from the Turkish government. Its greatest contribution to the new type of education was the training of experts in the various fields of agriculture, who eventually were to assume leading roles in the subsequent establishment of collective and cooperative settlements.

The priorities of the previously mentioned "new type" of education reflected the values imported by the new waves of immigration, particularly the second wave (1903-1914). This wave originated in Russia and was prompted by the recurring pogroms against the Jewish population, along with the new spirit of nationalism and socialism, and valued the creation of a new kind of Jew. A Jew of vigor, manhood, pride and signity. This Zionist idea could become a reality only if the Jew could again become a productive, self sufficient member of his own society. This, in turn, could only be achieved by the complete reconstruction of Jewish life. A return to productivity meant simply a return to the Land, and to its soil. Tilling the soil and consequently living on its fruits became a religion. Manual labor became extremely honorable and essential. These young, energetic, enthusiastic and idealistic people came to "build the Land and be rebuilt" by it. They were rejecting the immediate, bleak past and instead were drawing sustenance from the glorious Biblical times when their ancestors tilled
freely their own soil, in their own land.

Thus the new ideology called for the immediate rejuvenation of agriculture. The Alliance 'answered the call' by establishing and developing a number of agricultural, vocational, and technical institutions in Palestine. By 1914 it was operating 15 educational institutions, whose language of instruction until 1914 was French. The teachers of these institutions were trained at the Alliance Normal School of Paris.

B. The Anglo-Jewish Association

Both the Alliance and the Anglo-Jewish Association worked for the advancement of Jewish interests. However, whereas the Alliance had a world-wide membership, the Association drew its members exclusively from the British Empire. Its main function was to promote Jewish, not necessarily Zionist education. It supported the Jewish Agency, which was established as an apolitical agency whose object was to appeal to Zionists and non-Zionists alike to support a Jewish reality in Palestine, furthering Jewish life there, but not necessarily a Jewish State.

C. The Hilfsverein der deutschen Juden

The Hilfsverein was founded in Berlin in 1901 with its aim to "promote the moral, cultural, and economic development (of the Jews), especially in Eastern Europe and Asia." It began its educational activities in Palestine in 1903. By
1914 it had established 50 different types of educational institutions ranging from kindergartens to a teacher-training institute with a total enrollment of about 7,000. Being a German-Jewish organization, it introduced German as the major language of instruction, which led to a major language controversy with the founding of the Technion (Israel Institute of Technology) in 1913. From that time, however, German influence declined in Palestine. In 1917 the Turkish rule ended in Palestine and the British occupation began. Consequently, the Hilfsverein schools were considered as enemy property, and were handed over to the Zionist Organization, which took over the operation of these schools.

D. The Hovevei Zion (Lovers of Zion)

The Hibbat Zion (The Love for Zion) movement came into being as a result of the 1881 pogroms in Russia. It was also strongly influenced by the new nationalistic spirit. It was this movement that inspired the first group of immigrants (First Aliya), the members of BILU, to settle in Palestine in 1882. Once in Palestine, they contributed greatly to the foundation of the Hebrew national school system. It should be mentioned that the still very influential Hebrew Teachers' Association was organized by the leader of the Hovevei Zion groups, Menahem Ussishkin.

In addition, members of these groups can be credited with the development of secondary education in Palestine. The
best example of this endeavor is the establishment of the Gymnasia Herzlia which was not only the first Hebrew secondary school in Palestine, but also probably the most respected school in the country.

The major contribution of these four organizations was the foundation of the secular and mixed secular-religious educational system. The Jewish national system developed gradually during the British Mandate in Palestine.

E. The Jewish National School System

Two major events—the Balfour Declaration (issued by Lord Balfour, the British Foreign Minister on November 12, 1917), and the British Mandate over Palestine (approved by Council of the League of Nations in 1922), contributed greatly to the gradual development of a Jewish National School System.

The Balfour Declaration contained the promise of the establishment of a Jewish National Home in Palestine. The Mandate, on the other hand, clearly provides the right for the maintenance of the "Jewish County's" own schools.

"The Mandatory shall see that complete freedom of conscience and the free exercise of all forms of worship, subject only to the maintenance of public order and morals, are ensured to call. No discrimination of any kind shall be made between the inhabitants of Palestine on the ground of race, religion, or language. No person shall be excluded from Palestine on the sole ground of his religious belief."
The right of each community to maintain its own schools for the education of its own members in its own language, while conforming to such educational requirements of a general nature as the Administration may impose, shall not be denied or impaired.  

During the Mandate period, the Jewish public school system was neither free nor compulsory and included those kindergartens, elementary and secondary schools, and teacher-training schools (seminaries) which were controlled and financed mainly by the Va'ad Leumi. In 1929 the Jewish public school system was taken over by the Jewish Agency but the general responsibility for administration of the school system remained in the hands of the Va'ad Leumi.

Close cooperation existed between the Va'ad Leumi and the Government Department of Education on matters of budget, teacher licensura, and school inspection.

There was an administrative separation between the Arab and Jewish educational systems. This separation began in 1917. In December of 1917 the British took Jerusalem, and from that time the city and the southern part of the Land was under military control. This control was administered by the Occupied Enemy Territory Administration (OETA), which also dealt with matters of health and education. Because of the temporary nature of the situation the OETA chose to continue the previous Turkish system, however, they changed the language of instruction from Turkish to Arabic. As a result
the Government schools were primarily serving the Arab children, mainly the Moslems among them. The Christian students continued their studies at the church schools and the Jewish, likewise, attempted to preserve their autonomy. This situation prevailed until the end of the Mandate. If the preservation of the autonomy of the Jewish schools can be considered a definite advantage, it also held a serious disadvantage; the Jewish schools, being non-governmental schools, received no financial aid from the authorities.

The results of the administrative separation of the two systems can be summed up in the following way:

On the positive side is the maintenance of autonomy. On the negative side; in addition to the financial and administrative difficulties, one cannot appraise or estimate the damage that may have been caused by the split and gap created between Arab and Jewish youth that grew up side by side and yet so far apart.

Other differences.—Among the Moslems, education was not universal, although the number of students and schools increased under the British rule. Since the English culture was considered to be "the best" one, the Arab (Moslem) students were fed this culture, which they absorbed but without any particular conviction or involvement. Internally, however, they remained as nationalistic as ever, perhaps precisely because their own culture was totally neglected within the educational system.
The Jew, on the other hand, being more independent, succeeded in perpetuating the Jewish culture and values within their schools.

In retrospect, the above mentioned gap that existed between the Arab and Jewish youths could have perhaps been bridged, or at least narrowed, if "cross-culture education" had taken place. For instance, had Arab history been taught to Jewish students, and Jewish history to Arabs, the chance of mutual understanding between the nationalities would have been considerably higher.

F. The Jewish School System between 1920-1932

At the beginning of this period the Zionist Executive intended to achieve 3 objectives: (1) to bring all the Jewish schools under one management, (2) to use one language (Hebrew) as a language of instruction and (3) to bring all elementary school-age children to the schools.

There was good progress towards the achievement of all three objectives. The Executive set up a Board of Education, with nine members, to run the schools. Approximately two thirds of the classes were conducted in Hebrew. And education, up to the age of fourteen, was almost universal. However, this initial success did not last too long. The Zionist Organization suffered from rather heavy deficits and consequently new priorities had to be set; immigration received a higher degree of preference than education. As a result of this new reality it was decided that the financial
burden of education should be placed upon the local Jewish Community, which at that time (1924) had not yet learned to tax itself, and so the burden fell on the schools themselves. Kindergartens, secondary and vocational schools were hardest hit by this new reality. Nevertheless, these three types of schools survived somehow, mainly by raising their fees and with the help of voluntary bodies. Among the three, the vocational schools almost ceased to exist (since vocational education requires expensive equipment) until such voluntary bodies as ORT, Amal, and WIZO came to their rescue.

G. The 'Trends'

Jewish education was divided into three 'Trends': General, Religious and Labor, each with its own autonomous inspectorate.

The first division arose from the creation of 'Religious' schools, as opposed to the 'General' schools, which were not specifically religious. The first teachers in the Hebrew schools (before WWII) were mostly 'Maskilim' (enlightened). These teachers, who were impressed and affected by Western culture, felt that the return to Palestine was not necessarily a religious, but rather a national ideal. Consequently, education in the schools did not include religious instruction; there were no prayers and the Bible was taught in the spirit of criticism.

There were, however, parents who still insisted on traditional education for their children, yet they wanted to
provide for them a secular education as well. Thus, in 1904, a 'reformed' Heder (traditional-religious) school was founded in Jaffa, combining general subjects (such as Math, Science and Foreign Language) with religious subjects (such as Bible, Talmud and Religious Laws). Also in 1904 a religious political party, the Mizrahi was formed which strongly supported schools of this kind.

The third 'Trend' was the Labor Trend. This 'Trend' originated mainly in the agricultural settlements, such as the Kibbutz (collective-commune) and the Moshav Ovdim (cooperative village). The objects in these schools were to teach and realize the ideals of socialism. The emphasis in these schools was on manual work and self government, based on the theory that 'free' education is the necessary basis for a free society.

The 'Trend' system too, had its advantages and disadvantages.

1. The disadvantages
   
   (a) The tripartite division caused administrative complications, since each 'Trend' had to be separately administered.

   (b) Each 'Trend' was backed by influential political parties and party funds. As a result pressure was often brought on parents to send their children to a certain 'Trend' School.
(c) Reputations of teachers could rise or fall with the reputation of the 'Trend' they represented.

2. Advantages

(a) The competition between schools on the educational level encouraged teachers to improve their methods and performance.

(b) Since the educational system has split along ideological lines, basic values, ideals and beliefs became central educational issues.

(c) The analysis of the educational system led to the realization that mere imitation of foreign systems are irrelevant and useless under the uniquely different circumstance.

In summary, the Mizrahi's aim in education was to perpetuate the traditional 'Jewish way of life' in a modern world. The educators of the 'Labor Trend' believed in socialism as a substitute for religion and in pioneering as the 'Jewish way of life.' The 'General Trend' teachers opposed both socialism and orthodoxy and advocated nationalism above all.

H. 1932-1948

By 1932 the control of the Jewish educational system had been transferred from the Jewish Agency to the Va'ad Leumi14 and the voluntary aid of national and local bodies reached a new peak. When the Jewish Agency gave up its control over
the educational system it also limited its financial participation to a small annual grant. In 1945, of a total budget of nearly £1,500,000 controlled by the Va'ad Leumi, less than 20 percent came from central funds—the grants of Government and the Jewish Agency—and over 80 percent came from local contributions and school fees. As a result of this high level voluntary spirit, an almost universal elementary education was maintained, although there was no law of compulsory education.

According to the Education Ordinance of 1933, the Va'ad Leumi Schools were recognized as 'public'—there was now a 'Hebrew Public System,' parallel to the 'Arab Public system.' With the expansion of the system the weaknesses resulting from the lack of one management became more noticeable. In 1939, Jerome Farrell (a Government Director of Education) addressed a Memorandum to the Va'ad Leumi, with recommendations for reform of their administrative machiner, including, first and foremost, the abolition of the 'Trends.' But the 'Trends' with their strong party backing and support were opposed. It was not until 1953, with the implementation of the Israel Law of State Education that the 'Trend' system was finally abolished.

I. **English Education**

English was introduced into elementary and secondary schools in Palestine with the British conquest of the area
in 1917-18, and has been taught ever since. Before 1917-18, in some schools no foreign languages were taught, and in others German or French were studied. The attitude toward English education under British rule was complex. During the period of the British Mandate there were objections to the teaching of English:

1. The prevalent nationalistic and pioneering spirit placed a strong emphasis on the cultivation of the Hebrew language. The fear was that introduction of English (or, for that matter, any other foreign language) would diminish the status of Hebrew. In other words, some people feared that English instruction would be at the expense of Hebrew and that eventually the teaching of English could lead to assimilation into Anglo-Saxon culture.

2. Other objections were based on the political realities of the times. The Jewish population, particularly just before and during W.W. II. was in a severe political conflict with Great Britain. At that time the Jewish Community was simultaneously involved in the struggle against Nazi Germany and against the British Government, which was pursuing a rather restrictive policy against the Jewish people in Palestine. This clash between Jewish nationalism and British rule produced an unwillingness, on the part of some, to study the English language.

Those who supported the teaching of English responded to these arguments claiming that (1) the British Government never
tried to legally impose the English culture upon the Jewish (or any other) population, (2) that Hebrew language and literature is strong, secure, and rich enough to resist any threat from English. (3) The conflict between the Jews of Palestine and the British Government is no reason for ignoring the greatness of English culture, history, language and democracy. Insofar as the methodology of teaching English was concerned; under the British regime the 'translation method,' based on grammar and passive vocabulary, was the prevalent one (as opposed to the 'direct method,' based on the oral approach and active vocabulary, which was used after 1948).

The conditions under which English was taught during the period of British rule were relatively good:

(1) English was taught 5 hours a week beginning in Grade 5 (after the establishment of the State of Israel, English education was 3 hours per week and began in Grade 6).

(2) Because this period preceded the waves of mass-immigration after 1948, classes were less populated and more homogeneous.

(3) Teachers formed a more homogeneous group than in the post-1948 period.

(Unfortunately, attempts to acquire data regarding the rate of achievement, success or failure during the Mandate period, proved unsuccessful.)
II The Organizational Framework of the Educational System

According to Article 2 of the 1953 State Education Act, State education is based "on the values of Jewish culture and the achievements of science, on love of the homeland and loyalty to the State and the Jewish people, on practice in agricultural work and handicraft, on Halutzic (pioneer) training, and on striving for a society built on freedom, equality, tolerance, mutual assistance and love of mankind." 17

A. Legislation of Education

1. The Compulsory Education Law

The State of Israel was established on May 14, 1948 and in September of 1949 the First Knesset 18 passed the Compulsory Education Law. In spite of its importance, the passing of this law was delayed for over a year because of the primary concern for the nation's survival, the absorption of large numbers of immigrants and economic difficulties. During this period the Department of Education of the Va'ad Leumi continued to control the educational system.

The first parliamentary elections in the new State took place in January 1949. As a result of these elections in March, 1949, the first permanent Government 19 was formed, which included a Ministry of Education and Culture (Misrad Hahinuch Vehatarbut).
The 1949 law provides for compulsory and free education for all children from the age of 5 to 14 (1 year in kindergarten for the 5 year olds and 8 years of primary school), and for working youth of ages 14 to 18, who have not completed their elementary education. These young people are required to attend afternoon or evening classes in schools for "working youth" (Noar Oved).20

The implementation of this law placed an additional heavy financial burden on the young state. This burden is shared by the Government and the local authorities. Accordingly, the State appoints and pays the teachers, and the local authorities are expected to provide the buildings and equipment.

Considering the vast influx of immigrants, the new law created a high demand for qualified teachers, which were in short supply. Consequently, many teaching positions had to be filled with unqualified teachers. However, it was the 'Trends' system that manifested its weakness in the face of the new law.

As mentioned earlier,21 the 'Trends,' being linked to political parties, had some built-in problems. These problems became even more acute with the passing of the Law of Compulsory Education. According to this law the parents still had the right to choose a school belonging to one of the 'Trends.' However, the majority of the new immigrants knew very little, if anything, about the 'Trends' and were
consequently subjected to pressures applied by the various political parties to send their children to certain 'Trend' schools. This clear violation of the Compulsory Education Law led to violent political conflicts over education and threatened not only national unity, but also the chances for a successful integration of the new immigrants. Time was more than ripe for the abolition of all 4 'Trends.' In August, 1953, the Knesset passed the "State Education Law."

2. The State Education Law

This law replaced the 'Trends' system by "State Education." This term is defined as:

education provided by the State on the basis of the curriculum prescribed by the Minister of Education and Culture, without attachment to a party or communal body or any other organization outside the Government and under the supervision of the Minister or a person authorized by him in that behalf.

According to this law the parents have the option to choose between "State Education" (Hinuch Mamlachti) and "Religious State Education" (Hinuch Mamlachti Dati). "Religious State Education" is "State Education (as defined above), with the distinction that its institutions are religious as to their way of life, curriculum, teachers and inspectors."

Under this new law, a special Council for Religious State Education was to be set up to supervise and guarantee the religious character of the curriculum in Religious State Schools, and of their teachers and inspectors alike.
The Mizrahi party supported the law; the Agudat Israel party did not. As a result, the Agudat Israel schools changed status; instead of being 'official' they became "recognized" schools.24

B. The Organizational Structure

With the implementation of the State Education Law came the reform of the administration within the Ministry of Education and Culture. Initially, the Ministry continued the centralized administrative organization of the Va'ad Leumi. However, even further centralization was necessitated with (1) the passing of the Compulsory Education Law of 1949, (2) the increasing numbers of problems caused by the influx of immigrants and their various cultural backgrounds, and (3) the abolition of the "Trends."

Eventually, however, as a result of the expansion of the system that occurred in the wake of the two laws (1949, 1953), the Ministry of Education and Culture decided, for the sake of efficiency, to decentralize some of its administrative functions without giving up its policy-making powers.

C. The Organizational Structure of the Ministry of Education and Culture25

The Ministry is headed by a Minister of Education and Culture. The staff operates under the guidance of a Director General appointed with the approval of the Cabinet. He is assisted by seven Assistant Directors General. Each of
these seven has a variety of responsibilities. In addition, and not under the Assistant Directors General, the Ministry has a number of departments, offices, and sections, each with tasks and responsibilities in various areas of education and culture.

It should be noted that until the adoption of the State Education Law there had been two separate branches for education and for culture, with separate directors, and the director of the Education Branch had to refer all matters of principle to a committee consisting of the Chief Trend Inspectors. From then (1953) on, there has been only one Director-General with a number of Assistant-Directors (as mentioned before).

1. The Pedagogic Secretariat

The ultimate responsibility concerning the content of education and its administrative inspection lies with the Minister, and its execution with the Director General (In the Religious State Schools the responsibility of execution lies with the Director of the Department of Religious Education, who also holds policy-making powers concerning matters of religious character).

Thus, it is the Director General from whom the inspectors, principals, teachers and other employees of the school system receive the various pedagogical and administrative instruction (except for religious matters). These
instructions are formulated with help and counsel of the Pedagogic Secretariat.

2. The Inspectorate

The inspectorate is organized into six administrative districts, each under a District Inspector who is responsible to the Pedagogical Secretariat. These District Inspectors carry out the directives of the Director General of the Ministry or the Director of the Division of Religious Education, as the case may be.

In addition to the District Inspectors, the Ministry also has 6 national or staff Inspectors for certain branches of education, such as Kindergartens, schools for working youth and schools for the handicapped—and for certain subjects of instruction, such as: foreign languages, music and physical education.

2. a. The English Inspectorate

The English Inspectorate, also, is an arm of the Pedagogical Secretariat. It consists of 17 people and is headed by the Chief English Inspector. This Inspectorate is also divided according to regions, and the given inspector inspects English from grade 5 to grade 12. All decisions, concerning the instruction of English (with the exception of the occasional revision of the Syllabus, which is in the hands of the "Supreme Committee") are taken by the English Inspectorate.

Inspectors are chosen by the Civil Service Commission subject to the final approval of the Ministry of Education.
and Culture after an announcement of the need for Inspectors. Application is open to the public. Qualifications necessary for the job are teaching experience and an M.A. degree.

III. The Institutional Framework of the Educational System

The Israeli educational system is divided into 5 stages.

A. Nursery school for children aged 3-4—non compulsory
B. Kindergarten for children 5 years old—compulsory
C. Primary education for children aged 6-13 (8 years) compulsory
D. Post-Primary education for students aged 14-17 (4 years) non-compulsory
E. Higher education—non compulsory.

During the 1972/73 school year there were 918,702 students in the Israeli School System. During the same school year (1972-73), of the Jewish children in the appropriate age group, 68.5 percent studied in State Primary, 70.2 percent in State intermediate, and 73.3 percent in State Post-Primary schools; 25.1 percent in State Religious Primary, 29.2 percent in State Religious intermediate and 22.7 percent in State Religious Post-Primary schools; 6.4 percent studied in Independent (Agudat Israel) Primary, 0.6 percent in Independent intermediate, and 4 percent in Independent Post-Primary schools.

The explanation of the term "intermediate school" requires the explanation of the 'Reform Act in Education' of 1969.
F. The Prawer Commission

In 1963 the Minister of Education and Culture, Zalman Aranne appointed the Prawer Commission (named after its chairman, Professor J. Prawer, a professor of History and former Dean of the Faculty of Humanities at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem) with the purpose of examining the possibility of extending free compulsory education in Israel. The Commission's report was submitted in 1965. The committee recommended the extension of compulsory education by one year, with the stipulation that school-learning age was to be raised gradually to 16.

The Minister of Education and Culture adopted the recommendations of the Prawer Commission, but the Teachers' Association (primary schools teachers) rejected and opposed them vehemently.

Under the approved reforms, primary education in Israel is now limited to 6 years, followed by six years in the post-primary school, which is divided into junior (grades 7, 8, and 9) and senior (grades 10, 11, and 12) sections.

A. B. Nursery and Kindergarten Education.--Nurseries (ganon) in Israel are usually designed for the 3 and 4 year olds (sometimes even 2 year olds attend). Since education in nurseries is non-compulsory, they are not subject to Ministry inspection and they are not free. However, the Ministry of Education and Culture does provide free pre-school
education for 3 and 4 year olds from culturally and economically deprived homes.

Kindergarten for 5 year olds is free and compulsory. There is no formal instruction; the main objective is to facilitate the all-around development of the child in preparation for the primary school. For the disadvantaged children (from culturally deprived homes) the "intensive approach" was adopted in 1958 with the purpose of promoting the intellectual growth of the children, specifically, by developing their ability to understand basic concepts in mathematics, nature and science.

C. Primary Education

As mentioned earlier, primary education in Israel is compulsory and free. The enormous growth of the Primary School population since the implementation of the Compulsory Education Law of 1949 from about 91,000 to almost 369,000 created a shortage of teachers.

Mass-immigration (especially between the years 1948-1951, when 686,748 immigrants reached the shores of Israel), forced the Ministry of Education and Culture to employ a large number of unqualified teachers until the teacher training seminaries could supply the necessary amount of teachers. According to Kleinberger, it was not until 1966/7 that no additional unqualified teachers had to be recruited. It should be noted that many of the unqualified
teachers became qualified, during this period, through special evening and summer training courses and examinations.

With the gradual decrease in immigration and natural population growth, the problem of teachers' shortage is, for all practical purposes, over.

1. State Primary and State Religious Primary Schools

As mentioned earlier (see page 28), of all Jewish children, 68.5 percent studied in the State Primary schools and 25.1 percent in State Religious Primary Schools during the school year 1972-73.35

The curriculum in these schools is established by the Ministry of Education.

(a) The Curriculum

All official elementary schools in Israel which are maintained by the State are obligated to follow a uniform Syllabus. In the Religious State schools more time is devoted to religious subjects, such as the Old Testament, Talmud (Oral Law), Code of Laws, and Customs, etc.36 It should be noted that the Old Testament is a compulsory subject in the State Schools (grades 1-12) as well, and almost equal time is devoted there to its study. However, it is taught with different emphases in mind. In State Schools, the Old Testament is treated mainly as a book of national history and literature, and as a book of social and moral teachings. In the State Religious Schools, however, the study of the Old Testament receives top priority as The
source of God's relation to the people of Israel, and the source of teachings, through the Commandments, which determine the everyday conduct, from dawn to dusk and from cradle to grave, the life and action of every Jew. The study of the Old Testament, which incidentally is prescribed as a Commandment itself, is therefore treated with the utmost reverence and respect.

The curriculum also prescribes the number of hours and the subjects to be taught in each grade. The first grade pupils receive 24 hours of instruction per week, divided among the following subjects:

1. Language, which includes stories of the Bible, Israeli Geography, Hygiene and in the State Religious schools—Prays and Customs (in the State schools this is optional)—10-12 hours.
2. Arts, which include singing, drawing, agriculture, handicrafts etc.—6-8 hours.
3. Arithmetic—4 hours
4. Physical Education—2 hours.

The hours of instruction are the same (24) through the 4 grade, although their distribution is different. There is gradual decrease in language as described in the first grade, with the introduction of new subjects, such as Nature Study (2nd grade) and Foreign Language (English) which starts in the fifth grade (in some schools, on an experimental basis,
in the fourth grade). The total weekly hours of instruction are raised to 30-32 in the fifth and sixth grades.

In the State Religious Schools, the larger number of hours allocated to religious subjects reduce somewhat the number of hours assigned to secular subjects.

Other Primary Schools, not discussed here, are: 1, Agudat Yisrael, 2, Arab Schools, 3, Schools for the Handicapped, 4, Schools for Working youth, 5, Kubbutz Schools, 6, Aliyat Hano'ar (Youth Immigration) Schools.

2. State Intermediate and State Religious Intermediate Schools

In the 1972-73 school year, of the Jewish children 70.2 percent attended State Intermediate, and 29.2 percent State Religious intermediate Schools (see page 28). Education in these schools is free and compulsory. The subjects taught are: the Old Testament, Hebrew language and literature, Foreign Language (mainly English), Mathematics, Physics, History, Art and Physical Education. In the State Religious Intermediate Schools, the Talmud is added. The total weekly number of instruction hours is 32-34.

Every 'graduate' of the sixth grade is admitted. Grades 7 and 8 are heterogeneous as far as abilities and achievements are concerned. In grade 9 there is a most distinguishable difference between the 'general' and 'practical' programs (vocational or agricultural). Those among the students who find the academic studies too difficult are encouraged to participate in the 'practical' programs. By the end of
grade 9 it becomes rather clear which type of secondary education will be suitable for the student.

The Intermediate schools are a relatively new phenomenon on the Israeli Educational scene. Consequently, the short time which has elapsed since its beginning in 1970 has not afforded it stabilization. Thus, only some general comments are in order at this point.

Because of its newness there was no available experience in designing the curriculum for these schools. There was a desire to seek new programs based on the scientific approach to the subject. After two years of planning, a select group of teachers was sent to Chicago for further study. After its return, this group became the core of the Curriculum Center that was established in the Ministry of Education and Culture. This Center does not only prepare a plan, but also follows closely the implementation of all of its phases; it deals with problems, concerning the material, when they occur and by doing so they lay the foundations of a new curriculum. One can find many experts from different fields participating in the planning of the curriculum, but interestingly enough there are hardly any parents or representatives of the public who take part in that work. The basic objectives include the intellectual (knowledge and comprehension) and emotional areas of learning. The process of learning is more emphasized than the content of the material. Thus, the methods employed in teaching become an integral part of the
The stress on the learning process also calls for a curriculum that allows flexibility and individualism in learning.

D. The State Post-Primary and the State Religious Post-Primary Schools

Seventy-three and three tenths percent of the Jewish students attended State Post-Primary schools in the 1972-73 school year, while 22.7 percent attended the State Religious Post-Primary School. This education is not compulsory and therefore not provided by the State. Although most Post-Primary Schools have been, since 1949, maintained by local authorities, the Ministry of Education and Culture does have some control over them, in the following areas:

1. Its responsibility for public examinations, particularly Matriculation Examinations
2. Its prerogatives to determine programs
3. Its power to appoint teachers and inspectors
4. Its authority of granting recognition to schools
5. Its right to determine graded tuition fees and to award scholarships.

Post-Primary Schools include academic, vocational and agricultural secondary schools and preparatory classes for teachers' seminaries. In the 1969/70 academic year, about 40 percent of the students were in academic secondary schools, 50 percent in vocational schools, 5 percent in agricultural schools, and 2 percent in preparatory classes for teachers'
seminaries. There are also 'comprehensive' schools which are academic secondary schools with added vocational programs. The numbers receiving academic secondary education had increased since 1959/60 by 80 percent, vocational education by 53 percent and agricultural education by 33 percent.39

In the academic type of schools, one can choose between different 'trends.' This choice is usually made by the end of the tenth grade.

**The Main 'Trends' (options)**

- Humanities and Social Sciences
- Mathematics-Physics
- Biology
- Oriental Studies

The studies in all of these 'trends' culminate in the nationally designed Matriculation (Bagrut) Examination. The Bagrut diploma is a prerequisite for acceptance to institutions of higher learning. The alternative is the "School Leaving Certificate."

"School Leaving Certificate" (Te'udat Gemer)

In order to discourage dropouts in the higher secondary grades, the Israeli educational authorities decided in 1965 to issue "School Leaving Certificates" to students who have completed the twelfth grade but choose not to take the Matriculation Examination. This certificate confirms that the student has completed 12 grades, but it does not qualify
him for admission to an institution of higher learning. In 1966 about 1,200 students acquired this certificate.

(In English, the level of the "School Leaving Certificate" examination is lower than that of the Bagrut exam. It is at about the level of the end of grade 10, but it is administered at the end of grade 12. It does not include the reading program, and is mainly a language proficiency test which consists of: a guided composition, a reading comprehension passage in easy English, and a language exercise, also in easy English. It is taken, by an large, by vocational school students.)

The Matriculation examination consists of 5 subjects—one of them on the 'expanded level.' The 'expanded level' subject is the one of main concentration of the particular 'trend.' There are two additional elective subjects on the exam.

Four of the five nationally designed subjects are common to all 'trends': Old Testament, Hebrew language and literature, Foreign Language (usually English), and Mathematics (for which Physics may be substituted). In two of these four subjects—Old Testament and Foreign Language—the examinations are identical in all 'trends.' In the others, the levels depend on the various options.

Here are all five subjects covered by the Bagrut examinations, by 'Trend.'

42
Humanities and Social Sciences
Old Testament
Hebrew Language and Literature
Foreign Language
Mathematics or Physics
On the "expanded level," History in the secular schools and Talmud in the religious schools.

Mathematics - Physics
Old Testament
Hebrew Language and Literature
Foreign Language
Physics or Chemistry
On the "expanded level," Mathematics

Biology
Old Testament
Hebrew Language and Literature
Foreign Language
Mathematics or Physics
On the "expanded level," Biology

Oriental Studies
Old Testament
Hebrew Language and Literature
Foreign Language
Mathematics or Physics
On the 'expanded level,' Arabic
According to Bentwich, of every 100 students admitted to secondary school, not more than 50 reach the twelfth grade, and of these not more than 35 pass the 'Bagrut' examination.

The percentage of regular candidates who passed successfully in all subjects rose from 58 percent in 1960 to 74 percent in 1965. Failure rates are highest in Mathematics (32 percent in 1966) and in English (19 percent in 1966). (See more detailed discussion on the high rate of failing in English in Chapters II and III.)

English is, by far, the most popular first foreign language in the secondary schools of Israel (French the only other language offered as first foreign language, is offered in only 14 of 174 academic secondary schools).

The high drop-out rate (referred to above), is particularly noticeable among the culturally and economically deprived students, who most need and can least afford, the education, in order to narrow the socio-economic gap existing between themselves and the westernized segment of society. In order to remedy this situation, the "graded tuition fees" system was introduced first in 1957/58. In that year 16 percent of the total Post-Primary schools benefited from the system. That figure rose to 65 percent by 1965. Thirty-two percent of these students received totally free education and another 33 percent enjoyed fees reduced twenty percent to 80 percent.
In 1971/72, 65.4 percent of children who did not pay fees were of Asian and African origin, and this percentage is constantly rising. Secondary schools in development town (populated mostly by immigrants) are completely free.

The other types of Post-Primary Schools (not discussed here) are:

1. Agricultural Schools
2. Arab Secondary Schools
3. Maritime Schools
4. Yeshivot Tichoniyot (which combine intensive talmudic and religious studies with the regular secondary school curriculum)

E. Higher Education

Israel, a state poor in natural resources, places a great deal of emphasis on the development of its human resources, specifically, on higher education.

There are seven universities in Israel of which two were founded during the British Mandate period. The Hebrew University (Jerusalem) opened its gates in 1925 and the Technion (Haifa) Institute of Technology which began operation in 1924. After the establishment of the State, the technological and intellectual needs of the rapidly growing and developing society necessitated the establishment of five more universities: Weizman Institute of Science, Tel-Aviv University, Bar-Ilan University, the University of Haifa and Ben-Gurion University of the Negev.
Some General Remarks.—Although a Council on Higher Education was established by the Knesset in 1958, each university in Israel is academically and administratively autonomous. The Council (Hamoetza Lehinuch Gavoha) sets criteria for accreditation and the awarding of degrees. The distribution of Government funds is in the hands of the Ministry of Education and Culture.\(^\text{49}\)

According to Israel's 1973 *Statistical Abstract*, 93 percent of all the students are Israeli and 54 percent are male and about 35 percent of the undergraduate students are above the age of 24. Tuition for under graduates depends upon the student's ability to pay; the average (in 1973) was $240 per year.

In addition to the institutions of higher learning mentioned above, there are in Israel some 310 independent Yeshivot (talmudic colleges).
Notes for Chapter One


2 In 1962, the Alliance still operated 13 schools with an enrollment of 5,684 in Israel, including the Lycee of Tel-Aviv built with the assistance of the French Government. Cahiers de l'Alliance Israelite Universelle (No. 137), Paris: July 1962, p. 9.


4 Help Association of German Jews,' also known as the Ezra Society.


6 The name of the movement founded by the Hovevei Zion (Lovers of Zion) was Hibbat Zion (The Love for Zion).

7 BILU, standing for the first letters in Hebrew of "O House of Jacob, let us go forth!" (Isiah, 2:5).

8 The Gymnasia Herzlia was established in 1906 in Jaffa, and was transferred to Tel-Aviv in 1908.


10 Palestine Mandate, of the League of Nations, Art. 15.

11 There were separate political frameworks which divided among themselves the functions normally exercised by the Government of a sovereign state. There was, on the one hand, the Jewish Agency which, under the mandate, had been granted international recognition as the authorized representative of world Jewry. It seemed as a kind of foreign ministry for the Zionist Movement and the Jewish Community in Palestine, and managed their relations with the Mandatory Government, the Arabs, other countries, the Jews throughout the world. The Jewish Agency was also responsible for immigration, the establishment of agricultural settlements and economic development. On the other hand, there were the self-governing organs.
of the Jewish Community in Palestine (known in Hebrew as Knesset Israel). These consisted of an Elected Assembly, a National Council (Va'ad Leumi) as its executive, and the Chief Rabbinate. This Communal organization of Palestinian Jewry came into being in 1920, but was given official recognition by the Mandatory Government only in 1927. It was also given, at that time, limited powers of compulsory taxation of its members. Due to the refusal of the ultra-Orthodox Jews to share a common organizational framework with the Zionist settlers the membership was voluntary. Nevertheless, 95 percent of all Palestinian Jews were members of Knesset Israel.

12 ORT, a name formed from the Russian initials of the Society for the Encouragement of Handicraft, was founded in Russia (1880) to promote vocational and agricultural training. Now an international body, ORT runs many schools and courses for Israel's youth. (In English: ORT—Organization for Rehabilitation Through Training.) Amal—Labor—System of vocational schools; Amal was founded by the Histadrut (General Federation of Labor).

13 An abbreviation of 'Merkaz Ruḥani'—spiritual center. 'Mizraḥ' East, the direction towards which the Jew faces in prayer. The Mizraḥi was the nucleus of the National Religious Party of today.

14 The National Committee of the Jewish Community.


16 Published in The Palestine Review of March 29, 1940.


18 The Israeli Parliament.

19 In the interim period, between May 1948 and March 1949, the Provisional Government was in charge.

20 The employer is required to provide these students with free time for the purpose of study.

21 See No. 1; The disadvantages (of the 'Trends' system), p. 9.

22 The Compulsory Education Law of 1949 recognized, in addition to the three former trends, as a fourth one the ultra-Orthodox, Non-Zionist Agudat Israel whose schools had, prior to the establishment of the State, remained outside the national Jewish system of education.

"Official" i.e., maintained by the Government and the Local Authority; "Recognized", i.e., supervised and, in most cases, supported by the Government.

The complete organizational structure of the Ministry is shown in Appendix A.

See the complete organizational structure chart in Appendix A.


Every subject has, as of 1974, a topic committee, called the 'Supreme Committee' (Hava'ada Ha'elyona), that deals with matters relating to the instruction of that particular subject.


Ibid., p. 22.


Latest available figures.

Separate Syllabi are prescribed for the Religious State Schools in Bible, Talmud (Oral Law), and Hebrew Literature.

See detailed discussion in Chapter 2.

Ibid., p. 33.


These are 'internal' examinations, which in some of the 'trends' may be determined by the individual school. These exams are administered by the school but are supervised by the Ministry of Education and Culture.


Data supplied by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

From a Knesset reply by the Deputy Minister and Education and Culture, reported in Haaretz (daily newspaper), March 17, 1968.


See Statistical Abstract of Israel 18 (1967), 525 and 537.


Within the Ministry of Education and Culture these and other matters related to higher education are dealt with by the Director of the Foreign Relations and Higher Education (Achrai Lekishrei Chutz Umazkir Hamoetza Lehaskala Gooha). See Appendix A.
CHAPTER II

THE ENGLISH CURRICULA IN THE ISRAELI SCHOOL SYSTEM

The following points will be discussed in detail in this chapter:

a. The curricula for all grades involved,
b. The background of the curricula; when and how and by whom they were drawn.

I. General Background

On September 12, 1949, the Israeli Knesset (Parliament) passed the Compulsory Education Law, making school attendance obligatory between the ages of five and thirteen for all children, without regard to race, creed, or sex. The 1969 reforms of this law envisioned raising the age for free and compulsory education to sixteen. In addition to raising the age for compulsory school attendance, these reforms divided the academic span into two parts: six years of elementary education grades 1-6, and six years of secondary education grades 7-12. The latter was split further into two periods: three years of intermediate junior high 7-9, and three years of senior high 10-12. Before the 1969 reforms there were eight years of elementary and four years of secondary education. Thus, whereas pre-1969 students graduated with the
completion of grade 8 (the last year of elementary school and of compulsory and free education), the reform has achieved two things: (1) it has extended the period of free and compulsory education by a year, and (2) it has afforded the students, through the new division, two years of free junior high school education with a strong built-in incentive to complete the high school education.

All schools are expected to adhere to the basics of a curriculum recommended by the Ministry of Education and Culture and to come under its supervision. The Ministry of Education and Culture divides curricula into three main categories: general, vocational, and agricultural. About 50 percent of the schools are general, or academic; that is, humanist in orientation. At the end of twelve years of study, Matriculation (Bagrut) examinations are administered to the students. Those passing the test receive a certificate entitling them to enter institutions of higher learning in Israel and elsewhere.1

English ranks first among foreign languages offered. The instruction of the English language generally begins in grade 5 and culminates in grade 12 with the English part of the Matriculation Exam. (This exam consists of tests in five subjects.) In some schools, however, English instruction begins in grade 4 on an experimental basis, following the theory that the success in the acquisition of a foreign language depends greatly on the age of the learner--the
younger the learner, the less interference of the native tongue, and the easier the acquisition of the target language.2

Because of the three-fold division: Elementary School, Junior High School, and Senior High School (also called Primary School, Intermediate Division, and Upper Division), three curricula or syllabi were constructed. One is for grades 5 and 6 (the Elementary or Primary School level), one is for grades 7-9 (the Junior High School or Intermediate Division level), and one is for grades 9-12 (the Senior High School or Upper Division level). The first two syllabi (for the Primary School and for the Intermediate Division levels) were published in 1970, whereas the third (for the Upper Division) appeared in 1973.

II. When, How and by Whom These Curricula Were Composed

The relatively new curricula were composed by a so-called Syllabus Committee appointed by the Director General of the Ministry of Education and Culture in 1968. This committee replaced a Syllabus Committee which had stood for twenty years, and was part of a general reconstruction program of the Ministry to have a new look at the syllabi of the various subjects. The English Syllabus Committee was formed at this time. It was composed of:

A. University personnel; representatives of English and/or Education departments of Universities
B. Supervisors

C. Elementary and High School (English) teachers

The Committee met on a number of occasions and set up working groups in different fields, each working on a different section of the syllabi.

According to one member, the Committee consisted of about 20 people. In addition, questionnaires were sent out to teachers asking for their opinions, ideas and contributions; and various "study days" were held in the major areas in order to hear teachers' reactions. When this data had been collected, a draft was prepared and sent to all the people concerned for feedback and possible alterations. Once a consensus of opinion was reached, it was presented to the Pedagogical Secretariat of the Ministry of Education and Culture which approved it and it became official.

The syllabus for the Upper Division was composed only two years ago. In other words, last year's grade 11 or this year's grade 12 will have its Matriculation Exam based on the new syllabus.

This was the decision-making process regarding the curriculum as a whole. Within that framework there is some flexibility since there are certain schools with special problems. For example, the extremely orthodox Beth Jacob Schools for Girls objected to one or two literary items on the syllabus, because they found them religiously offensive.
and some readjustment will be made to accommodate the wishes of these schools.

The major advancement in this syllabus, compared to the previous one, is that the emphasis on English teaching has been shifted from the appreciation of literature and culture to communication. In other words, whatever is taught now must contribute to the process of communication. Thus, conversation and the spoken word have reached the forefront. Even in literature, the text has to be material written in good, modern, standard English. Consequently, Shakespeare is no longer being taught, simply because it does not contribute to communication today. Similarly, in the reading program one finds not only literature, but also journalistic and technical material. This change is based on the assumption that if the student reads anything after his school career, he is as likely to read professional material as literary works.

Another sphere of the decision-making process concerns special categories of schools in the Upper Division such as vocational schools. Clearly, the vocational schools need a modified program. Whereas the same principles still apply, namely, the principles that stress communication and language skills, modification is needed in the literary syllabus to include more prescribed technical material. Since the general Syllabus Committee did not deal with this problem, an additional article by expert electronics teachers was
included, to be taught in these schools as part of the English program:

When the syllabus is completed, the Syllabus Committee will be dissolved. However, the Supreme Committee (Hava'ada Ha'elyona) has the power to revise the syllabus, if such revision should become necessary. All other decisions, concerning minor changes or adjustments in the curriculum, are made by the English Inspectorate.  

III. The Curricula—Description

A. The English Curriculum for the Israeli School System, Elementary School—Grades 5, 6.

1. The Goals

The main goal of English instruction in the first two years of study is to provide the student with an awareness of the skills and concepts which are the foundation of the acquisition of a second language. This awareness is the first step toward communication in English.

It is incumbent upon the teacher to interest the student in the study of a foreign language and to motivate him to see this foreign language as a living and meaningful subject in his surroundings. In these first years of study, the stress is on situations which are immediate to the child, with special emphasis on expression and memorization and a limited number of "language rules."
These goals are achieved if, at the end of his second year, the student has reached:

a. An understanding of the English sound system: the consonants, the consonant clusters, the vowels, and the main differences of stress and intonation. This study will be well integrated into the study of grammar and vocabulary.

b. An understanding of 56 basic grammatical patterns which will not have been taught independently or in the abstract, but which have naturally flowed out of the situations and been internalized in other situations.

c. An active mastery of a vocabulary of 600 words and phrases over the two years, i.e., 300 words per year.

d. A knowledge of reading and writing the material that was originally studied through conversation.

2. The Curriculum

The curriculum does not require that the teacher follow one specific school of thought of methodology (except the general and accepted principles of translation, and the chain of stimulus, response, and reinforcement) and does not recommend specific textbooks or other aids; its purpose is to guide the teacher. It presents the goals the teacher ought to achieve and it determines the important items in grammar and vocabulary the teacher ought to stress. The curriculum binds the teacher in a general way, but also enables him to further expand the material in terms of awareness, if not active usage. If additional material is offered
by the textbook, however, priority should be given to the forms stressed in the curriculum.

The important principle in the instruction of English is liveliness, meaningfulness, and the attachment to the language as a tool of communication and not as a list of unrelated items or abstract rules.

3. The Oral Approach

The main course of study at this stage is speech. The Oral Approach is a particularly important and determining factor here. One of the advantages in starting language instruction at an early age is the relative ease with which the child imitates speech and is able to remember the grammar of patterns through habit. Through the acquisition of the ability to reasonable expression, the student will be able to understand and express the English sound system; it should not be assumed, however, that the student's expression will be identical to that of a native English speaker. But his speech will be well understood and he will be able to understand the native English speaker within the framework of the limited patterns and lexicon that he learned.

The significance of this first awareness by way of listening and speaking cannot be overemphasized. By this approach the student will be aware of English as a living language. Thus, at this first stage, it is sufficient for the student to concentrate his efforts on the acquisition of the forms and patterns of the spoken language, without
facing the special difficulties of the writing system which is so different from his own.

4. The Teaching of Reading and Writing

The above mentioned "Oral Approach" will obviously delay the teaching of reading and writing. At the beginning of the first school year the student will not learn how to read or write in English. During the first third of the first school year he will "meet" letters in words and sentences from which the rules of phones (the matching of sound with spelling) will be learned. These activities ("pre-reading") will not require more than a few minutes of each lesson, and the greater part of class time will be devoted to conversation. During the second third of the first school year the students will gradually transfer to reading from the textbook, but even then most of the class time ought to be devoted to conversation.

Instead of hesitant and often unintelligible reading (as was the case in the earlier methods), the lesson will be filled with spoken-audio materials (exemplification, exercises, dialogues, improvisations, tape recordings, radio, recores, songs, and games) and visual aids (pictures, film strips, movies, TV, objects, etc.). In the phonetic drills and in phone-reading exercises it is essential that the first examples should be already known words, even though the words stress the sound and patterns of spelling and not meanings. The words and grammatical patterns will be learned in real
situations. The student will not find material in the textbook that has not been learned before, during the "speech stage" in the first year, with the exception of the phonic drills. The role of the textbook, therefore, is to review the orally learned material and to reinforce it so that the student is able to concentrate on the new skills of reading and writing. Just as reading is to reinforce listening and speech, so writing is to reinforce reading; therefore, it is not wise to demand from the students "extra initiative" in writing (such as free compositions), but is more advisable to settle for the reviewing of previously read material.

5. The Work in Grades 5 and 6

The Ministry of Education and Culture claims that in the first year of English study, the students will gain more from the lessons if the hours of study are divided into half-lessons. From the point of view of concentration, attention and uninterruption of study, it is advisable that the students learn 20-25 minutes daily.

Generally, there is no difference in methodology between grades 5 and 6. Perhaps the difference in age requires more games, songs, etc., in the fifth grade, yet the teacher should utilize the same means in the sixth grade. Otherwise, fifth grade students are almost as capable of absorbing concepts and internalizing rules as their sixth grade fellow students.
The study in these two grades should follow this order: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

6. Grammar Patterns to be Taught in the First Two Years of Study

This curriculum contains 56 grammatical patterns, as mentioned above. The student ought to be able to use these patterns actively by the end of this period. The knowledge of the first 26 patterns is obligatory in grade 5; the other patterns (i.e., the ones that refer to Present Simple) are only suggested and they may be postponed until the sixth grade.

Likewise, the order in which the patterns are listed will serve as a general (but not specific) guide to the order of learning; it is advisable to teach the primary structures (like verb tenses) in the listed order, but freedom of timing and of graduation is allowed in dealing with secondary patterns (such as prepositional patterns), and some of them may even be postponed until the beginning of the seventh grade.

7. Criteria of the Choice of Items and Patterns

The material in the curriculum is graduated and there is a need to teach and to drill well in a primary structure before a secondary one can be approached. Structures which are particularly difficult for the Hebrew speaker require more and more repetition and review. The choice of these structures and their graduation is determined in accordance with
the findings of modern linguistics, considering the following criteria:

a. The situational context
b. The frequency of the structure
c. Being a part of a frequent series
d. The conditions of learning
e. The interference of the mother-tongue
f. The usages of the language by the speakers of the standard language as the mother-tongue, whether it is American or British English.

Explanations and comments are given with each structure. The explanations are not about the ways of instruction, but about the meaning of the structure and its usage. In case the information can be found in the accepted grammar books, it is given briefly. In other cases, a fuller description is offered. Special attention should be given to structures not existing in spoken Hebrew (such as "be" in present tense), or to the possible results of negative interference of Hebrew, such as the word order in a sentence, the place of the subject or adjective, etc. The reference to explanations given in the grammar books is intended only for the teacher; in class, no specific grammar book is recommended, it is expected that the student will learn the grammatical structures from the textbook.
8. Ways of Study and Instruction

Explanations as well as rules in this curriculum are also intended for the teacher and not the student. During the first two years there is no need for the student to learn English grammatical terminology, such as "attribution modifier," etc. It is learned by induction, from all the examples given, until he is able to construct his own sentences based on those examples. This is the manner in which grammar ought to be learned. Repetition, completion, substitution, and transformation drills, and if needed, grammatical explanations by the teacher in Hebrew will help the student to absorb the patterns to the point of automatic mastery. In other words, the grammar becomes internalized.

These stages of learning are valid on all levels. However, in the upper grades the reduction of mechanical drills might be advisable, and more stress might be given to generalizations. There is not a common opinion among linguists and psychologists regarding language acquisition. Therefore, it is the teacher, on the basis of his personal experience, linguistic and psychological education, and consultations with colleagues, supervisors, and advisors, who will have to choose the most suitable method of instruction. The patterns and rules described in this curriculum are based on the modern, everyday language in the United States and in Britain. It is possible that some teachers will resent the arbitrary requirement of usage, for example, "It's me." or "Who are
you writing to?", but this is the style of today's spoken English. Formal literary English will be taught in future years. Those among the teachers who studied British English will understand that for the sake of simplification and convenience, the negative interrogative form of the verb "have" in its American usage, i.e., "I don't have," "Do I have?", may be used.

9. About Terminology

Among the explanations and comments which appear in the textbooks there are many linguistic terms, and many items appear in phonemic transcription.

Previous knowledge of linguistics is not a pre-requisite to understanding these explanations, and the teacher not an expert in linguistics can turn directly to the examples instead of to the definitions. Yet, it is expected that the use of "technical" terms in this curriculum will motivate and encourage the teacher to become interested in linguistics, the science of languages, and thereby gain a deeper understanding of the principles of language instruction which in turn will improve his practical work in the classroom.

10. About Pronunciation

The recommended style of speech is the so-called "slow-spoken" one, i.e., colloquial, the style spoken among educated people, neither the formal style, nor "slang." This spoken style is naturally slow, as in a conversation among native speakers who do not know each other very well and who talk
very clearly (perhaps as a result of a certain noise). However, one should refrain from artificially slow speech with stressed vowels (strong forms) and from rapid speech in which whole phonemes are omitted.


11. Vocabulary to be Taught in Grades 5-6

The goal of this curriculum is to teach the students about 600 words and phrases during these two years, about 300 words each year. Four hundred and fifty out of the 600 are enumerated in the curriculum. The other 150 should be added as situations develop throughout the course of learning. All 600 ought to be in accordance with the criteria outlined under the heading: "Criteria of the Choice of Items and Patterns." They are intended for active knowledge.
Teachers and course planners can be aided in their choice of words by one of the following well-known "frequency-dictionaries":

a. Thorndike and Lorge, *A Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words*, New York, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1944, or


New words that are formed by the addition of a suffix to the root (for example: teach, teacher) are listed as one word (one dictionary item) despite the fact that they appear separately in the alphabetical listing. On the other hand, words that are not formed by the addition of a suffix (such as: sing, song) are listed as two items. This is also true of compound words. If the meaning of the compound word is a combination of the meanings of the two components (such as: ballpen), they are not counted separately, whereas "breakfast," for example, is considered one morpheme and not a combination of two. Conjugated forms (such as: man, men) and the regular form of the plural (boy, boys) are not listed separately. The items creating the paradigm of pronouns (such as I, me, my) are again listed separately, because of vast differences between most items of the paradigm, and because it would require an extra effort on the part of the student to identify "me" as being connected to "I."
The approach is strictly synchronic; only the meanings of today's spoken language are given. The criterion for the choice of words is not only frequency, but whether the particular word appears in a situation related somehow to the child's life and conditions. The other criteria are similar to those employed in the choice of grammatical structures. No word should be isolated or restricted to only one situation; it should appear and be used in different situations and for various subjects. A newly acquired word should be used repeatedly until it is used as an automatic response to the non-linguistic stimulus.

In order to achieve this goal, that the word (symbol) serve as an immediate response to an object, the teacher should do his best not to have to rely on translation, since in that case the English word would symbolize the Hebrew words, instead of symbolizing the object itself. If the teacher is unsuccessful in transmitting the word's meaning in English through the "direct method," he should use only very limited Hebrew while the students speak only English. Under no circumstances should Hebrew writing be a part of an English lesson.

B. The English Curriculum for the Israeli School System, Intermediate Division (Grades 7, 8, 9)

1. The Goals

According to the Ministry of Education and Culture, the purpose of English instruction in Israel is to provide the
student with the means of communicating with the non-Hebrew speaking world. In this regard, the Israeli needs the English language for listening, conversing with English speakers, and reading study material, professional literature, journalism and literature.

The study of English on the junior high school level is an important stage in making progress toward the achievement of the above-mentioned goal. By the time the student reaches junior high school, he has completed 2 years of English study. In grades 5 and 6, the student acquired the skills, structures, and vocabulary that are detailed in the curriculum in English for the elementary School. The goals that are mentioned in the curriculum for grades 5 and 6 are, briefly, as follows:

a. The understanding of the English sound system—consonants, vowels, stress, and intonation.

b. The knowledge of 56 basic structures in grammar.

c. The mastering of approximately 600 words and phrases.

d. The knowledge of skills of reading and writing.

In the first stages of the study of the language, priority is given to its linguistic structure. The vocabulary is limited to the study of this structure. In the curriculum for Junior High School, the linguistic structures still form the basis for the study of this subject. However, attention is paid also to the expansion of the vocabulary.
With the completion of the junior high school studies, i.e., after 5 years of English instruction, the following achievements are expected of the student:

a. A reinforcement of the knowledge and skills gained in the elementary school.
b. A marked improvement in ability of comprehension through listening, speech, reading, and writing.
c. The mastering of at least 900 additional words and phrases for active usage and the passive knowledge of a number of additional words.
d. An active knowledge of grammatical forms and structures defined in the junior high school curriculum.

2. Some Methodological Considerations for Instruction in Junior High School

The criteria used for the choice of vocabulary and grammatical structures in the elementary school are still valid and in effect. These criteria are:

a. The situational context
b. The frequency of the item
c. The productivity of the structure (the possibility of transfer to other situations)
d. The uses of the language by educated, native speakers in Britain or in the United States
e. The influence of the mother-tongue (as reflected in the curriculum of the vocabulary and in the timing of the grammatical structures and their graduation).
There is no attached list of words in this curriculum so as not to dictate to the teacher or the course planner the detailed chapters he might choose. A wide freedom of choice is given to the teacher in this matter, but he is nevertheless obligated to maintain the guidelines and principles of the criteria mentioned under the heading "Goals" in this curriculum. In choosing vocabulary items, teachers should consult one of the following two well known frequently dictionaries: Thorndike and Lorge, The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words, New York, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1944; or Michael West, A General Service List of English Words, London, Longmans, 1967, 1953. If possible, the 1,500 words and expressions mentioned in the curriculum for grades 5-9, should be chosen from the 2,000 most frequently used words, as listed in these dictionaries.

Whereas the vocabulary of grades 5-6 relates to the immediate environment of the child, the maturing student in Junior High School is capable of expanding this vocabulary with abstract and more complicated words, in order to enable him to express matters of interest on the emotional and intellectual levels. Moreover, it is possible that the student will feel a greater need for expression in abstract terms or for linguistic analysis than before, when he mostly related only to physical objects. The vocabulary should reflect not only the everyday environment of the student (which is too specific and limited), but it should also lend itself to
generalization and to quantitative transfer to other situations. Incidentally, in the upper level (grades 10-12) the vocabulary will be more specific, in accordance with the type of school (academic, vocational, agricultural) and the student's area of specialization. However, even in these schools a reasonable balance between "special" and "general" English is maintained.

Before the end of grade 9 the student should be acquainted with most of the frequent grammatical structures in English. There is no intention to teach however, the whole English grammar in junior high school. In the upper level, especially in grade 10, more grammatical structures will be taught. The appropriate comments concerning this matter appear in this curriculum. The method of audio-lingual repetition of forms that was recommended in the elementary school curriculum is also valid for the junior high school and without doubt will prove to be most useful. However, in grade 8, and especially in grade 9, a number of formal rules which were learned inductively as lingual forms will be taught. These rules will satisfy the maturing student in his efforts to analyze and categorize, and ultimately to reach the level of creative use of the language. Yet, the teachers are urged to use restraint and to limit themselves in this formal instruction, and to see it as a summary of inductive functional learning, not formal instruction.
In many cases new words and expressions will be explained orally and not visually. These may be, for example, words representing abstract ideas. Here the already known vocabulary can be very helpful in explaining the meaning of the new item by demonstrating a semantic connection. If this encourages the student to understand the new language in a way that will enable him to solve problems as part of the intellectual challenge in the learning of a new language, priority should be given to this method. Furthermore, special circumstances in every class, the capacity for abstract thinking of every student, the age (obviously, grade 9 will function on a different intellectual level than grade 7), and the accepted learning habits, should be taken into account whenever the priority of this method is being considered.

From the above discussion it seems clear that the realization of the term "the semantic connection" lies in exemplification, explanation, and definition in the English language in order to maintain as much as possible the natural circumstances for second language learning, where the use of Hebrew is kept at a minimum. Hebrew translation should be used only if (a) there is a misunderstanding, (b) other ways of explanation prove to be unsuccessful, or (c) the teacher wishes to ascertain that a particular item or new structure was properly understood. The use of Hebrew, therefore, will be a secondary part of the introduction of the study material.
Under no circumstances should translation be part of drills or other kinds of practice exercises.

3. The Reading and Writing in Junior High School

During his course of study in Junior High School, the student reads and writes much more than in the elementary school. The reading includes informative, technological, scientific, and literary material. The intensive reading in the textbook helps the student to understand the new material, vocabulary, and grammar, and develops the student's ability to read with comprehension. As part of this "intensive reading" it is wise to devote some time to "silent reading" in class, followed by comprehension exercises and other drills. Simultaneously, "reading aloud" by individual students should be reduced, because this type of reading decreases the interest of non-readers and makes possible distortion of pronunciation and unnecessary emphasis on rhetoric instead of understanding. At any rate, the teacher should be certain that the students in fact acquired the correct pronunciation of the words and sentences they read in "silent reading" as well as in "reading aloud." In Junior High School, just as in elementary school, every effort must be made to teach good pronunciation and expression. This gradual shift of emphasis toward silent reading and deeper understanding varies, in its pace and scope, from grade to grade and from school to school. It seems probable that seventh grades and many of the eighth grades will still
devote most of the intensive reading time to reading aloud (in chorus or individually); and obviously, very often the teacher reads aloud in all grades or plays tapes prepared by English speakers.

The "intensive reading" is complemented by "extensive reading." It is advisable for every school to have a library equipped with a wide choice of complimentary reading material, simplified and regular. The teachers ought to prepare a graduated reading plan for extensive reading outside the regular classwork, and at the same time, they should encourage the reading of stories that are, in each stage, in accord with the area of interest, age, and lingual knowledge of the student.

All the activities of writing in Junior High School have to be guided and supervised by the teacher. Students should not be required to write uncontrolled, free compositions. Only by gradual progress during these years, through gradual repetition, completion, substitution and transformation exercises, dictations, and at various stages through controlled compositions, will the student prepare himself for free expression in the upper level.

Out of the four skills in language learning, writing is the least important, and at the same time, the most complicated for the average learner; the student is more often required to read, listen, and speak. The negative influence of interference of the native tongue stands out more clearly
in written work (especially in work that requires original thought), and for this reason written work has to be controlled, graduated, and closely supervised. In addition, the written work ought to be done on topics close to the students' environment, to their area of interest, vocabulary, and to the syntax known to them.

Despite the extra attention given to reading and writing, adherence to the principles of "the oral approach" should not be neglected. First of all, the vocabulary and grammatical structures for the intensive study should be introduced orally, and only then should the student read the material. At the same time, it should be remembered that the extensive reading in all classes—and to a certain degree the intensive reading in grade 9—will cause the student to recognize many new items.

4. A List of Suggested Situations for the Junior High School

The following list of topics are recommended:

a. The Family
b. The School
c. The Neighborhood
d. The City and the Village
e. The Land and the State
f. Greetings
g. Hobbies.
h. Foods
i. Shopping
j. Clothing
k. Transportation
l. Tourism
m. The Description of Different Countries and the Life Style of Their Population
n. The World of Nature, Science, and Technology
o. Well Known Stories and Books from Other Countries
p. Mass Media (Press, Radio, Television)
q. The Life-Stories of Famous People from Other Countries
r. Well Known Events in History and in Our Days
s. Different Professions
t. The Calendar (The Seasons, Weather, etc.)

Some of these topics appear in the elementary school curriculum, yet they can be dealt with again, this time in more depth.

5. Grouping

In junior high school the students are divided into three ability groups in English and certain other subjects. Levels A and B follow the same curriculum. They are, however, distinguished by pace of progress and degrees of achievement. Level C has its own curriculum.

a. Level A

Studies at this level are expected to participate more in extensive reading (outside the textbook) in less simplified and more specialized texts, such as scientific
descriptions and less simplified literary materials. The exercises given to them will demand more intellectual effort. Through this expanded work in the language (in understanding the spoken and written language) the students will acquire a significant passive vocabulary and grammar, much of which will become active in the upper level. Level A students grasp formal rules much faster than their fellow students in Level B.

b. Level B

An active mastering of the items enumerated in this curriculum, but no more, is expected of the students of this level. Although the same text as the one used for Level A can be used at this level, the students of Level B should devote more time to mechanical drills and less time to the summary of rules. Likewise less abstraction is demanded of them. Level B students need more simplified readers, such as Structural Readers, Supplementary Readers, etc. Written work here should be more controlled and guided. Presumably more time will be spent on inductive study of patterns and less on addition formalization of the grammatical rules that are connected to a certain structure.

c. Level C

Students at this level find their studies, at the beginning, in the curriculum of grades 5-6 and should proceed from there in accordance with the realistic achievement of the class. Here, too, new material is taught which includes
the same words and structures that appear in elementary school curriculum. More "recognition" than "creation" (passive rather than active knowledge) will be stressed at this level. Yet, these students will be expected to understand and to be understood within the framework of the vocabulary and the structures they have learned. The four skills should be developed as a review, imitation, and oral study (mimicry-memorization), and not as free expression.

Because of general pedagogical considerations, the same situations are suggested for Level C as for Levels A and B, but from different texts. The emphasis should be put on the strengthening and reinforcement of the lexicon and structures covered in grades 5-6.

It is very advisable, especially in Level C, to introduce the learning material through the means of audio-visual aids.

C. The English Curriculum for the Israeli School System, Upper Division--Grades 10, 11, 12

1. Aims

The main aim of English studies in the Upper Division, as in the Primary School and the Intermediate Division, is "to provide the pupil with a means of communication with the non-Hebrew speaking world" (from the Introduction to the Syllabus for the Intermediate Division).

The language skills stressed in the Upper Division are:

a. reading comprehension
b. listening comprehension

c. speech

Thus, more emphasis is placed on reading comprehension than in the lower classes, but only under the assumption that the pupils have been studying systematically in these lower classes according to the oral approach recommended by the syllabus as a whole. In the "ordinary level" matriculation program, as well as for "School-Leaving Certificate" (Gemer") classes, writing activities should be considered as reinforcement of other skills, indicating comprehension of speech and reading. In the "Advanced Level" matriculation program, writing should also be taught as a means of self-expression on subjects dealt with in class or close to the pupils' own interests. The writing of an imaginative essay should not be viewed as a goal of English study.

In grades 10-12, pupils should acquire the active grammatical repertoire specified in this syllabus, and be acquainted with other structures intended for passive recognition rather than active production. In vocabulary, they are expected to acquire at least an additional 1,500 active lexical items (making a total of some 3,000 items since the beginning of English studies in school) as well as an increased passive vocabulary.

The aim of the Reading Syllabus is to enable pupils to understand materials written modern English and to grasp in detail and master the contents of assigned materials both
factual and imaginative, which are in modern standard English, and non-specialized in nature. In addition to teaching the specific reading program of the English syllabus, teachers should, wherever possible and convenient, relate English studies to other subjects by the study of original English texts recommended for those subjects. (For example, selections from an English literary text studied in Hebrew translation in the general literature course, the American Declaration of Independence as studied in a history course, a specialized paper studied in a science or technology course, or a paper on Jewish life abroad as part of courses in Jewish studies.)

Pupils are taught Standard American or Standard British English, but in either case should be made aware of the other variety. Pupils should be introduced to different varieties and styles in English—conversational, spoken prose, narrative, dramatic, poetic, scientific, technical, journalistic, etc.

2. The Reading Program
   a. Extensive Reading

   Pupils should read at least 9 books in modern English (an average of one per term) and a large number of newspaper articles and news reports during these three years of study.

   Under the guidance of the teacher, pupils should read books, articles, etc., at the level which is best suited to their individual needs and attainments. As they progress in
their studies, they should be encouraged to read books in unsimplified English. Pupils should be prepared to discuss the contents of the extensive reading undertaken.

b. Intensive Reading

Pupils will study number of texts selected by the English Syllabus Committee of the Ministry of Education and Culture, according to the criteria and for the purpose specified below. These texts consist of:

i. factual prose: essays, articles, chapters from books

ii. imaginative prose and verse: short stories, plays, poems.

A number of these readings will be designated as set texts for intensive study in grades 11 and 12 and for the Matriculation examination. These set texts, in all or in part, are from time to time replaced by others from the list. The poetry selection is an option and teachers may if they wish teach more prose instead.

The texts have been selected in according with the following requirements:

i. Language: that they be written in good modern Standard English and so serve, among other things, as an integrated context for language learning;

ii. Interest: that they be intrinsically interesting to 16-18 year olds;
iii. General Character: that they not require highly specialized technical knowledge to be understood and enjoyed; that the vocabulary be generalizable to other contexts;

iv. Cultural Value: that they deserve the attention of the intelligent common reader either by literary merit or by the intellectual level at which they treat important topics;

v. Unity: that they be, insofar as possible, complete units rather than brief excerpts.

The major objective of intensive reading is to develop the pupil's ability to understand in detail, to master, enjoy and discuss materials that are culturally and educationally valuable.

"To understand" in the above paragraph means to comprehend the meanings which are conveyed to the intelligent common reader who does not have specialized knowledge. Questions in the matriculation examination test understanding of this kind only. In appropriate circumstances, teachers may take up the texts in the light of literary criticism or of general, cultural or literary history, but such approaches are not prescribed and are not tested.

Very advanced classes may wish to read a play by Shakespeare or other works the language of which is not in accordance with the above. If they do so, it is understood that this is in addition to the prescribed syllabus; it is not
included in the matriculation written examination, but may form part of the oral examination, if the examinee wishes.

3. Some Methodological Considerations

Though pupils at this level will doubtless be able to understand the rules of the language in a more abstract fashion, more time should be devoted to using the language in appropriate contextualizations than to discussing language rules.

There will probably be more need and scope for incident­al translation from English to Hebrew at this level (e.g., abstract lexical items). At the same time, teachers should always bear in mind that translation is an art in itself and is a specific skill, especially at the linguistic and literary level of the subject matter studied in these upper classes. Thus translation of longer passages to and/or from the mother-tongue will not serve any useful purpose and will only delay free and instant expression in English; the didactic dangers in the widespread use of Hebrew far outweigh any immediate aesthetic or semantic benefit.

Special attention should be paid to instances of mother­tongue interference. In many cases, specific contrasts between features of Hebrew and English will probably be useful in dealing with these instances as they arise.

Pupils should be made aware of the rhetorical organiza­tion of texts. At the paragraph level they should be able to identify topic sentences, and at the general textual level
they should be able to recognize presentation, reinforcement, exemplification, counterargument, reservation, etc. At this stage, pupils may be encouraged to summarize passages of varying lengths.

Pupils should be trained in the use of an English-English dictionary as an important aid in acquiring a large and accurate vocabulary. To further this aim, examinees are allowed to use a dictionary approved by the English Inspectorate in certain specified parts of the Matriculation Examination.

IV. The Controversy about the Curricula

As mentioned earlier, the major advance contained in the new syllabi, as contrasted to the old, is the shifted emphasis from the appreciation of literature and culture to communication. Every decision made regarding the curriculum, textbooks, examinations, and methods, is based on the criterion of whether or not it contributes to communication.

There was much heated discussion on this issue, particularly public discussion in the press, with strong objections from many teachers who opposed the stress on communication. They saw English as a general humanistic subject whose value was not practical. They sneered at the idea of practicality. Thus, the stress on language skills meant, to them, a degrading of the subject. They equated this to woodworking or physical training. They would have preferred continued emphasis on literary appreciation (not necessarily
translation), particularly the study of William Shake­
speare's works. There were those among the teachers who.
had been teaching the "old" material for many years, and
they did not want to change. The core of the old material
was Shakespeare.

The first teachers of English in Israel, those who
established the curricula 25-30 years ago, were mostly immi­
grants from European countries. They were not necessarily
native English speakers, and came primarily from Germany,
Austria, and Hungary. They saw the English language as the
key that opens the door to Eastern culture for the Israeli
student. Consequently, these teachers stressed the classi­
cal approach to language instruction; namely, literature,
grammar, and translation. In addition, most of these teach­
ers spoke a rather poor English with an even poorer accent
and their textbooks contained more German than English gram­
mar. There are still many teachers who have been teaching
literature for the sake of literature, unlike many of the
new crop of teachers who teach literature as a means or as a
tool to communication. These old-time teachers find it dif­
ficult to rid themselves of their way of teaching.

One of the professors in charge of training English
teachers gave an interesting insight to the present implica­
tions of this situation.12 Many times, she works for two
years with a student, preparing him for teaching English
according to the new approach (with emphasis on
communication). After the completion of the course of studies, when she visits the new teacher's English class, she finds nothing of what she had taught at the University, as if the idea of communication in English teaching has never penetrated the student's mind. After a brief investigation, it turns out that the former student and present teacher had an excellent English teacher in his high school years, whom he admired and who was the educational figure and outstanding ideal for him. This high school teacher usually taught literature and was invariably of German or Austrian origin and arrived in Israel in the early 1930's (in the period when the literary approach developed). The student was so influenced by this teacher that he sees a future for successful English teaching only if the proven example of the "old" teacher is followed.

The members of the Syllabus Committee were maligned by an association of many persons who claimed that the Committee was robbing English teaching of its only educational value which, in their opinion, is the reading of Shakespeare in the original. Here are some of their arguments:

A. A letter to the editor in the English Teachers' Journal (Israel) Number 11, November 1973:

"Sir: The new English teaching-programme, as set out in your various notes and announcements to schools (prescribed readings for grades 11 and 12) seems to us, after careful study of its various items to be totally inadequate and
unsuitable as teaching-material for our schools. (As a
linguist you are obviously and professedly uninterested in
its literary value.)

The prescribed material is full of sex, violence and
frustration and devoid of any value whatsoever. Education-
ally as well as didactically it is profoundly unsatisfactory
and often harmful. We shall fight your new programme,
unless it collapses of its own.--Circle of Desperate
Teachers."

B. From Jerusalem Post Reporter Philip Gillon's arti-
cle: "The Decline of William Shakespeare" (The
Jerusalem Post Magazine, February 16, 1973)

"My own teacher at the Denmark School (Jerusalem) is
very dubious both about the philosophy underlying the new
syllabus and about the expulsion of Shakespeare from the
syllabus.

"'Personally,' she says, 'I regret very much that the
content and values of literature are being so drastically
reduced. I think a student goes to secondary school for
human and cultural values, not just to get the tools of
language so as to make himself understood.'

"She compares the position to that of a Jew abroad who
has studied Torah¹³ all his life, as against one who only
begins learning Hebrew for the first time when he goes to an
Ulpan.¹⁴ The latter knows enough to find his way around the
city, order groceries at the store, talk to strangers in the
street. Perhaps, if he is exceptional, he can read an Israeli afternoon paper. The former has all Hebrew literature open to him, and can pick up spoken Hebrew very quickly.

"'The reformers say that the idea is that sabras should be able to understand and talk English,' she comments, 'With whom and to whom? Tourists? Anglo-Saxon immigrants? If they learn Shakespeare and go abroad, they'll pick up English soon enough. I've had hundreds of pupils who have studied Shakespeare, and they have all loved it. They have left school more cultured people.

"'They want to emphasize oral comprehension and talking, rather than reading and writing, to give more tachlis. So what's the great tachlis in the new syllabus? The stress on the oral approach will leave the pupil with a very limited vocabulary and a limited knowledge of English literature. It's basically a question of what we want to do for our pupils. Do we want to teach them English like HymaH Kaplan was taught in America? An immigrant to America needed some sort of spoken English fast, to get a job or run a business. Our students are in quite a different situation: they need culture, education, not training in the use of language only as a tool.'"

C. Among those who think that the study of Shakespeare's work is an experience which is challenging, stimulating, inspiring, and wonderful is Mrs. Sheila Sar-Shalom, a veteran teacher of English at the Ma'ale High School in Jerusalem,
now a consultant on English teaching. She mourns the dropping of the great Elizabethan like Autory mourning Caesar.

"I don't think it's a good idea" she says. "The pupils have a wonderful time learning Shakespeare, if it's properly taught, as living drama, as well as language. Of course it's demanding, it means that the teacher has to be good. But, if the teacher is no good, what syllabus will help? I've had pupils come to me years later and say how much they enjoyed the Shakespeare, how well they remember it, how it conditioned their whole approach to English. I think it's an easy way out, dropping Shakespeare, and it's a pity."

Otherwise, she approves of most of Mr. Gefen's ideas—teaching children to read a newspaper, to carry on a conversation, to master the scientific and technological jargon they'll need in later studies.

"But don't banish Shakespeare!" she insists. "It all depends on getting better teachers. If you have good teachers, you'll have no problem."

D. Zveya Cohen, a twelfth grade student at the Bar Ilan High School, gave her opinion on the Bard at a debate titled "Shakespeare and the Sabra."

"Since I was taught only one of Shakespeare's plays, 'Julius Caesar,' I can refer only to that play. I must say that he succeeded in conveying to us the real atmosphere of ancient Rome. But not only is the play a record of history
it is a literary play as well. It is interesting and full of suspense: the reader wants to know what will happen, and this keeps him reading continuously. Shakespeare used special motifs and phenomena which hint at events which are going to take place, such as the disturbing warning of the soothsayer in the midst of the celebrations on the Feast of Lupercal, or Calpurina's dream the night before Caesar went to the Senate.

"Thus, although not everyone can understand Shakespeare easily, I am sure it is valuable, interesting, and teaches us a great deal."

E. Rinah Cohen, another twelfth grader at the same school expresses her opinion of Shakespeare:

"Shakespeare's plays are only one part of the syllabus for the matriculation examination in English, which includes various plays, poems, and stories from different periods. But Shakespeare is the most important playwright of the earlier period.

"Some people claim that since the style of Shakespeare is not used today, we have nothing to learn from these plays. This complaint has no basis and no justification. Who says that we have to forget the past? Who dares to say that we can learn only about the present? The past is an integral part of our days! Who dares to say that because we have Bernstein, Stravinsky, and Mazzaz, Picasso, and Dali, we have to forget the past? He who says so is stupid! The old works are the stepping stones to the future."
The uproar began in 1967 when the Ministry of Education and Culture first decided on a practical change by introducing a newly structured Matriculation Exam, in which comprehension was stressed. The idea was that since instruction is geared toward the Matriculation Exam, the teachers would have to become more "comprehension-communication" oriented in their teaching. Many teachers refused to accept the changes which, they claimed, would lower the standards instead of raising them. The Ministry of Education and Culture yielded and retreated for the next two years. There were, however, some small-scale changes in the exams, such as:

A. not to demand that the student use the "correct tenses," but rather the "suitable tenses"—since there are cases in which more than one particular tense can be used without giving up "correctness." English is not static.

B. to demand clear English rather than idiomatic English.

C. to lower the demand of a 1,000-word vocabulary to a 400-word vocabulary.

D. to gear questions to the testing of proficiency rather than achievement.

Ultimately, however, it was realized that no fundamental changes can be made in the Matriculation Examinations without changes in the curriculum, and not the other way around. 20
Thus, we are back to the Syllabus Committee. It is necessary to examine this Committee more closely.

The Syllabus Committee consisted of about 20 people (19 according to some): the heads of the English Departments of the Hebrew University in Jerusalem, Tel-Aviv University, and the Bar-Ilan University; 4-5 University lecturers or senior lecturers; 4-5 regional English inspectors plus the Chief Inspector and 5 teachers in the field—from high school, vocational school, Kibbutz school, and elementary school.

On the surface, it seems that having an odd-numbered committee means that there has to be a majority of votes for reaching a decision. This raises the question of who as the influence over whom, or who has the final word in the decision-making process? But all this is only on the surface. Actually, there was no real majority because all the university representatives did not create a unanimous block of votes. Each university or each faculty member usually followed a different school of thought, and there were no two universities that subscribed to the same linguistic approach. Thus, it is wrong to assume that all university people represented one body. The same is true for the teachers (perhaps to a lesser degree) because of the different interests each of them represented. If any block of people on this Committee had any kind of power or carried any weight in the decision-making process, it might have been the group
of inspectors, although even this is improbable, considering the fact that many of the inspectors "moonlighted" as university lecturers or professors. The consensus of opinion in this matter is very unscientific; everything depended on the personalities involved. Even though there was some conflict of interest among the teacher representatives on the committee, basically they still had a great deal in common. Yet I was told, off the record, by a non-teacher member of the Syllabus Committee, that the teachers were the most inhibited and least talkative members of the Committee. According to another source, teacher representation of the Syllabus Committee was inadequate and its influence, therefore, was minimal. Consequently, the rank and file of teachers, according to this source, was dissatisfied with the Committee's work.

Unfortunately, the Committee did not keep any protocols of their meetings or discussions, no neither claim can be verified. The only written document available on this subject is an article by the Chief English Inspector in the Ministry of Education and Culture and a member of the Committee on the new Syllabus for the Upper Grades.

From the discussion thus far, one can sense a rather negative attitude from various directions toward the fundamental changes in the new syllabus. What then were the positive forces that pushed toward the change?
There was a continuous unrest building up against the "old" syllabus. Many English teachers were dissatisfied with the literary appreciation stress because they realized that the achievements in English were not what they were hoping them to be in terms of proficiency in the language. Another factor to consider is this: The State of Israel now has a higher proportion of English teachers who are native speakers than any other country in the world. In contrast, the majority of the older generation of English teachers were not native speakers of English, but received their academic training in Germany (in the pre-War period) and are much more inclined to the more classical approach to the philosophy of education.

There was only strong public opinion against the "old" syllabus, especially among young Israelis who had been through the Israeli educational system, who know Shakespeare backward and forward, and yet could not speak English. They could not communicate in English. They claimed that they had spent 5 hours a week learning English in school, but did not achieve any kind of satisfactory proficiency in the language.

Thus, public opinion among young Israelis, together with a new spirit among young linguistically oriented English teachers, added impetus to the already existing, practically world-wide shift toward "communication-emphasis" in language instruction. This last point is not specific to Israel. In
all of the countries of the world where education is important, where methods of education are being discussed, where teachers are being trained—there is a continuing revision in the aims and objectives of the foreign language program. Israel is no exception, neither is it revolutionary—it is just following what is happening in that sphere the world over. Today, it is safe to say, the emphasis is on the spoken language all over the world.

At earlier times students were taught a lot of grammar and translation with the hope that perhaps at the end of their high school career they would be able to speak English. This would be the "by-product climax" of the English studies. Very few did, however, speak English at the conclusion of their studies. Today, as already mentioned, the emphasis has changed, and teaching begins with the spoken language, language as means of communication. This is the objective and, therefore, the instruction is not aimed toward speaking; in the future, the goal is not to eventually reach that stage. Teaching starts with communicating with the children right in the fifth (or fourth) grade, right on the first day of school. According to one opinion, positive results can already be noticed; a better percentage of students speak English on a higher level.

V. The Implementation of the Curricula

As far as the literary material is concerned, there is a clear distinction between literature being taught in grades
Generally speaking, in grades 5-10, literature is not taught in its original form, but is rewritten and simplified for teaching English as a foreign language. In grades 11 and 12 conversely, literature is taught as it was originally written. It should be noted that the transition from the simplified to the sophisticated is not sudden but gradual; it begins in grade 9 where occasionally an original piece of literature is taught. To be sure, the transition is not an easy one, particularly because at that stage the students' self-reading is quite limited due to the fact that their working vocabulary fluctuates between 1,000 and 3,000 words. In the tenth grade, the students are more or less capable of reading the books of their choice and this serves also as a transition to extensive activity. Although there is a definite graduality, all problems of transition are not yet solved.

In many cases, literature serves as a tool for comprehension. Instead of reading a newspaper every day, which can become quite boring according to many teachers, literary works are introduced, which are more interesting and offer more content. However, no generalization can be made. Ultimately in spite of prescribed curricula, it is still the teacher who implements the syllabi and who determines the degree of importance of literature within the framework of the curriculum. Although serious study of literature begins
officially in the eleventh grade, there are teachers who try to "open the students' eyes" to the beauty of literature in the Intermediate Level grades, or even before. A "good" teacher plans ahead in the lower grades by implanting the love for literature into the students' hearts. Consequently, the students consider the study of "good" literature as a pleasure and not as a burden.

Freedom, to a certain degree, is given to the teacher in the teaching of literature. Since the new curricula have been in effect, the Inspectorate has come out with some recommendations concerning the existing textbooks for literature. Some books are singled out as ones that are not fit for the new curriculum, yet many teachers continue to use them. On the other hand, modern texts are being used.

For language teaching (and to a small degree also for the teaching of literature) an additional aid is being used: newspapers. The reading of newspapers is no novelty in English instruction in Israel. It is the newspapers that are new. Until two years ago, the Friday edition of the "Jerusalem Post," which had two special pages for youth, was used.

VI. The Currently Used Newspapers

There are three English newspapers for Youth in Israel today:

1. Contact--a news magazine for students
2. **English News**—a monthly newspaper for students of English

3. **Junior English News**—a monthly newspaper for students of English

A. **Contact** is a bi-weekly magazine published in Jerusalem by Jerusalem Post Publications, Ltd., jointly with the Board of Jewish Education of New York. It was originally intended for youth abroad who were interested in Israeli youth and Israeli current events. Since it is written primarily for native speakers of English, the language is often too difficult for the native Israeli youngster. Its content, however, is current, interesting, and well illustrated. It covers, in addition to news items, features and some short stories and a Hebrew-English puzzle.

2. **English News** is a special newspaper in easy English, especially tailored to the needs of Israeli pupils. It first appeared in September, 1973 and quickly became a vital aid in schools throughout the country.

With the new concern for the improvement of the standards of English teaching and the willingness to try new ideas and methods in the pursuit of this goal, there is less emphasis placed now on classical reading, and the study of English in general has become more attuned to the modern needs of Israel's students.

To this end **English News**, and for that matter, **Junior English News** have a definite role. They are monthly
publications, resembling a newspaper, that contain news items on major local and overseas events and developments, and features of special interest to Israel's youth, including articles on sports, entertainment, personalities, nature notes, technology, school events, crossword puzzles, quizzes, and folk songs. Both papers also give pupils a chance to express themselves with written contributions.

In addition, a comprehensive English-Hebrew glossary appears on the inside and back pages, enabling individual study in the classroom and at home.

Apart from being effective as enjoyable teaching aids, the papers are also safe stepping stones to reading a daily English newspaper. Through news and feature articles, they naturally contain words and phrases (with relevant glossaries) necessary for newspaper comprehension.

Both English News and Junior English News have the approval of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Both papers are widely recommended by inspectors of English.

English News is especially prepared for grades 10-12. It has been successfully used in secondary schools of all types--academic, vocational, religious, kibbutz, and agricultural.

C. Junior English News is intended for grades 8-10 and classes which find English News too difficult. Sentence construction is simpler and vocabulary is appropriate for the junior high and advanced primary school level.
The pilot issue of *Junior English News* appeared in the summer of 1974 and the first regular issue in October, 1974.

In line with the new curriculum for the Upper Division, the Tel-Avic City Hall published two books: *Twentieth Century English Short Story*, and *Twentieth Century American Short Story*, which are now widely used. (Eighteenth and nineteenth century short stories are no longer being taught.) In addition, G. B. Shaw's *Pygmalion* and Arthur Miller's *All My Sons* are very popular.

The teachers who still complain about the "cancellation" of Shakespeare claim not to have any objection to the new emphasis on conversation. This new stress, however, does not justify, according to them the elimination of the study of Shakespeare's works. In fact, they argue, the "good" teacher always stressed conversation by discussing with the students a Shakespeare play in English.

So again, ultimately, almost everything depends on the teacher, on his attitudes, abilities, priorities, and personality. The teachers still enjoy academic freedom; in spite of the new emphasis stressed in the new syllabi, there is evidence that in some schools English instruction continues to be what it used to be before the appearance of the new syllabi, i.e., in some schools, English conversation is still not stressed at all.
VII. Problems in the Implementation of the New Curricula

There are some general problems which cannot be blamed on the new approach. The problems of methodology may be different in nature, but there were problems of methodology before; the general problem of teaching English as a foreign language to the Israeli student regardless of what is emphasized, always existed. The discussion of this particular problem is outside the scope of this study.

Another problem that cannot be blamed on the new approach is the problem of the culturally and socially disadvantaged or deprived children. "Deprived" in that they come to school and do not know what a book is. These children come from homes where the parents do not read, do not communicate or play with them as other parents do. This is a problem of a land of mass immigration, a land in which the "Ingathering of Exiles" includes the ingathering of the culturally deprived and primitive as well. This problem, naturally, is not specific to English teaching, and is not a nationwide problem. It is, rather, limited to development areas with a large concentration of immigrants from underdeveloped countries.

A. Teachers
B. Materials
C. Transition
A. Teachers

The resentment of some teachers to the new approach has already been discussed. However, even those teachers who favor the change need to be trained or retrained in order to be able to cope with the new requirements. This involves the study of some linguistics and the acquisition of more active knowledge; an essential part of verbal communication. A problem may exist even with the teacher who was properly trained for the new approach and who was taught the appropriate methods for the successful implementation of this approach and who is highly motivated to fully follow the new direction. To be sure, the creation of the problem is unintentional and, in most cases, beyond his control. It seems that some school administrators view the newly graduated teacher as an inexperienced beginner who, regardless of his grades and regardless of the reputation of the institution of higher learning where these grades were achieved, is not a good teacher. Consequently, he is assigned to teach in the lowest grades. This assignment is based on the fallacious assumption that "the better the teacher, the higher grade he should teach" and completely disregards the importance of the foundation that has to be laid down in these lower classes. Worse yet, these new teachers are assigned to an old-line teacher, who is usually an ardent follower of the old school of thought, in order to be guided, counseled,
and directed. Often, the result is the "corruption" of the new teacher from the point of view of the new approach.

Another problem concerns the choice of teachers. Some schools prefer to employ Israeli teachers, others prefer American or British teachers. There are definite pros and cons to each choice. Those in favor of the employment of Israeli teachers claim that (1) the Israeli, not being a native speaker of English, understands better the difficulties the Israeli student has to face learning English as a foreign language. Since he went through, so to speak, the same difficulties and prevailed, he has a better chance of helping the Israeli student to overcome the difficulties that may arise during the course of study; (2) The Israeli teacher, so the theory goes, being a permanent resident, is more reliable as far as continuity, stability, and permanency are concerned. The American or British teacher may have come to Israel because of some temporary-personal reason or problem, and therefore, he may leave at any time, even in the middle of the school year.

On the other hand, there are those schools who prefer the hiring of the American or British teachers. The reasoning goes as follows: (1) Since the emphasis is on the language as a means of communication, with the objective to enable the student to understand the native English speaker and to be understood by him, and since according to many leading linguists, spoken language is acquired by mimicry and
imitation for which good examples are essential, then the native American or British teacher is more qualified and, therefore, preferable to fill the task of English teaching to the native Israeli student. (2) The American or British teacher comes to Israel with high motivation to teach. Otherwise, he simply would not have come to this country. He came with the intent to settle permanently in the Land, so the argument goes, and this fact indicates a high degree of idealism, volunteerism, and enthusiasm on the part of the candidate—characteristics that practically guarantee success in one's endeavors in general, and in teaching in particular.

B. Materials

1. Instructional Television

Television is probably the most useful and successful "material" in the English instruction program in Israel. Its great success can be attributed to the following factors:

a. Availability—it can reach equally almost all the students of English in the country and provide them with a uniform program.

b. The Lessening of the Teacher's Workload—the teacher does not have to prepare visual aids, placards, vocabulary cards, signs, etc. Instead, all he/she has to do is turn the switch on the television set.

c. Professionalism—many of the English teachers in the elementary schools are not English speakers. In fact, many of these teachers are not even trained English teachers, but
rather general teachers who also studied and know English. This is particularly true in Grades 5 and 6, and it is precisely in these grades that listening to the language is important. Television can provide this service with good professional, native English speakers and teachers.

d. **Coordination**—although the Israeli Instructional Television System operates as an independent unit, it is still part of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Consequently, one can find close cooperation between these two bodies. In practical terms, the television lessons are based on the official syllabus, as prepared by the Ministry of Education and Culture, and, therefore, closely follow the principles of the new approach with its emphasis on the spoken language.

Moreover, the University of Tel-Aviv, which is now in charge of the preparation of the English textbooks and which is also represented in the Planning Committee of the Instructional Television System, prepares textbooks according to the same syllabus, so that they can be used in the television classes. These television textbooks also help the teacher introduce the vocabulary and test of what the students are about to see and hear. These texts contain the grammatical structures that are being taught.

2. "ESH"

Even though the television texts contain some grammatical structures, the actual teaching of grammar is done
through a series of books called "ESH,"32 (English for Speakers of Hebrew) at various levels. This series of books is also prepared in conjunction with the telecast material. It also contains a great deal of reinforcement exercises on the grammatical structures.

"ESH" is the product of an experimental project conducted by the English Department of Tel-Aviv University in cooperation with the Israel Ministry of Education and Culture. It was financed in its earlier stages by the Office of Education of the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare as a sub-project of the Planning Center for the teaching of English in Israel, and subsequently by the Israel Ministry of Education and Culture.

For an example: the Intermediate Level series,33 intended for approximately the fourth, fifth, and sixth years of English language instruction, represents a revised version of experimental materials that have been used in approximately 100 ninth and tenth grade classes throughout Israel from early 1967.

The full Intermediate Level Series consists of the following: Language texts (Stages One, Two, and Three); Readers (Stages One, Two, and Three); one selection of extensive readings entitled "Some Stories and Poems"; and a special Teacher's Handbook for each text in the series.
The materials mentioned thus far, particularly the instructional television, seem to be successful. However, some problems still exist.

a. The relative newness—it is difficult to measure the degree of success of materials in such a short period of time. The first, partial results will be seen at the end of the coming academic year (1974-75) when the first group of students who started their Upper Division studies with these new materials, take their Matriculation Exams.

b. Closely related to the above is the problem of adaptability of the teachers to the new material. If the teacher cannot or does not wish to adopt the new materials, there is, obviously, little hope for any degree of success.

c. Financial—the financial difficulties of the State of Israel have a special bearing, particularly on the implementation of the full television program. As mentioned before, the Instructional Television Center is an independent branch of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Therefore, not operating as a commercial television center, (which, incidentally is non-existent in Israel) its total budget has to be covered by the Government. Moreover, although ideally every class where English is taught would have a television set, many schools find it difficult, to this day, to provide even one set for the whole school.
C. Transition

As a by-product of the new approach, reading has become somewhat neglected. All the factors involved in the change—the Inspectorate, the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Universities, some of the teachers (especially the new generation of teachers, among them many Americans), public opinion, etc.—incorporated enthusiastically the new spirit of emphasis on the spoken language. English has to be spoken—and not necessarily read. Consequently, so it seems to this author, they overdid it by adopting the other extreme, overstressing speech at the expense of reading. In the final analysis, it seems clear that for most of the students, especially for those who will continue in higher learning, reading of professional literature in English will be essential.

The problem of the extremes can be solved by the process of transition. In fact, one can already see signs of change. Many people in the field are coming to the realization that stressing speech, and speech alone, does not solve the problem of reading. This realization indicates a new trend, a trend of balance. Given adequate time, a necessary ingredient to any successful transition, a stable balance will be achieved.

Eventually it will also help to earn the necessary trust and support of the opponents of the new approach. Without their trust, support, and cooperation, the chances for ultimate success are slim.
NOTES TO CHAPTER TWO


2For example, Robert L. Politzer, Foreign Language Learning, p. 8.

3Raphael Gefen, Chief English Inspector, on a taped interview (August 28, 1974).

4No copy of any of these questionnaires is available.

5See exception in the description of the Upper Division Syllabus.

6The English Inspectorate is divided according to regions, and it consists of 16 inspectors and a Chief Inspector.


8Curriculum for English Instruction, Jerusalem, 1962.

9These patterns are listed in Appendix B.


12Professor E. Olshtain, Tel-Aviv University, in a taped interview (September 4, 1974).

13The Bible.

14Special school designed for the intensive teaching of Hebrew to the new immigrant adults in Israel.

15Native Israelis.

16"Purpose"


18Ibid.
19 The Matriculation Exam is discussed separately in detail in Chapter 3.

20 The Chief Inspector, on the other hand, argues that by changing the examination requirement, the teaching program automatically will change, too. This, in his mind, is the main advantage of a national examination. (Taped interview, August 28, 1974.)

21 The opinion of Ms. S. Sar-Shalom, Master-teacher and teachers' counselor in the Jerusalem District, given in a taped interview in Jerusalem (September, 1974).


23 In grade 5, there are three hours per week of English, in grades 6, 7, and 8, there are four hours, in grades 9, 10, 11, and 12, five hours per week.

24 The opinion of the Southern District English Inspector, Mr. I. Ernest. (Taped interview, September 5, 1974.)

25 Some carefully selected newspapers are being used. They will be discussed later.

26 According to Ms. S. Sar-Shalom, master-teacher and teachers' counselor in the Jerusalem District. (Taped interview, Jerusalem, September 2, 1974.)

27 See Appendix D.

28 A taped interview with twelfth grade student in Jerusalem (September, 1974).

29 Tel-Aviv University is preparing special teaching materials for "T'uney Tipuach," the culturally deprived and socially disadvantaged children in the various areas of teaching, including English.

30 Although British and American English are different in ways of pronunciation, accent, and semantics, they are equated here, since the policy of the Ministry of Education is one of "no policy" insofar as these items are concerned; the British teacher teaches British English and the American teacher, American English. (The Israeli English, therefore, is called, half jokingly, and half seriously, BRANDISH.)

31 Not only can television reach all the students, but not less importantly, it can also reach all the teachers.
Incidentally, "ESH" is the Hebrew word for "fire."

Constructed by: Teaching Materials Unit, Department of English, Tel-Aviv University.
CHAPTER III

THE ENGLISH MATRICULATION EXAMINATION

I. Introduction

The Matriculation Examination is the climax of the eight-year-long English educational program in the Israeli system. Practically speaking, however, only the last two years of high-school (grades 11 and 12) serve as preparation for the Matriculation (Bagrut) Exams. It is in these two grades where the actual preparation for the Exams is more stressed than anything else. It be sure, English is not the only subject on these Exams, but it is, no doubt, one of the most difficult for the Israeli students. The 'Bagrut' examination papers in English have been a subject of criticism for years.

For students intending to continue their education in institutions of higher learning the successful passing of the Matriculation Exams is an absolute must—it is a precondition or prerequisite for acceptance at the Universities. This last statement needs to be qualified. The Kibbutz schools for instance, do not administer the Bagrut exams for ideological reasons. This fact, however, does not prevent the Kibbutz graduates from furthering their
education at the Universities. For these students, and others,\(^3\) the universities have set up internal institutes whose purpose is to prepare the students for Bagrut exams. At the completion of these preparatory studies, the Universities administer their own exams. These exams have to be approved in advance by the Chief English Inspector. These exams are more attuned to the Universities' requirements. The Technion of Haifa ("the Israeli M.I.T."), for example, has such an in-service system, and there, obviously, the stress is on technical English without any literature at all. These university-prepared exams are also graded by the respective Universities themselves.

Basically, it may be said that in approximately the first 20 years of the State's existence, the teaching of English as a foreign language in the two upper grades (grades 11 and 12) was culture oriented rather than language oriented. The culture-directed orientation should be explained.

According to the "cultural approach" English is to be studied and taught as a "civilization." As the old Syllabus\(^4\) points out, English is the "key to world civilization," it is the duty of the secondary school "to provide our youth with a key to world-civilization and thus to widen their horizons and enrich their spiritual heritage" and "to contribute to international understanding." The fact that at that time world literature was hardly available in Hebrew translation only supported the above mentioned educational objectives.
The practical execution of these aims, however, could only be carried out if students entering the eleventh grade possessed the necessary command of the language to enable them to successfully tackle the difficulties posed by the literary material. This, however, was not the case. G. Cohen and R. Aronson in their survey on English teaching in Israel point out: "The results of the tests in the two upper grades of secondary school show:

(a) The command of language, both active and passive, of Grade XI pupils is highly unsatisfactory, and is inadequate to the demands imposed by the required study of original literary texts.

(b) The level of English attained by the end of Grade XI bears no proportion to the standard demanded by the Matriculation Examination."

Obviously, the demands by the "Cultural Approach" in the two upper grades were unrealistic and, consequently, doomed to failure.

It seems that already in the lower grades there existed a considerable gap between the requirements and the actual attainments. Students simply could not attain the material as it was prescribed in the Syllabus. This unattainability gave rise to students' and teachers' frustrations and to the increased need for outside help.

It should be realized, for example, that the first year of foreign language study places heavy demands on the learner. Vocabulary intake cannot be as rapid as at later stages, when pupils are already familiar with the script, sounds and basic patterns of the foreign medium. To illustrate only one aspect, which can be expressed quantitatively, of relative difficulties of a Hebrew speaking child confronted with a non-cognate language: the native
English speaker learning Spanish will be able to recognize 750 Spanish words cognate to English before beginning the study of Spanish ("Encyclopaedia of Educational Research," p. 472, 3rd ed., 1950); similarly, a Norwegian child learning English will be able to recognize about a quarter, and a Swedish child about a third, of the basic vocabulary required for the first two years of language study. On the basis of a word count of the glossaries contained in the textbooks: "My First English Reader," Lindahl and Carpenter, Stockhold, "Over to England," Nesset and Slaato, Oslo. The Hebrew-speaking child starts with an obvious handicap.

II. The English Matriculation Exam 1974

A. Structure

The English exam consists of two parts. The allotted time for each part is two hours. The first part contains two sections. In the first section the student is required to write a composition of about 300 words. He is given five themes from which he is to choose one. This is a free composition in the sense that it is not at all directly related to the material covered in class. It is rather to test the student's ability to express himself freely on a contemporary, relevant subject. To this end, he is allowed to use an assigned dictionary. This composition counts 20 points.

The second section of the first part is the so-called "Comprehension Passage." Here, the student is given a previously unseen passage which is followed by 5 questions on the content of the passage. The student is to answer these questions of Comprehension using his own words, as far as
possible. Ten words or phrases in the passage are underlined. In the first of the 5 questions the student is to explain in English, with the aid of the dictionary if necessary, the underlined words or phrases, by giving their meaning in this context only. The correct answer to this question counts for 10 points, the other 4 questions count for 5 points each.

Thus, the successful completion of the first part of the English Matriculation (Bagrut) Exam yields 50 points:

Section I - Composition 20 points

Section II - Comprehension Passage 30 points
Total of 50 points.

The second part of the exam contains sections III and IV. Language is tested in section III and Literature in section IV. Allowed time is two hours.

The requirements of section III are as follows:

1. **Correct Usage of verbs in the different tenses**
   The verbs are given in the infinitive form within the context of a passage. The student is required to substitute the infinitive with the suitable form of the verb. (5 points)

2. **Formation of Questions**
   The student is given 5 declarative sentences that serve as answers to which he is to form the appropriate questions. In order to avoid ambiguity, the words in the sentences for which the questions have to be formed are underlined. (5 points)
3. **Derivation of words from given verbs and nouns**

Here the student is asked to fill in the suitable word in each of the sentences. The word from which the new word ought to be derived and formed is given in brackets before each sentence. (5 points)

4. **Missing Parts of Speech**

The examinee is given a number of sentences in a passage with 15 missing words which may be any part of speech. There is no rule as to the kind or type of missing parts of speech. The missing word may be any Part of Speech. (15 points)

**Section IV Literature**

In this section there are 20 questions. The students are required to answer any two of the 20 questions for 20 points (10 points for each question). The literary works from which the questions were made up in the 1974 Summer Bagrut Exam, were as follows:

- **Julius Caesar** - (Shakespeare)
- **Macbeth** - (Shakespeare)
- **Pygmalion** - (Shaw)
- **St. Joan** - (Shaw)
- **The Devil's Disciple** - (Shaw)
- **Land** - (Lewis)
- **The Devil and Daniel Webster** - (Benet)
- **The Cop and the Anthem** - (O'Henry)
- **The Leader of the People** - (Steinbeck)
University Days - (Thurber)
Reminiscences of Childhood - (Thomas)
Shooting an Elephant - (Orwell)
The Door in the Wall - (Wells)
Mr. Know - All - (Maugham)
The Rocking - Horse Winner (Lawrence)
The Declaration of Independence
The Gettysburg Address
Thoughts on Peace - (Woolf)

In the last question there are 12 quotations from poems that were taught in school. The examinee is asked to choose 2 of them, identify them and explain their significance in the context of the whole poem. The poets whose poems are quoted are: Shelley, Hardy, Wordsworth, Frost, Tennyson, Keats, MacLeish, Yeats, Brooke and Sassoon.

The second part of the Exam, just as the first, yields 50 points upon successful completion:

Section III - Language - 30 points
Section IV - Literature - 20 points

Total points for the entire English Bagrut Exam add up to 100:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here is the 1972 Summer English Bagrut (Matriculation) Examination in its entirety:

The Exam

I. COMPOSITION (about 300 words)

Choose ONE of the following subjects. (20 points)

1. Your cousin in the United States of America has written you a letter, in which he (she) mentions his (her) recent illness, the marriage of another cousin, and the difficult decisions he (she) has to make soon in deciding what career to take up.

Answer the letter, referring to the subjects raised in it, and give your own family news, career prospects, etc.

2. Where were you and what were you doing when the Egyptian and Syrian Armies attacked us on 5 October 1973? What did you do later on during that day and the following three or four days? What were your feelings during that period?

3. A zoo in Israel has asked you to write an article in English, for the benefit of foreign visitors, describing the zoo, its location and facilities, the animals, etc. Write such a description, which will appeal to tourists.

4. Discuss the Russian writer Solzhenitsyn, his books and his personal history.
5. Write a dialogue between two young people, discussing their favourite singers or actors. They discuss the lives and careers of these singers or actors and explain why they prefer them to others.

II. COMPREHENSION PASSAGE

Read the following passage carefully and then answer questions 6-10 that follow, using your own words as far as possible.

The developing countries are going to suffer most and longest from the energy crisis. Apart from fortunate countries such as Nigeria and Indonesia, which are oil exporters, there are some 75 to 80 countries in the developing world, or about three-quarters of the poorer nations, which do not produce their own energy supplies.

The hardest hit in those countries are the working classes and peasants, who use bottled cooking gas, mostly in the cities, and kerosene as the main supply for light and heat in the villages. Particularly among the peasants, big price increases could put kerosene out of reach of millions of people for cooking food, or for heat and light.

Moreover, the least developed countries will carry the heaviest burden because they have nothing to fall back on such as rich coal deposits, no technology to speed development of new resources such as nuclear or solar energy, and not the financial means to meet the
rising prices of oil. All these escape routes are open to richer nations. Oil is a convenience for the industrial countries; for the developing world it is a life-line essential to its survival.

The highest priority in developing countries is the modernization of agriculture and the need for immediate and dramatic rises in production. Oil is essential for this. Petrol and diesel fuel are needed for trucks and tractors; naphtha, a by-product of oil, is processed into fertilizer; further energy is required for refrigeration, expert drying of crops and food storage.

For poorer countries, buying oil always caused a considerable drain on their meagre foreign exchange resources, and this is now greatly aggravated by recent price rises, of up to 70%. Unless this upward spiral in prices is halted, or some measure of relief is provided, it could bring development of the Third World to a dead halt.

6. Explain in English (using your dictionary if necessary) the 10 words or phrases underlined, giving their meaning in this context only. (10 points)

7. In what ways will individuals in developing countries be affected by the energy crisis, according to the passage? (5 points)

8. In what ways will the development of agriculture in poor countries be affected by the energy crisis, according to the passage? (5 points)
9. Why will the richer nations be less affected by lack of oil than will the poorer nations? (5 points)

10. What must be done to help the poorer nations survive the energy crisis?

III. LANGUAGE

11. Copy out the following passage, putting in a suitable form of the verb in brackets. Pay attention to word order. (5 points)

"Good evening, Mrs. Smith. Henry (to be) at home?"

"I'm so sorry. You just (to miss) him. If you (to come) ten minutes ago, you (to catch) him. He has left for work and won't get back till 8 o'clock tonight."

"You please (to tell) him I called?"

"Yes of course I will, but now you really must excuse me. The telephone (to ring) for the last three minutes at least, and the baby is crying because she not yet (to feed). You (to mind) (to write) down your name on this card? When Henry (to come) back tonight, I will make sure he gets it."

12. Form questions to which the underlined words in the following sentences are the answers. Example: he lives in Haifa. Question: Where does he live? (5 points)

WRITE DOWN COMPLETE SENTENCES.

1. I think it is Henry's hat.
2. He has been smoking cigarettes ever since he was a youngster.
3. He fell down and broke his leg while he was crossing the road.
4. She speaks Arabic well enough to make herself understood.
5. He gave Henry the book.

13. Complete the following sentences with a suitable form of the word in brackets. Write down the word with its number. (5 points)
   (receive) 1. The Ambassador's .... was a very successful function.
   (perform) 2. The Italian opera singer gave a remarkable .... last night.
   (child) 3. He had a happy .... but as an adult he has had nothing but trouble.
   (misery) 4. What a .... look you have on your face!
   (art) 5. What a beautiful room! You certainly have a most .... taste.

14. Write down the missing words with their numbers.
   Note: The missing word may be any Part of Speech (15 points)
   Henry had been driving steadily and without speaking for the last hour, but as we left the highway he turned and spoke to me.
"I think we (1) to let the family know we are coming," he said. "It's after midnight. We can't just land ourselves on them (2) warning."
I agreed sleepily. "Yes, perhaps you're (3)," I said. "Let's stop at the next telephone box."
In less (4) five minutes we came upon (5) and Henry pulled up at the side of the (6). "You do it," he said. "Let's stop at the next telephone box."
"It'll help to wake you (7). Don't waste time looking in the telephone directory. You (8) the number." I picked up my bag and got (9) of the car. In a (10) minutes I returned. "(11) is all right," I said. They are looking forward to (12) us." I settled down comfortably and we drove on. (3) I sat up with a start. "Henry!" I Cried. "My bag! I (14) have left it in the call-box!" "Oh heavens!" exclaimed Henry. "Why didn't you think of it before? We're at (15) ten miles away by now."

IV. LITERATURE
Answer any TWO questions from question 15-34. (20 points)

15. JULIUS CAESAR

Either: a. "It is the part of men to fear and tremble when the most mighty gods by tokens send Such dreadful heralds to astonish us."

Who says these words, to hom, and on what occasion:
Describe the scene in which these words are said:
16. MACBETH

Either: a. Macbeth said to the Murderers in Act III:

"Both of you know Banquo was your enemy. 
... So he is mine."

Why did Macbeth consider Banquo his enemy? What was the immediate consequence of this scene? What happened to Fleance?

OR: b. "Threescore and ten I can remember well
Within the volume of which time I have seen
Hours dreadful and things strange: but this
sore night
Has trifled former knowings."
Who says these words, to whom, and on what occasion?
Describe the scene in which these words are said.

OR: c. "While Macbeth sees himself as the embodiment of universal murder, Lady Macbeth is not concerned with the nature of universal horror but with practical details."

Mention some instances in the play which could justify this statement.

17. PYGMALION

Either: a. "Would the world ever have been made if its maker had been afraid of making trouble? Making life means making trouble."

Who says these words, to whom, and on what occasion?
What do they tell us about the character of the speaker?

OR: b. Mrs. Pearce: "Doolittle, sir."

Describe and compare Doolittle's appearance and behaviour in Act II and in Act V. What does Shaw want to indicate by this striking difference between the two?

OR: c. Liza says to Pickering in Act V:

"I shall always be a flower girl to Professor Higgins.... but I know I can be a lady to you."

What does she mean by these words? Why did her "real education" begin when Colonel Pickering called her "Miss Doolittle"? What do these words reveal about Higgins's and Pickering's behaviour to her?
18. **ST. JOAN**

Either: a. Joan says in the Epilogue:

"I hope men will be the better for remembering me; and they would not remember me so well if you had not burnt me."

Describe Joan and her impact on the people she met. Do you think Joan's words here are true, as seen in the context of later history?

OR: b. "I can tell you that one good treaty is worth ten good fights."

Who says these words, to whom, and on what occasion?

Describe the scene in which they are said:

OR: c. Shaw says in the Preface:

"The tragic part of the trial was that Joan, like most prisoners, didn't understand what they were accusing her of."

Describe the trial and Joan's behaviour, in the light of this statement.

19. **THE DEVIL'S DISCIPLE**

Either: a. "Mrs. Dudgeon is hateful and piteous at the same time."

How do we get this impression of her from the very beginning of the play? What were the factors that had shaped her character?

OR: b. "Though you may occupy towns and win battles, you cannot conquer a nation."
Who says these words, to whom, and on what occasion? Describe the scene in which they are said.

OR:

1. "If he isn't married to her he ought to be."

What scene does this sentence refer to? What is the ambiguity of these words? Do you think he ought to be?"

20. "... so he went back to Brooklyn not as to his home but as to prison...."

Show how this feeling accompanies Sidney throughout his life.

("Land")

21. "Because he'd wanted to change his life, now he was going to be punished for all eternity."

Describe Jabez Stone's life. How did it change from misery to prosperity? How was he to pay for his "good luck"?

("The Devil and Daniel Webster")

22. "Because he wanted to fall into their clutches they seemed to regard him as a king who could do no wrong."

What is ironical in the contrast between Soapy's ineffective attempts and his final success?

("The Cop and the Anthem")

23. "The boy dropped from his unseemly running and approached at a dignified walk." Jody was imitating Grandfather's movements. How else does the little boy express his admiration for his grandfather in the story?

("The Leader of the People")
24. ".... a tackle on the football team, named Bolenciewcz."
Describe the episode during the economics course. What
was Thurber's intention in presenting it in such an
extremely ridiculous manner? ("University Days")

25. "Never was there such a town as ours...."
What were the attractions of Dylan Thomas's town after
the little boy had outgrown the enchanting mysteries of
the park? ("Reminiscences of Childhood")

26. ".... at that distance, peacefully eating, the elephant
looked no more dangerous than a cow.... But at that
moment I glanced round at the crowd that followed
me...."
What was Orwell really afraid of? What did he want to
prove by describing his situation as being caught be­
tween a harmless elephant and a threatening crowd? —
("Shooting an Elephant")

27. "I have a photograph in which that look of detachment has
been caught and intensified."
This sentence hints that Lionel Wallace's encounters with
the wall were merely the visions of a dreamer, who tried
to escape the pressures of his obligations. What were
these obligations? Was he able to escape them eventually?
("The Door in the Wall")

28. "I was prepared to dislike Kelada even before I know him."
How does the author introduce Mr. Know-All to us and how
did he come to realize that his racial prejudices were mistaken? ("Mr. Know-All")

29. "She started with all the advantages, yet she had no luck."

What kind of luck did the mother seek? How did she eventually achieve it? Was it worth the price she paid for it? ("The Rocking-Horse Winner")

30. "... these united colonies are ... free and independent states." (The Declaration of Independence)

What does Jefferson state in the "Declaration" with regard to the reasons that led the colonies to seek their independence?

31. "The World .... can never forget what they did here." ("The Gettysburg Address")

How does Lincoln want the nation to honour the dead? What had "They done which the world "can never forget"?

32. "We must create more honourable activities for those who try to conquer in themselves their fighting instincts." ("Thoughts on Peace")

What is the duty of women in time of war, according to Virginia Woolf?

33. "A miracle of deliverance, achieved by valour, by perseverance, by perfect discipline, by faultless service.... is manifest to us all."

About whom does Churchill say these words? How else does he pay tribute to these same people?
34. Choose two of the following quotations from poems you have studied. State which poems they come from and explain the significance of the quotation in the context of the whole poem.

a. O Love! who bewailest
   The frailty of all things here,
   Why choose you the frailest
   For your cradle, your home and your bier?
   (Shelley)

b. And thoughtful men
   Contrast its days of Now and Then,
   And delve, and measure, and compare;
   (Hardy)

c. The winds that will be howling at all hours,
   And are up-gathered now like sleeping flowers.
   (Wordsworth)

d. Something we are withholding made us weak
   Until we found out that it was ourselves
   We were withholding....
   (Frost)

e. .... Come, my friends,
   'Tis not too late to seek a newer world.
   (Tennyson)

f. And this why I sojourn here
   Alone and palely loitering
   (Keats)
g. And much it grieved my heart to think
What Man has made of Man.

(Wordsworth)

h. I shall be telling this with a sigh
Somewhere ages and ages hence:

(Frost)

i. This, this is our land, this is our people,
This that is neither a land nor a race.

(MacLeish)

j. And I shall have some peace there, for peace comes
dropping slow,

(Yeats)

k. There are waters blown by changing winds to laughter
And lit by the rich skies, all day.

(Brooke)

l. Have you forgotten yet?
Look up, and swear by the green of the spring that
you'll never forget.

(Sassoon)

This Exam, with variations is representative of the old
Syllabus. In fact, it is the last one so representative.
When the new Syllabus became effective in September, 1973,
the July, 1974 graduates began their last year of study in
High School (twelfth grade). Consequently, the introduction
of the new Exam could only become effective for the students
of the eleventh grade as of September 1973, preparing for the final examinations in July 1975. Thus, the new Syllabus will coincide with the new examination program.

In examining the outline of the new English Matriculation Exam\(^1\) one finds a number of basic changes, compared to the pre-1975 exams. For the sake of careful comparison and analysis, therefore, a description of the new Exam is essential.

III. Outline for the English Matriculation Examinations for 1975 only\(^2\)

A. Oral Examination

B. Written Examination

The Written examination is subdivided into 2 parts.

Part 1 consists of (a) Composition, and (b) Reading Comprehension, passages ("Unseen" Passages). In (b) the use of a dictionary is permitted.\(^3\)

Part 2 consists of (c) Language questions, in accordance with the materials presented in the Syllabus for the Upper Division, and (d) Reading Program, which includes two questions on the set texts— one drama, two short stories, two non-fiction prose pieces, poetry, and non-poetry option.

(1) Drama: G. B. Shaw - "Arms and the Man" or Tennessee Williams - "The Glass Menagerie" or Arthur Miller - "All My Sons"

(2) The Short Story:

Option One (new Syllabus)
1. J. Joyce - "Eveline"
2. D. H. Lawrence - "The Blind Man"
3. P. Roth - "Eli the Fanatic" or
   D. Parker - "The Standard of Living."
4. F. O'Connor - "Everything that Rises Must Converge"
5. S. Crane - "The Open Boat"

Or: Option Two (old Syllabus)
1. S. Lewis - "Land"
2. S. Benet - "The Devil and Daniel Webster"
3. J. Steinbeck - "The Leader of the People"
4. W. S. Maugham - "Mr. Know - All"
5. H. G. Wells - "The Door in the Wall" or
   D. H. Lawrence - "The Rocking Horse Winner"

(3) Non-Fiction Prose:
1. J. Baldwin - "My Dungeon Shook"
2. R. Carson - "The Shape of Ancient Seas"
3. E. A. Levenston - "Comparing Vocabulary" or
   J. Thurber - "My Secret World of Idiom"
4. M. Mead - "One Vote for the Age of Anxiety"
5. J. Thurber - "Courtship Through the Ages"

(4) Poetry:
1. W. H. Auden - "Musee des Beaux Arts"
2. E. Dickinson - "Wild Nights"
3. R. Frost - "Mending Wall"
4. R. Frost - "Stopping my Woods"
5. T. Hardy - "In a Time of Breaking of Nations"
6. A. E. Houseman - "To an Athlete Dying Young"
7. P. Logan - "Picnic"
8. W. Shakespeare - "Shall I Compare Thee..."
9. D. Thomas - "The Force that Through the Green Fuse"
10. W. Whitman - "I Saw in Louisiana a Live Oak Growing"

(5) Non-Poetry Option:

Classes choosing not to take poetry will study the following prose instead:
1. B. Malamud - "A Summer's Reading"
   "new Syllabus) or
   O'Henry - "The Cop and the Anthem"
   (old Syllabus)  
2. E. Vargas - "The Jet Age Malady"

As was mentioned previously, the approach to English teaching was very conservative during approximately the first 20 years (from 1948) of the State's existence. This approach was reflected in the Matriculation Exams as well. The two major parts of these exams consisted of questions on literature and the writing of a composition. The students were asked to write an original composition in idiomatic English. Considering the fact that English was a foreign language for these students, the request for a composition
In idiomatic English was frightening. The reaction to this requirement was the memorization of a great many idioms. Idioms, by the way, that were hardly, if ever, used by the students after the completion of the Bagrut Exams. Moreover, according to one reliable source, only 5 percent of the students could successfully handle the literary material on their own. The rest of the students desperately needed tutorial help to enable them to take the Exam. As a result, one could find practically a "factory for private lessons" developing in Israel. It should be mentioned at this point that this boom for private tutoring still exists, partly because the parents still remember their own experiences from which they wish to spare their off-spring at any price.

Thus, while in the first 20 years there were some slight and insignificant changes in the structure and content of the English Bagrut Exams, the principal approach did not change. Most questions were changed every year but some of them remained constant in one way or another. At a typical private lesson the student did not learn English, but instead he learned how to describe Julius Caesar—he memorized this and other similar complete compositions.

There were many school teachers who followed the same method in their classrooms. Their aim was to have the maximum possible number of students in their class pass the Exam. So, they prepared a composition or compositions which their students memorized with the hope it would be relevant to
questions asked on the Exam, and that they would pass, even if it was with the lowest possible passing grade. This situation then created a "factory for passing grades."

This approach led to a situation where a teacher who had the largest number of passing students was considered a "good" teacher. It did not matter if he was or was not proficient in English, if his English did or did not sound English at all, so long as his students passed the Exam.

At this point it was time for radical change. In 1967-1968 the Ministry of Education decided on a new approach to the Bagrut Exams. The change had to be gradual because neither the curriculum nor the textbooks could be changed overnight. As mentioned previously, the new Syllabus for the Upper Division became effective only in 1973. In the meantime there were some minor changes. For example, the request of using the correct tenses in a composition was replaced with the request to use suitable tenses. Likewise, the students were asked to write in clear English rather than idiomatic English, etc. In Academic year 1969/60, for example, the amount of required reading for the Matriculation Examination was curtailed, as compared to the 1957-58 requirements. This was a quantitative but not qualitative change.

Obviously, the exams are geared to the curriculum and not vice-versa and so the preparation of a new Syllabus became a must. Basically, the feeling among some of the committee members (involved in preparation in the new Syllabus
with the English Matriculation Exam requirements in mind) was to test proficiency rather than achievement. These people were for the complete deletion of the literature questions. But there were others who argued that there is feedback from the Bagrut Exams which reflects on the methodology of teaching. Since it is important, they claimed, for the students to read 'good' literature, the only way to persuade them to do so is by inserting some literature questions in the Exam. In examining the 1974 English Matriculation Exam (or even the outline for the 1975 exam), one can find a compromise solution between these two viewpoints; these exams are a mixture of proficiency and achievement.

Even according to the most conservative figures, at least 20 percent of the Bagrut examinees failed the English Matriculation Exams in the past. To be sure, the emphasis on classical literature in grades 11 and 12 cannot be considered the only cause for failure. In addition to the fact that the Hebrew-speaking student is confronted with a non-cognate language when learning English, there are other difficulties he has to overcome. The Hebrew-speaking child must master the Latin Alphabet in script and print which is wholly unlike the Hebrew set of letters. There is also a fundamental distinction with respect to morphology and structure between the Hebrew and English languages. These differences, coupled with problems of large classes and a shortage of well-trained primary school teachers for foreign language instruction, and the already discussed unrealistic
demands imposed on all schools, resulted in unsatisfactory attainments in English in general and on the Matriculation Exams in particular.

Clearly, if the necessary command of the language is not attained in the lower grades, classical literature cannot successfully be taught in the last two years of high school.

Since the Bagrut requirements reflect the aims set in the Syllabi, a comparison between and older and a newer Syllabus might be useful.

The following is an excerpt from the Syllabus for the Teaching of English Language and Literature (Grades 9-12) (Ministry of Education and Culture 1957).

**Aims**

(a) To impart to the pupil a command of the English language sufficient to enable him to acquaint himself with the culture, way of life, and literature of the English-speaking peoples and to open to our youth a window to world civilization not yet accessible to the Hebrew speaker, and thus to widen his horizon and to enrich his spiritual resources.

(b) To contribute to international understanding.

**Attainments Aimed at in Literature**

A thorough knowledge of representative works in English and American literature of different periods (fiction, poetry, drama and non-fiction prose), to lead up to an understanding
of the text, a grasp of the special characteristics of the way of life depicted, aesthetic pleasure and the ability to respond to the work, to impart its contents and to convey the impression it has made.

The history of literature is to be dealt with only insofar as it is necessary for an understanding of the background.

It should be pointed out that this Syllabus was set forth before the 1969 Reform Act in Education which increased the number of years of compulsory and free education and thus included Grade IX. Before that Act, free and compulsory education ended with the completion of Grade VIII. This is why Grades 9-12 form one unit as compared to the new division in which Grades 7, 8, and 9 form the Intermediate Division and Grades 10-12 the Upper Division.

In comparison to the 1957 Syllabus, the 1973 Syllabus (Ministry of Education and Culture, Curriculum Centre, English Syllabus, Committee, Jerusalem, January 1973) had the following aims: "The main aim of English studies in the Upper Division, as in the Primary School and the Intermediate Division, is to provide the pupil with a means of communication with the non-Hebrew-speaking world (from the Introduction to the Suggested Syllabus for the Intermediate Division)."

The 1973 Syllabus continues:

The aim of the Reading Syllabus is to enable pupils to understand materials written in modern English.
and to grasp in detail and master the contents of assigned materials both factual and imaginative, which are in modern Standard English, and are non-specialized in nature. In addition to teaching the specific Reading programme of the English Syllabus, teachers should wherever possible and convenient relate English studies to other subjects by the study of the original English texts recommended for those subjects; for example, selections from an English literary text studied in Hebrew translation in the general literature course, the American Declaration of Independence as studied in a history course, a specialized paper studied in a science or technology course, or a paper on Jewish life abroad as part of courses in Jewish Studies.

Obviously, the 1957 Syllabus is primarily culture oriented; the emphasis is placed on "world civilization" and "culture." Translated to practical terms, 'culture' and 'world civilization' could best be provided to the students through the teaching of classical English literature, Twentieth Century English Literature and Twentieth Century American Literature. At least, this was the predominant view among the authors of the 1957 English Syllabus.

The list of the required reading materials (for 1957-58) for Grades 11 and 12 clearly reflects this viewpoint:

**Required Reading Material for 1957-58—Grades XI and XII**

**Shakespeare**

Julius Caesar or Macbeth or Hamlet

**20th Century English Literature**

1. H. G. Wells - The Door in the Wall
2. J. Galsworthy - Indian Summer of a Forsythe
3. K. Mansfield - Miss Brill
4. W. S. Churchill - Dunkirk
20th Century American Literature

1. P. Buck - The Enemy
2. S. V. Benet - The Devil and Daniel Webster
3. J. Steinbeck - The Leader of the People
4. E. O'Neill - Ile

Poetry

1. Shakespeare: 4 Sonnets
   4 Songs
   (from "Selections from Shakespeare")

2. Wordsworth: Written in Early Spring;
   I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud;
   Lines Composed above Tintern Abbey

3. Byron: Oh, Weep for Those;
   On the Day of the Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus;
   To the Ocean
   On This Day I Complete My Thirty-Sixth Year

4. Shelley: Ode to the West Wind; To Night; Lines;
   A Lament.

   or

   Keats: A Thing of Beauty; On the Grass - Hopper and the Cricket; Bright Star;
   To Autumn.

5. Tennyson: Ulysses; Tears, Idle Tears;
   Flowers in the Cranied Wall;
   Crossing the Bar.

   or

   Browning: Song; My Last Duchess; Prospice;
   Epilogue to Asolando.
6. Whitman: I Hear America Singing;
Vigil Strange I Kept in the Field One Night;
O Captain! My Captain!
Darest Thou Now, O. Soul.

7. Milton: On His Blindness;
Paradise Lost;
Samson Agonistes.


"Choice Pages"

E. A. Poe: The Pit and the Pendulum
R. L. Stevenson: Lodging for the Night
E. Burke: From the Speech on Conciliation with America
A. Lincoln: The First Inaugural Address; The Gettysburg Address
S. Johnson: Letter to Lord Chesterfield
J. Boswell: The First Meeting;
On Toleration;
The Macpherson Affair
F. Bacon: Of Studies
Of Friendship
J. Addison The Spectator's Account of Himself;
Sir Roger at the Play
E. Gibbon: The Fall of Rome
T. B. Macaulay: History
T. De Quincey: Literature of Knowledge and Literature of Power
A brief review of this required reading list will prove it to be unrealistic. Even if the maximum possible number of 180 hours per year (or 360 hours in two years) were devoted for the study of literature only, this time would not allow for more than a superficial survey of the works listed. In reality, however, in addition to literature, the language requirements were almost just as extensive. The literary texts were not only numerous but also quite difficult. From the point of view of attainability this unrealistically high demand carried with it a built-in ingredient for frustration and possible failure.

As can be seen from the "Required Reading for English Literature Matriculation Examination - 1959/60," the amount of required reading for the Bagrut Examination has been curtailed:

"Required Reading for English Literature Matriculation Examination - 1959/60"

**Shakespeare**

"Julius Caesar" or "Macbeth" or "Hamlet"

**20th Century English Literature**

H. G. Wells: The Door in the Wall

Katherine Mansfield: Miss Brill

Churchill's Speech on Dunkirk

**20th Century American Literature**

Pearl Buck: The Enemy

S. V. Benet: The Devil and Daniel Webster
John Steinbeck: The Leader of the People
Eugene O'Neill: Ile

Poetry

Shakespeare: 4 Sonnets (specified)
Wordsworth: Written in Early Spring; I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud;
Lines Written a Few Miles Above Tintern Abbey.
Byron: O Weep for Those; On the Destruction of the Temple by Titus; To the Ocean; On this Day I Complete My Thirty-Sixth Year.
Shelley: Ode to the West Wind; To Night;
Lines; A Lament.
or
Keats: A Thing of Beauty; On the Grasshopper and the Cricket; Bright Star; To Autumn.

"Choice Pages in English and American Fiction and Non-Fiction Prose up to the 20th Century"

R. L. Stevenson: A Lodging for the Night
Abraham Lincoln: The First Inaugural Address
The Gettysburg Address
S. Johnson: Letter to Lord Chesterfield
T. B. Macaulay: History
E. Burke: From the Speech on Conciliation with America
F. Bacon: Of Friendship; of Studies
James Boswell: The First Meeting; On Toleration; The Macpherson Affair.

In this list the 'Shakespeare requirement' remained unchanged. In 20th Century English Literature, Galsworthy's 'Indian Summer of Forsythe' is deleted and the 20th Century American Literature remained unchanged. In the section on poetry the following items were eliminated: 4 songs of Shakespeare, the works of Tennyson, Browning, Whitman, Milton and Poe. In the "Choice Pages," Poe's 'The Pit and the Pendulum,' Addison's 'The Spectator's Account of Himself'; 'Sir Roger at the Play,' Gibbon's: "The Fall of Rome," Macaulay's 'History' and De Quincey's "Literature of Knowledge and Literature of Power" were deleted.

By comparing the 1957/58 required reading material with the one of 1959/60 one can begin to see a gradual change. Generally speaking, such changes are not specific to the State of Israel. It seems to me that in all countries of the world where education is important, where methods of education are being discussed, where teachers are being trained, there is a continuing revision in the aims and objectives of the foreign language program. Thus it is not a revolutionary change. The modifications were not radical; a new type of grammar exercises or a replacement of one set of stories with another. All the time, however, it was heading in the direction of less emphasis on literature or
literary styles and more emphasis on spoken, modern language. Yet, until the beginning of the 70's the changes were mostly quantitative rather than qualitative.

The newest changes, instead of being revolutionary, merely confirm this new trend that has been going on for some time. In the Chief English Inspector's (Mr. Raphael Gefen) words: "We live in a different world from that of the early 'fifties.' Children go abroad and want to talk. They meet people here and need the tools of international speech. They have to master English for science or technology. Literature and culture are not enough." The practical implication of this statement is that the English program should provide the student, by the end of his English studies in High School, with enough English to communicate both orally and in writing, with the non-Hebrew-speaking world. Whereas the old approach was based mainly on literary appreciation and cultural empathy, the new approach stresses English as a means of communication.

This shift in priorities led eventually to the writing of the new-Syllabus, which in turn brought about the newest change in the English requirements in the 1974 Matriculation Examination.

By the end of the 1960's educators began responding also to complaints that students reaching the Universities are unable to read an English newspaper and to communicate effectively. Consequently, the reading lists changed
again with a view to strengthening English Comprehension. The chief 'victim' of this view was Shakespeare. Julius Caesar and Macbeth became mere alternatives to Shaw's "Saint Joan," "Pygmalion" and "The Devil's Disciple."

Dr. Donald Low, who is a lecturer in English Literature at the University of St. Andrews, spent six weeks in Israel in the summer of 1968 observing the program of English Studies in both schools and universities. In his comprehensive report, concerning the study of Shakespeare, he makes the following comments.

The "Bagrut" Examination papers in English have been a subject of criticism in recent years. One American-born research student in English in Tel-Aviv confessed, not altogether jocularly, that some sections of the "Bagrut" were beyond her. She also stated that the strain which accompanied her teenage son's study for this Matriculation Examination was felt by every member of the family. The strain is spoken of on all sides. Israeli school-boys, it has been claimed, must spend so much effort mastering the language of a Shakespeare play that they cannot have leisure to enjoy it. Also, the question has been asked, why should school essays expressing a personal response to literature be written in English and not in Hebrew?

Dr. Low goes on to say:

There can be little point in introducing pupils to plays, poems, and novels which were written primarily for enjoyment if in doing so one imposes demands on memory which leave no freedom for enjoyment. Works of art are of a different order from textbooks imparting factual information, as is implied by De Quincey's phrases "Literature of Knowledge, and Literature of Power," the distinction between the two should never be overlooked but how can teachers do other than ignore this distinction when a Shakespeare play has to be known in such detail that critical questions on it are to be answered in English? The right solution here might be not only to drop the compulsory Shakespeare play
requirement, but to insist that all candidates should have a chance to express their critical opinions in Hebrew. Otherwise, there is a danger of artificial learning. I met one Israeli-educated critic who spoke of leaving school familiar with certain forms of Elizabethan English, and able to reproduce at will long speeches from Julius Caesar, but far from confident about modern English usage.

The practical results of the new shift in priorities can be found in the 1974 English Matriculation Exams.

In the "Literature" part of this exam there is a wide selection of questions (20) from which the student is required to answer any two questions for a total of 20 points. A very wide choice is allowed, since teachers' preferences, classroom demands, students' abilities and other conditions vary greatly. Some of the 20 questions are further subdivided allowing an even wider choice for the students. For example, Shakespeare is represented by only two questions; as compared to three in the previous years, from Julius Caesar and from Macbeth. However, each of these questions offer three additional choices. Thus, Question 15 on Julius Caesar offers three options, either (a) or (b) or (c). Similarly, three options are offered with Question 16 on Macbeth. Since the questions on poetry are part of the 20 literature questions, they can also be considered as optional.

The fact that the 'Literature' part of the Exams counts for only 20 percent of the total grade serves as a source of relief for those who reject the importance of literature
study and who consider it irrelevant. Theoretically, a student can ignore completely the 'Literature' part of the Exam and still achieve a good passing grade (80 percent), provided he succeeds in attaining a perfect score on the rest of the Exam.

IV. The Newest Matriculation Examination (1975)

The Pedagogical Secretariat of the Ministry of Education and Culture approved, in March of 1973, the following suggestions of the English Syllabus Committee, to become effective in the final examinations in July 1975.

The Committee suggested that there be two levels of English studies and examination requirements: "Ordinary Level" and "Advanced Level."

A. Ordinary Level

The Ordinary Level students will be examined as follows:

(a) Oral examination:

(b) Reading Comprehension passages (Unseens );

(c) Language questions;

(d) Two questions on the set texts—one drama, two short stories, two non-fiction prose pieces.

B. Advanced Level

The Advanced Level students will have the following examination requirement:

1. Oral examination (with more stress on speech production than the parallel oral examination at the Ordinary Level);
2. Composition

3. Reading Comprehension Passages ("Unseens");

4. Language questions;

5. Questions on the Advanced Level set texts, one drama, five short stories, five non-fiction prose pieces, ten poems (or an extra short story and an extra non-fiction prose piece instead of the poems).

The language requirement (reading comprehension passages--"Unseens"--and language exercises) will be the same at both Levels, and examinees will take the very same question paper. This will ensure that the comprehension aspect of English studies will be identical at both levels, so that employers and institutions of higher learning can be satisfied that from the point of view of comprehension and recognition there is no difference between the two Levels.

It should be noted that according to this proposal, the Ordinary Level student studies English four hours weekly in Grades 11 and 12, whereas the Advanced Level student studies English six hours per week, in these grades.

All secondary schools were informed at the end of the 1972-73 school-year that the new Syllabus would become effective in September 1973 for Grade 11 (and for Grade 10 as far as the language program is concerned). Grade 12 of that year had to continue with the old Syllabus. However, since no anthology of the short stories in the new Syllabus had been published at that time, the examinees for the June
1975 Matriculation Examinations (i.e., that year's Grade 11) were allowed the option of taking the old short stories instead of the new short stories as prescribed texts.

1. The Oral Examination (for both the Ordinary and the Advanced Levels)

The oral examination was optional until 1970, when it was made compulsory. Since 1970 the oral skills were tested only by the interview system in the following manner: a teacher of one school went to another school where he interviewed a student on a one to one basis and graded him. The object of the oral examination according to the Upper Division Syllabus, pp. 21-22, was and is "to examine the candidate's ability to understand spoken English and to express himself on subjects he is familiar with, especially his immediate environment, his own interests and the interests of his age-group. Only language skills are examined, not political, religious, etc., opinions. At his discretion the examiner may give the candidate an opportunity to talk about his reading--extensive and intensive--but should not require him to do so, since the oral examination does not test the candidate's ability to master the assigned materials in English. The candidate's responses are evaluated in accordance with the following criteria and order of priority:

(a) Comprehension (of the examiner's English),
(b) fluence of expression,
(c) accuracy of language—in the following order of priority: vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation.

1. a. Problems arising from the currently administered oral examinations and their possible remedies.

Undoubtedly, the oral examination has been a boon to teachers who believe that "language is communicating" and that English is not just another "subject" taught at school. However, in light of the experience of the last few years, a number of problems have arisen.

The fact that students and teachers are expressing a preference for one teacher-examiner over another brings into question the objectivity of the examination. Clearly, no examiner is able to maintain the same rating standard or even the same objectivity throughout his quota of interviews at one school. Consequently, grading becomes more dubious. The problem might become lessened if and when more than one examiner appears in the same school. It seems almost impossible to achieve absolute objectivity under the present conditions and circumstances.

In the 1975 English Matriculation Examinations the oral examination will be made more objective by the addition of a standardized aural comprehension test. According to the plan outlined to me by the Chief English Inspector (Ministry of Education, Jerusalem),20 the main objective of the oral examination will be comprehension. Accordingly, the test will be administered on a tape, or even more preferably, over the
radio. Every student will receive a page with multiple choice responses to any quote or question recorded or broadcast. This method would have a nationally standardized character and would add a high degree of objectivity to the exam.

This method has been tried out thus far (as of September 1974) in four schools in Jerusalem, and the students' responses were very enthusiastic. The students in these schools were given a page which consisted of multiple choice responses to a question they would hear on the tape after having heard the lecture, also on a tape. To the students, this method seemed to be relevant, more practical, more efficient, more objectives, and more standardized.

The content of this new oral exam also differs greatly from the previous one, inasmuch as the reading passage given on the tape (or radio) is a news story. A current human-interest news story is more interesting as opposed to the old test, which had something of a philosophical, abstract literary character.

2. **Composition** (for the Advanced Level only)

In this section the students are required to write a relatively short (about 300 words) essay. A choice of subjects are given, including letters, dialogues and descriptions. Five subjects are offered from which one is to be chosen.

3. "Unseen" Reading Comprehension Passages
   (c) for the Advanced Level,
   (b) for the Ordinary Level
As mentioned above, this section will be the same for both the Advanced and Ordinary Levels.

An approximately one page long passage (previously unseen by the students) is given followed by give questions. The answers to these questions are to test the student's level and degree of comprehension of the passage. The students are urged to use their own words in these answers as far as possible.  

4. Language Questions (d) for the Advanced Level  
   (c) for the Ordinary Level

This section too, will be the same for both the Advanced and Ordinary Levels.

Unlike the previous two sections which remained practically unchanged, this section will include a more expanded Cloze test and interrogative Transformation test.

The usual language questions include the change of verb tenses, completion of sentences with the suitable form of the word given in brackets, etc. Teachers have often expressed their dissatisfaction with the mechanical nature of the language exercises in the Matriculation examination. The complaint was that students changed verb tenses, pronouns, etc., mechanically without even attempting to understand the passage.

4. a. The Rationale of the Cloze Technique

As part of the Ministry of Education's policy of stressing communication and making language learning meaningful, an experiment was conducted in December 1973 in the use of Cloze tests as a possible
replacement for some of the language exercises in the Matriculation examination. The purpose was to make this part of the examination less mechanical and more meaningful; a more ambitious aim was to stimulate a more creative language functioning on the part of the learner, while still within a controlled framework. The fact that the pupils enjoyed doing the test is as powerful a recommendation as any scientific validity it may possess, and should certainly bias us teachers in its favor.23

A Cloze test is in form a mixed completion test wherein the missing items may be anything from a letter, morpheme or word, to a phrase, sentence, or even a paragraph (theoretically at least). The examinee has to infer the missing item from the context, and as he does not know in advance which word-class the missing item belongs to, he has to utilize all his linguistic resources, grammatical and lexical, with due reference to all preceding and following items.24

Since the Cloze test requires full comprehension and the employment of all the linguistic skills, it is, in a sense, a controlled composition which demands a high degree of creativity in language use on the part of the learner. However, it would be premature, at this initial stage, to attempt to evaluate fully the usefulness of this method. The possibility that this test may check too many things together may have some drawbacks. It is also, quite obviously, more difficult than the current completion exercises as not only grammar is involved but also a fine literary sense making understanding of the whole passage necessary. Consequently, it may not ensure a comprehensive testing of grammatical structures needed for a student's proficient grasp of written English. Considering this point, one may conclude that it is not necessarily a more reliable and valid
test than the present Bagrut exam. Yet, it seems to be more creative and less artificial. It seems to have good potential if teachers will give their students plenty of practice in the Cloze technique. One final point in favor of the Cloze test is the fact that the ordinary teacher can select his text and delete his items without being a trained testologist and without having to scrutinize his test with sophisticated measures of evaluation. A sound pedagogical instinct and a realization of what is essential in foreign language learning will serve to carry him through. 25

4.b. The Interrogative Transformation Test

Probably the most significant innovation in recent years has been the interrogative sentence exercise, whereby the student is expected to form a question to which the underlined words in the given sentence are the answer. Interestingly, in the recent past this has been the exercise in the exam which students failed more than any other exercise. This fact seems to support the assumption that students in school are used to answering questions but not asking them. Communication being a two-way process, it is imperative for the students to acquire the ability to ask questions.

The inability to formulate interrogative sentences syntactically is particularly common among Hebrew speakers. The Hebrew language allows the change of declarative or statement sentences into interrogative sentences by a change
in intonation only, without changing the word-order or auxiliary of the sentence. Consequently, the English speaking tourist may hear sentences such as "You are visiting here?"—uttered by Hebrew speakers, without being certain whether he is being asked a question or given some kind of information.

Although this type of exercise has been included in every examination paper since 1972 it is still the language exercise which occasions the highest number of mistakes.

The fact (known to the English teachers) that this kind of exercise will be expanded on the 1975 exams hopefully will further motivate teachers to encourage their students to ask questions.

5. Questions on the set texts (e) for the Advanced Level, (d) for the Ordinary Level

This segment of the Bagrut exam tests the ability to master assigned materials. It consists of two short essays from a choice of subjects dealing with the prescribed Reading Program; one question on the Drama section of the Syllabus and one question on another section. (In addition to the Drama section the Reading Program includes the following sections: The Short Story, Non-Fiction Prose, Poetry, and a Non-Poetry Option.)

For the first time in Israeli English Matriculation Examination history, Williams Shakespeare's works will be conspicuously missing from the Drama section in the 1975 exam. The 1974 exam still included choice questions from
Julius Caesar and Macbeth in the Drama section--in the 1975 exam this section will offer the following choices: G. B. Shaw's "Arms and the Man," Tennessee Williams' "The Glass Menagerie" and Arthur Miller's "All My Sons."

The replacement of Shakespeare's work with those of the modern dramatists will hopefully reduce the number of failing grades received by the examinees, which reached 20 percent in 1974 (unofficial figure). Again, this decision can be attributed and traced to the shift in priorities in English teaching in Israel. Whereas the main objective in the teaching of the English language was to provide the Israeli student with the knowledge of classical English literature and the culture of the Anglo-Saxon people, the present prevalent feeling is to provide the Israeli student with the necessary means of communication with the outside, non-Hebrew speaking world.

The two essential criteria for selecting texts in the new Syllabus are:

(1) texts are written in good modern Standard English (both U.S. and British) and so provide a context for language learning and be of intellectual, literary or cultural value;

(2) texts are drawn not only from "literary" sources (drama, poetry, short stories) but also from "non-fiction prose"--serious journalism, technical and sociological material as well as the literary essay.
Shakespeare's plays have been replaced by the above mentioned modern dramatists "since it has long been recognized by all concerned that the intensive study of a Shakespeare play in the original English was at the expense of proficiency in the language and that for the vast majority of learners the aesthetic and literary value of reading Shakespeare in the original was an impossible target, given the level of English they could reasonably be expected to attain."27

According to the first criterion, the new reading material must be written in good modern, standard English. This is hard to define but it serves as a yardstick, and by this yardstick Shakespearian plays are out. There is, however, another not less important criterion which ought not to be overlooked; that the material has to be educationally suitable. This implies no sex, no obscene language and no exaggerated violence. This would rule out Shakespeare even if his language had been modern. At the same time it rules out almost all modern writers. This criterion, therefore, makes choices quite difficult, especially since the choices have to be acceptable to everybody.

Yet, Shakespeare is not completely and totally discarded. "There is no reason why Shakespeare should not be done as an extra assignment by a very good, advanced class. But, apart from a couple of comparatively straightforward poems, he goes out of the Syllabus," according to Mr. Gefen.28
V. The Grading of the English Matriculation Exams

In the Summer of 1973, a new and revolutionary method was tried by the Ministry of Education for the marking of English Bagrut Examination Papers. Instead of the papers being sent out to the examiners for grading, the examiners were brought to Jerusalem where they worked for a whole week from early morning until evening, until the job was done. This experiment proved to be an instant success.

A. Procedure

The exams are marked in a national examining center (in Jerusalem). Approximately 150 examiners, who are inspectors and teachers in the field, mark the papers. In fact, the examiners meet one week before the exams are given in order to go over them and to exchange opinions about them. The marking of the papers takes approximately two weeks. Each paper is seen by two people. An official inspector (usually the Chief Inspector) is present during this period so that any points of qualification and clarification can be discussed. There is full cooperation among the examiners during this period. If any flaws occur in the test—which might happen—they are immediately corrected at the very beginning of the examining session. For instance, if a question is found to be ambiguous, a decision is made to accept this or that answer or to cancel it altogether and give five more points. This kind of flexibility is afforded by having a national examining center.
1. **Other Advantages of the National Examining Center**

In addition to the above mentioned flexibility, other advantages can be noted in this new system.

2. **Effectiveness**

Thanks to the concentrated efforts of the examiners, the ideal working conditions (which rule out distraction), and the possibility of consulting with inspectors and other teachers on questionable points, there is an atmosphere for fair analysis of the students' work.

A most positive aspect, appreciated by students in particular, is the fact that immediate results are obtained. The fact that grades are out much earlier alleviates needless tension and allows students who need early results to receive them without unnecessary hardship. In view of the anxiety and frustration accompanying the lengthy intervals between the day of the test and receipt of the results in previous years, the speed and efficiency prevailing at the examination center is probably by far the most significant contribution of this new method.

One can see the social aspect as an additional advantage. The occasion to meet colleagues from all over the country certainly promotes a friendly relationship and cooperation which is invaluable to any national group.

3. **Objectivity**

This new method of marking the English Bagrut papers seems to allow a higher degree of objectivity. Yet, it
should be borne in mind that the exams are marked by human beings, a fact which may exclude absolute objectivity. On the other hand, in order to ensure the highest level of relative objectivity, all papers reaching the examiner's desk are nameless.

It seems to me that it is a system of "objective subjectivity"; in other words, all the examiners are practicing teachers who are continuously consulting with each other.

VI. The Preparation of the Exam

The national Bagrut examinations are prepared by the Examining Board. This board consists usually of 2 or 3 inspectors of English (supervisors, inspectors) and 1 (or more) university teacher. A different Examining Board is set up for each set of exams. This group (about 3 or 4 people in each case) is a semi-secret body. In other words, the names of the people serving on this Board is never made public so that no pressure can be applied to them. Thus, only those who are members of the particular board know who they are. It is the function of the Chief Inspector of English to nominate the members of the Examining Board. Obviously, he also knows who the members of the group are. This board decides what the content of the exam will be, in terms of subject, exercise, etc.

The literature part, the list of prescribed books and the like, which was laid down in the Syllabus as constants are not to be changed or altered in any way by the Examining
Board. If one of the "constants" on the exam is changed by the Ministry of Education and Culture every teacher is informed six months in advance. For instance, if and when the 'listening comprehension test' is put into operation there will be circulars sent to all the schools (there might even be a trial run on the national radio), so that nobody is taken by surprise.

There is also constant feedback of teachers following the exams which expresses their responses to the various exams. This feedback is definitely taken into serious consideration at the time of the next set of examinations.

VIII. The Final Mark

The final mark a student receives is an average of the examination mark and the school grade. (Every student is graded in the twelfth grade by his English teacher.) Each of the marks counts for 50 percent of the final grade. The grades are given in numbers, on a scale 4-10. Ten is considered excellent, and six is 'passing,' five is a failing grade, but a student is allowed to receive one grade of five on the Matriculation Exam. (Theoretically he can even pass with one grade of four, if he receives a nine on all the other subjects. This, however, is very rare.)
Notes to Chapter Three

1 See Chapter II, page 47.

2 In case of failure, make-up exams can be taken at two times during the year; the Bagrut Exams take place in July, the first make-up exam can be taken the following February and the second in the following July. The number of make-up exams allowed is unlimited.

3 For example, in the aftermath of the October 1973 war many ex-soldiers missed school. Now they get a second chance through this system of study.

4 Syllabus for the Teaching of English Language and Literature (Grades IX to XII) of the Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, 1957; translated from the Hebrew.

5 The Teaching of English in Israel, a Survey conducted by G. Cohen and R. Aronson under the direction of Dr. G. Ortar, the Hebrew University, Jerusalem, John Dewey School of Education, Jerusalem, 1964, p. 19.

6 Ibid., p. 12.

7 Issued by the Ministry of Education and Culture for Summer 1974 (5734) (for the "Academic High School").

8 For those wishing to take the so-called "Advanced Level" exams, as opposed to the most common "Ordinary Level," there is a third, additional part to the exam. The purpose of the "Advanced Level" exam will be discussed later in the chapter.


10 When this work was being written (December 1974) the Exam itself was not prepared as yet.

11 Prepared by the Ministry of Education, Inspectorate for English Instruction (for the "Academic High School").

12 Only the use of a dictionary recommended by the Inspectorate is permitted.

13 The source is a Tel-Aviv University professor who asked to remain anonymous (on a taped interview, Jerusalem, September 4, 1974).
The teaching program might automatically be changed by changing the examination requirement and this is considered by many as the major advantage of a national examination.

Accordingly, the Teacher Training Department of the School of Education at the Hebrew University (Jerusalem) designed a two-hour proficiency test for English teaching candidates, which includes an Oral and a Written section. The Oral section consists of the following parts: Part A—"Reading Aloud," Part B—"Oral Composition and Part C—"Dictation." The Written section consists of: Part A—"Language" and Part B—"Written Composition." The test does not include a Literature section. See the complete Proficiency Test in Appendix E.

See the complete Exam for on page


This plan was outlined on a taped interview in Jerusalem, Israel in August 28, 1974.

For sample subjects see the 1974 Matriculation Examination.

For a sample passage see the 1974 Matriculation Examination.


Ibid.

A sample passage of the Cloze test can be found in Appendix F.

More detailed description of the Reading Program can be found in Appendix C.

"A New Orientation for English Teaching in Israel." Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, Israel (no date indicated).
CONCLUSION

Although this is a descriptive study, some concluding remarks seem to be in order. In examining the complexities of foreign language education, one finds a distinction between the teaching of a foreign language and the teaching of a second language. Ideally, the latter should result in bilingualism. In Israel, English is taught as a foreign language and not as a second language, i.e., it is taught as only one of many subjects, and not as a language of instruction. The problem is that for Israelis, English is needed as a second language.

One can also find a difference in the teaching of a foreign language. It can be taught as a part of another culture, or purely as a means of communication. The decision, it seems to me, depends on the conditions of the country in which the particular language is taught, and on the language itself. For example, in countries such as Great Britain and the United States, where people have no real need for the knowledge of another language as a means of communication (because their language is rather universal), teachers may opt for emphasizing the cultural aspects of the foreign languages they choose to teach. In Israel the
situation is quite different. As mentioned in the Introduction, Modern Hebrew, as a language of communication has very little practical value outside of Israel. For the average Israeli knowledge of the English language is a necessity and not a luxury—without it he cannot travel abroad, he cannot communicate with new immigrants or with tourists (tourism is very important in Israel), he cannot study at the university or any other institution of higher learning, he cannot become a bus or cab driver, etc. In other words, English in Israel is a key to advancement in life, not only for those who seek higher education but for the average citizen as well. One can conclude, therefore, that: (1) unique conditions in a country may determine the significance attached to the teaching of a foreign language, and (2) no generalizations can be made, in terms of the teaching of a certain foreign language from one country to another, and no conclusions are entirely applicable from the experiences in one country to another. Yet, there does seem to be another substantial problem for those involved in the teaching of English in Israel, that is, the difficulty of teaching a non-cognate language to native Israelis.

The shift in emphasis in English instruction in Israel from the classical/culture orientation to "English as a means of communication," will supposedly reduce the rate of failure in the Matriculation Exams. The rationale for this
assumption, briefly is as follows: The new approach with its stress on proficiency rather than achievement, makes English learning easier, more practical, more current, more relevant, and therefore, more interesting, which in turn leads to higher motivation and ultimately to better results.

While motivation is a very constructive factor in every endeavor, it is not the only factor in language learning. Therefore, proper motivation, whether instrumental or integrative, does not guarantee positive results. Whether the new approach will prove to be successful remains to be seen. At this point, one can only speculate because there is absolutely no data or other evidence that would allow the measurement of the rate of success of this approach. It is during this summer (1975) that the first new Matriculation Exam, based on the new syllabus for the Upper Division will be administered. Indications are (from the enthusiastic acceptance of the Cloze technique (see Chapter III, p. 151), new oral exams, different types of essay questions etc.) that the new approach is well received by the majority of the student body. Whether or not these indications will be followed by increased success on the Exams, no one can say with certainty.

There may be many reasons for the deficiencies of the Israeli English program, and a large number of solutions besides the one employed in Israel. I believe that a
substantial reduction of the problem could be achieved by beginning English instruction at an earlier age (grade 5) than is presently administered. It seems logical to me that English language instruction should begin as early as Kindergarten age (or even before), in an intensive way. The rationale for this theory is that:

1) At that age, the child could learn to **converse** in English in a natural way; through play and other everyday activities without formal and rigid instruction.

2) At that age there is practically no chance of interference from other subject matters. Consequently, the children can easily build up a working vocabulary of about 500-600 words in an informal way, which in future years would become an essential tool for successful advancement. I believe that proper preparation in Kindergarten could achieve more than two or three years of study in the upper grades, where none of the above mentioned advantages exist. It would be relatively easy to build on a foundation such as this.

Since, as mentioned before, English is treated as a foreign language, but has the importance of second language, one is tempted to recommend the "Ulpan" method for teaching English. However, since the intensity of this method is incompatible with a regular school setting, the early start of English instruction may successfully substitute for it. Incidentally, the method of beginning English learning at an
early age may be transferable to any foreign language, in any country where such a great deal of significance is attached to that particular language.

The Israeli school system, in contrast to the systems in the United States, Great Britain and other countries is highly centralized. This centralization creates uniformity and permits few differences in education. The arguments for and against centralization are well known: Those who generally advocate centralization argue that (1) a uniform program helps to prevent discrepancies in the educational levels of different communities, (2) it provides the students with equal education, and consequently, with an equal chance for social advancement, which, supposedly, helps eventually to eliminate socio-economic gaps. The anti-centralization (or pro-decentralization) forces, on the other hand, claim that a centralized system does not allow for (1) individual differences between children, (2) innovation on the parts of the teachers (and students) and (3) flexibility. Here too, the Israeli situation is unique: a certain degree of centralization is necessary in order to provide a common basis for a population that consists of immigrants from many different countries and minorities. On the other hand, precisely because of this divergence, different norms have to be set which take into account the different levels of abilities which accompany the different backgrounds.
Equality in education does not necessarily mean a common curriculum or set of tests, but rather the provision of equal opportunities, whatever it takes, to attain certain levels of education. The trend in Israel today is in this direction; to allow initiative, divergence and flexibility within the centralized system. In my opinion, in foreign language education (English, in this case) standardization is necessary. It seems obvious that a student's success in English 2 (second level) depends on how well he learned the material in English 1 to a greater extent than it does to his previous success in history, Hebrew literature, etc. Thus, exact sequencing and coordination of the material is essential. The objectives to be achieved, and the step-by-step means of attaining them, in other words, a prescribed centrally formulated syllabus for teaching English (or any other foreign language), seem to be justified. That, of course, does not exclude an allowance for the various language learning aptitudes. It should be remembered that the ability to learn a foreign language differs from person to person irrespective of his degree of intelligence. Yet I found no evidence during my research in Israel of aptitude tests given to students. These tests, if given, could predict the potential under-achievers, and help in planning a program to reduce later problems and possible failure. Since intelligence and grades in other subjects do not necessarily predict
foreign language learning abilities, these aptitude tests assume an even larger degree of significance.

The present educational system in Israel is such that the whole learning program is geared toward the Bagrut Matriculation Exams. The positive aspect of this is that it supposedly promises a uniform norm of achievement for the total student population, regardless of school, community, region, or other background conditions, and provides those entering colleges with a equally satisfactory level of English knowledge. The realities, however, indicate a number of negative aspects as well. (1) The last two years of English study (grades 11, 12—particularly grade 12) are totally Bagrut oriented; the main goal of the teachers and students alike is to ensure success on the exams. The examination syllabus with all of its exercises is closely followed and absolutely nothing new is added. In a sense, this might be considered a waste of time.

(2) The pressures to do well on the Bagrut Matriculation Exam rule out meaningful learning, and lead to mechanical study.

(3) A heavy financial burden is created for the majority of the candidates or examinees, who need private tutorial help, which is very expensive, to pass the Exams.

(4) Success on the exam does not predict success in higher education; the fact is that the universities are
setting up their own English entrance examinations because of their dissatisfaction with the incoming students' knowledge of English.

(5) It creates a situation where the exam, instead of testing what was learned in the schools, dictates to the schools what to teach.

Possible solutions may come from:

(1) The 'new approach,' which so far is an open question.

(2) Constant revision and improvement of the curriculum and testing procedure (which is currently being done).

(3) Extension of free and compulsory Post-Primary education up to and including the twelfth grade. This would balance the curriculum (and pressure) during the 8-year program, obviously eliminate the drop-out problem, eventually increase the knowledge of English in the country, and definitely aid in narrowing the socio-economic gap existing in the society. Briefly, the longer the period of education the more (and hopefully better) that can be taught and learned.

(4) Consideration may be given to the abolishment of the national Bagrut Matriculation Examination, which might be replaced by the exams prepared and administered by each individual school. In that case, grades would be given by teachers who have followed the progress of the students closely, and know what was taught. It seems that this type
of examination may reflect more realistically the student's level of achievement, and may even predict, at least, to some degree, his potential and success in higher learning.
APPENDIX A
SUMMARY OF THE GRAMMATICAL PATTERNS FOR CLASSES 5 and 6

Pattern 1: **Subject + Linking Verb + Complement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>big, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 2: **Subject + Linking Verb - contracted forms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'm</td>
<td>etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 3: **Subject + Linking Verb + "NOT" + Complement** (Pattern 1 in the neg.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
<th>NOT</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>big, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 4: **Pattern 3 - contracted forms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'm</td>
<td>not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 5: **Linking Verb + Subject + Complement** (Pattern 1 - Yes / No interrogative)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>big, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 6: **Interrogative Pronoun (Subject) + Linking Verb + Complement**

(Pattern 1 - Wh - interrogative)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrogative Pronoun</th>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>there</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 7: **Interrogative Pronoun (Subject-Complement) + Linking Verb + Subject**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrogative Pronoun</th>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
<th>Subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>he?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 8: **Interrogative Adverb + Linking Verb + Subject**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrogative Adverb</th>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
<th>Subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Where</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>he?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 9: **Noun plural /z/**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun plural</th>
<th>/z/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>boys, balls, wives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 10: **Noun plural /s/**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun plural</th>
<th>/s/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>maps, months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pattern 11: **Noun plural /lz/**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun plural</th>
<th>/lz/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>places, sandwiches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pattern 12: Noun plural - other forms
men, feet

Pattern 13: "Countable" and "Uncountable" nouns, including the use of the Article

Pattern 14: The plural form of the Linking Verb
We are (not) big, etc.
The plural form of Patterns 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8

Pattern 15: Demonstrative Pronoun + Linking Verb + Complement
This is big, etc.

Pattern 16: Attributive Modifiers
Adjectives, Adjunct Nouns, Possessive Pronouns, Demonstratives, Noun Genitive

Pattern 17: The Imperative
(Please) go!

Pattern 18: The Negative Imperative
(Please) don't go!

Pattern 19: The Present Continuous Tense - positive
Subject + Auxiliary "BE" + Base + -ING + Object, etc.
I am writing a letter.

Pattern 20: The Present Continuous Tense - negative
Subject + Auxiliary "BE" + "NOT" + Base + -ING + Object, etc.
I am not writing a letter.

Pattern 21: The Present Continuous Tense - Interrogative YES/NO
Auxiliary "BE" + Subject + base + -ING ± Object, etc.
Are you coming?

Pattern 22: The Present Continuous Tense - Wh - Interrogative pronoun
Who is writing a letter?
Who are you writing to?
Pattern 23: **The Present Continuous Tense - WH - Interrogative adverb**

As Pattern 8

When is he going?

Pattern 24: **The Grammatical Subject** "There is/are..."

Pattern 25: **Prepositional Patterns**

at, by, down, from, in, into, on, out/out of, past, to, under, up, with.

Pattern 26: **Conjunctions "AND" and "BUT"**

(Patterns 27-33 may be taught in Class 5 or in Class 6)

Pattern 27: **The Transitive Pattern: Subject + Verb + Object + Prepositional Phrase**

Pattern 28: **The Present Simple Tense - positive**

Including phonological rules for the third person singular suffix /s/z/lz

Pattern 29: **"Private Verbs"**

Verbs of state and sensation that do not normally occur in the Continuous Aspect.

E.g. be, hear, want.

Pattern 30: **The Present Simple Tense - negative**

Subject + carrier "DO" + "NOT" + Base ± Object, etc.

I do not (don't) have a book.

Pattern 31: **The Present Simple Tense - yes/no interrogative**

Carrier "DO" + Subject + Base ± Object, etc.

Do you know him?

Pattern 32: **The Present Simple Tense - WH - Interrogative pronoun**

Who wants to go?

Who do you know?

Pattern 33: **The Present Simple Tense - WH - Interrogative adverb**

Where do you live?
CLASS 6

Pattern 31: The Grammatical Subject "It is ..."

Pattern 35: The Past Tense, Simple Aspect (The Past Simple Tense) including phonological notes for the regular past tense suffix /t/d/id/; "irregular" verbs; suppletions.

Pattern 36: The Past Tense, Simple Aspect - negative

Pattern 37: The Past Tense, Simple Aspect - Interrogative

Pattern 38: Some adverbs and adverbial phrases taught as separate items

Pattern 39: "GOING TO" to indicate future time

Pattern 40: Inchoative Verbs verbs of process and perception: Subject + Inchoative Verb + Complement e.g. become, feel, smell.

Pattern 41: Modal "CAN"

Pattern 42: Modal "WILL"

Pattern 43: The Comparison of Adjectives Degrees of equality (as... as: not so/as... as), comparison (—er than, more... than) and superlativeness (—est (of), most... (of); including some irregular forms.

Pattern 44: Noun Genitive: 's, s' including the Genitive Phrase

Pattern 46: The Predicative Possessive Pronoun mine, yours, etc.
Pattern 46: Short Additions (Echo)
NP + Auxiliary + Too
I can/will/do too.

Pattern 17: The Indefinite Pronouns - "ONE/ONES"

Pattern 48: Ordinal numbers
first, second, etc.

Pattern 49: The First Person Imperative
Let us (let's) go!
Don't let's (Let's not) go!

Pattern 50: Let + NP + Base
Let him go.

Pattern 51: Negative of the Object
NP + V + "NO" + NP
He has no friends.

Pattern 52: The Indirect Object Patterns
Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object
I gave him the book.

Pattern 53: Catenatives
Subject + Verb + Infinitive
I want to go.

Pattern 54: Contracted form of the negative of "BE"
"He's not" instead of "he isn't" (pattern 4)

Pattern 55: Agent-Noun derived from Verb
teach - teacher

Pattern 56: More Prepositional Patterns
off, around, between, among, over, near, behind, in front of, along, far from, next to, through, across, before, after, of, like, for, about, without.
APPENDIX C
GRAMMAR PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

The material is graded but not sequenced in detail. The following list should therefore serve as a general guide only. Major patterns (e.g. verb tenses) should be sequenced as listed, but minor patterns (e.g. prepositional patterns) can be interspersed and fitted in situationally.

Patterns taught early in the course (e.g. BE patterns) should be continually revised and drilled at later stages.

Patterns 1 - 26 are obligatory for Class 5; patterns 27 - 33 may be left to Class 6 at the discretion of the teacher or course-writer (see the Introduction to this Syllabus, paragraph 2.1).

Contracted forms are used in oral work and pupils are taught to regard them as normal spoken English; the full forms are taught as the written language or for emphasis. Stress is laid all the time on sentence patterns rather than word paradigms. Apart from the interrogative, the word order patterns taught are non-inverted (i.e. Subject + Verb + Complement, Object or Verb-Adjunct).

PATTERN 1: SUBJECT + LINKING VERB (LV) + COMPLEMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples:</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>LV</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>big, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>David</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>She</td>
<td></td>
<td>a/the boy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It</td>
<td></td>
<td>water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This/That</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>David</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A/The boy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Water</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Patterns with the Linking Verb ("BE") are the fundamental statement of predication and as such are taught first.

1.1 The Subject

The Subject is taught in the singular only (the plural is taught in Pattern 14).

It may be

(i) the Personal Pronouns: "I, You, He, She, It";

(ii) the Demonstrative Pronouns in the singular: "This, That" (the plural Demonstratives are taught in Pattern 15);

(iii) Proper Nouns: e.g. "David";

(iv) Common Nouns - Countables: "the boy, a boy" etc.;

- Uncountables: "water", etc.

(See Notes to Pattern 13).

1.2 The Linking Verb

"BE" is regarded as the "Linking Verb" (also called the "Copula") as it bears no significant meaning in itself and serves to equate the Subject and Complement and to carry the markers of tense, person and number. The present tense only is taught in Class 5 (this applies to all verbs). Colloquial Hebrew has no overt expression for the present tense of "BE" so this form will constitute a real difficulty for the pupil, especially as it is the first pattern he meets. Nevertheless, considerations of frequency and situation demand its position as the first structure to be taught. The teacher copes with the problem of its non-occurrence in Hebrew by ensuring that the pupils meet it always as an integral part of a sentence pattern and not as an isolated morphological paradigm.

1.3 The Complement

The term "Complement" (or "Subject Complement") is the third item in this type of predication; characteristically, it is a feature of the Subject. As such, it is
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

quite different from the Direct Object of the Transitive Verb pattern, which is distinct from the Subject (with the exception of the Reflexive Pronoun).

The Complement may be (I) an adjective - "big", etc.;
(II) an adverb - "here", etc.;
(III) a Proper Noun or common noun.

Some adjectives only occur as part of the Complement (predicative adjectives), e.g. "asleep", while a few adjectives only occur attributively, e.g. "main".

PATTERN 2: SUBJECT + LINKING VERB: contracted forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Full form</th>
<th>Short form</th>
<th>Pronunciation (International Phonetic Alphabet)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>I'm</td>
<td>/aim/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are</td>
<td>You're</td>
<td>/juə/England; /jur/USA and elsewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is</td>
<td>He's</td>
<td>/hiːz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is</td>
<td>She's</td>
<td>/ʃiːz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is</td>
<td>It's</td>
<td>/ɪts/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David is</td>
<td>David's</td>
<td>/dɛˈvɪdz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The boy is</td>
<td>The boy's</td>
<td>/ˈbɒɪz/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These short forms are to be used for oral work by the class. Under no circumstances should the impression be given that these forms are somehow "slang", slovenly, or "substandard". Full forms are used in formal writing, for Short Answers in the positive (see Pattern 5), for emphasis and of course for inverted word order in the Interrogative. Logically, this pattern comes after the full forms, but in practice the pupil will meet the contracted forms before the full ones, in view of the recommendation that the first lessons be aural-or val only.

N. B. Spelling: "it's" is the contracted form of "it is"; it has no connection with the possessive pronoun (determiner) "its", meaning "belonging to it". Confusion
sometimes arises because of the double function of the apostrophe to signify both possession and omission.

**PATTERN 3: SUBJECT + LINKING VERB + "NOT" + COMPLEMENT**

Pattern 1 In the negative; the structure is the same as Pattern 1, with the insertion of the negator function work "NOT" after the relevant form of "BE".

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Linking Verb</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>big</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is</td>
<td></td>
<td>David</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The water is</td>
<td></td>
<td>clean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PATTERN 4: SUBJECT + LINKING VERB + COMPLEMENT; contracted forms.**

Pattern 2 In the negative.

4.1 The short forms are:

- I'm not = /aim nət/ (I. P. A. Notation)
- You aren't = /aːnt/ England; /ɑːnt/ U. S. A. and elsewhere
- He, she, it isn't = /ɪzn't/

4.2 "I'm not" is the only acceptable form for the first person singular, whereas "you aren't" and "he isn't" can be replaced by "you're not" and "he's not", respectively. However, in the negative interrogative structure, as met in tag questions etc., only the forms "aren't" and "isn't" are found. (N.B. Note that the first person singular negative interrogative is "aren't I?"). These structures are not taught in Class 5, but the ground is prepared by the consistent use of these forms of the contracted negative. Pupils might however meet the alternative forms as part of their passive "recognition" grammar.

4.3 Do not touch the full verb "HAVE" as if it fitted this pattern. For the sake of simplicity of pattern and in terms of international majority usage, the American...
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

Pattern is to be preferred to the British. Thus, "HAVE" is taught as a regular member of Patterns 30-33, the normal transitive verb pattern and so should be taught in the positive form only, at this early stage.

"I have a book, breakfast ..."  
"I don't have ..."  
"Do I have ...?"

Likewise, avoid the form "I've got" as an alternative to "I have". Naturally, the pupil will meet these other forms during the course of his studies, but for Class 5 the learning load should be eased wherever compatible with a correct usage. In this case the correct usage adopted is that of American English. Teachers speaking the British variety (which of course also uses "do have" for the nonpossessive and even certain possessive meanings of the verb) should adapt themselves to classroom needs grammatically, just as they already do lexically. In any case, "I have not a book" is a stiff, hyper-formal English, found more in textbooks for teaching English to foreigners than in everyday conversation.

"No" may be used before a Direct Object as a negative article which substitutes for the definite and indefinite articles - "I have the/a/no book" - but pedagogical and semantic problems make it advisable to postpone this Pattern till Class 6.

PATTERN 5: LINKING VERB + SUBJECT + COMPLEMENT

This is the YES/NO Interrogative form of Pattern 1 and like its positive and negative counterparts should be introduced very early in Class 5 for pedagogical-situational reasons:
5.1 The "YES/NO" Interrogative is the question-form without the use of specific question words. The transformation is easily demonstrated by the inversion of the verb and its subject: "He is David → Is he David?"

Grammatical inversion does not occur in Hebrew so the pupil is likely to find this structure rather difficult, but the item has to be introduced very early in order to make learning and teaching meaningful, interesting and enjoyable.

5.2 A question may be asked without any syntactic inversion - "He's David?" This pattern is mainly used in a very informal context or to show incredulity and pupils should not be encouraged to use it until they have thoroughly mastered the inverted form.

5.3 Pupils must be taught the intonation signal for this type of question, both with and without syntactic inversion. In both cases, there is a rising tone at the end of the sentence, as against the level or falling tone at the end of a declarative (positive and negative) statement or an interrogative sentence beginning with a question-word ("WH-Interrogative").

Examples: Are you David? *
           You are David? *
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

There are numerous instances where the intonation signal is not exactly as stated above, but pedagogically the above rule holds.

5.4 Short answers: A short answer consists of the addition of the sentence-adverbs "Yes/No" before the Subject (normally a Pronoun) and the deletion of the Complement.

Examples: Are you David? Yes, I am". (N.B. Full forms only, not the contracted.)

No, I'm not." (Full or short forms.)

It is considered more polite to give a short answer, as defined above, than a terse one-word response, "Yes" or "No".

PATTERN 6: INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN (SUBJECT) + LINKING VERB + COMPLEMENT

6.1 This pattern is an Interrogative transformation of Patterns 1 and 2, in the form of a "WH-"Question, with the Interrogative Pronoun (function word, Substitute Noun) as the Subject of the sentence. This type of interrogative is called "WH" as it begins with a question-word, which in turn usually begins with the digraph "wh" (except "how"). It is also called an "Information Question", since it demands more than a yes/no response.

6.2 The pronouns are WHAT? and WHO?

Examples: What is here? What's here?
Who is there? Who's there?

Where there is no Complement, only the full form of the Linking Verb is used - What is? / Who is?
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

6.3 In this Pattern, both "WHAT" and "WHO" are the Subject of the sentence so the word-order is regular and non-inverted (Subject + Linking Verb + Complement, as Pattern 1), as distinct from Pattern 7.

6.4 Intonation

The normal intonation tune for Patterns 6, 7 and 8 is a falling or level tone at the end of the sentence, e.g. "Who is a boy?"

PATTERN 7: INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN (SUBJECT - COMPLEMENT) + LINKING VERB + SUBJECT

7.1 This pattern is another type of "Information Question" (WH), this time with inverted word order:

Sentence Pattern: Complement: a LV Subject

Who/What: is he?

7.2 The question "Who is it?" is followed by the answer "It's me" and not "It's I", despite its Subject-Complement character. This apparent contradiction is a very minor issue in modern English, which does not distinguish the Subject and Objective cases by inflectional suffixes (as in German) or by the use of a function-word (as in Hebrew). In fact, the Subjective/Objective distinction in English exists only in the Personal Pronouns "me" is to be preferred either because it parallels the transitive pattern of the Objective case following the verb (albeit a Linking Verb in this case), or as an emphatic form similar to the French "moi". The formula "It is I" is very restricted.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

PATTERN 8: INTERROGATIVE ADVERB + LINKING VERB + SUBJECT

8.1 This pattern is also an interrogative transformation of Patterns 1 and 2, in the form of a WH-Question; however in this case the interrogative function-word is not the Subject of the sentence, but an adverb.

Interrogative adverbs taught in Class 5 are
- WHERE?
- HOW MUCH?
- HOW MANY?

The important syntactic difference between Pattern 6 on the one hand and 7 and 8 on the other lies in the word order. Whereas Pattern 6 followed the declarative pattern, since the Interrogative Pronoun was the Subject of the sentence, Patterns 7 and 8 have inverted word order, with the Subject following the Linking Verb:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples:</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
<th>Linking</th>
<th>Subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Where</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>David?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How much</td>
<td></td>
<td>the bread?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2 Intonation See paragraph 6.4

8.3 Although pupils should be encouraged to work within the framework of a full sentence under normal circumstances, teachers need not demand a full sentence as an answer to every question. Otherwise the language becomes very artificial. Once the basic sentence has been learnt, short answers may be accepted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Who is he? (Pattern 7)</td>
<td>David</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Where is he?</td>
<td>In the bath</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

PATTERN 9: NOUN PLURALS ending in "s" and pronounced /z/

Since these initial learning-stages are oral, the pupil should not be told about "plural s" until he learns to read, as this suffix is a spelling convention only. *

The rule is: /z/ after vowels (monophthongs and diphthongs) and non-sibilant voiced consonants - /b d g m n ŋ l r v ð/

Examples of /z/ after vowels are:

"Jews" /dʒuːz/
"letters" /letəz/, according to some British varieties
"families" /fæməliz/
"windows" /ˈwɪndəʊz/
"days" /deɪz/
"hours" /ˈauəz/
"eyes" /aɪz/

Examples of /z/ after non-sibilant voiced consonants are:

"arabs" /ærəbz/
"friends" /frendz/
"eggs" /egz/
"names" /neɪms/
"pens" /pɛnz/
"songs" /sɔŋz/
"bulls" /bəlz/
"letters" /ˈlɛtərz/, according to some American varieties
"halves" /ˌhælvz/, with the additional change of voiceless to voiced consonant in the root - "half" to "halves", "wife" to "wives"

* Linguists would say that the abstract "plural" morpheme in English has many phonological exponents (/s/ or /z/ or /əz/, vowel change, zero, "foreign" plurals, or combinations of these forms) or that the plural morpheme in English is (Z) with the non-/z/ forms as phonologically - or morphologically-conditioned allomorphs. But all are agreed that the plural in English is not the suffix "s", as explained above.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

There appear to be no examples of noun singulars with a final consonant /ß/, but since this rule of pronouncing the suffix spelt "s" also applies to the third person singular of the verb ("he bathes" /hi:be:zə/, it is included in the list above. Furthermore, the singular "mouth /mouθ/ is pluralized as "mouths" /mouθz/, while the noun-plural "clothes" /klouðz/ occurs, although it has no corresponding singular form.

PATTERN 10: NOUN PLURALS, ending in "s" and pronounced /s/

The final phoneme of the singular is a voiceless non-sibilant consonant - /p t k θ/

Examples of /s/ plural are:

"maps" /mæps/
"cats" /κæts/
"books" /bʊks/
"months" /mʌnθs/

PATTERN 11: NOUN PLURALS, ending in "es" or "s" and pronounced /iz/

The final phoneme of the singular is a sibilant fricative (hissing sound) or an affricate:

voiceless sibilants - /z, s/
voiced sibilants - /z, s/
voiceless affricate - /tʃ, ʧ/
voiced affricate - /dʒ, ʤ/

Examples of /iz/ are:

"places" /pleɪtsiz/
"exercises /eksəsaɪzɪz/
"sandwiches" /sænwɪdʒɪz/
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

N.B. "houses" /hauziz/: note the change of voiceless to voiced consonant in the root, without a change of spelling - /haus/ ≠ /hauziz/.

Noun-plurals ending in /izi/ seem to be restricted to unanglicized words of French origin, such as "garages" /gərəziz/. However, the anglicized pronunciation is to be preferred - /gərɛdʒiz/ or /gɛrɪdʒiz/.

PATTERN 12: NOUN PLURALS - other forms

12.1 A limited number of other plural forms will occur in the vocabulary for Classes 5 and 6. While regularity of a form is a major criterion, clearly dictating the choice of the plural suffix spelt "s", the frequency or availability of a given item will necessitate its inclusion in the pattern despite its possible irregularity or membership of a minor pattern. Patterns formed by vowel change (e.g. man → men) or "non-s" suffixes (child → children) are taught as separate items.

12.2 Note that the plural of "man" is "men" pronounced /mæn/ ≠ /men/, but the pairs "postman - postmen" and "gentleman - gentlemen" are pronounced the same in the singular and plural - /pəustmən/, /dʒentləmən/.

12.3 Singular morphologically but plural syntactically:
Some nouns are singular in form but govern the plural form of the accompanying verb ("concord")

"The police are ..."

"The people are ...", where "people" means "men and/or women".

12.4 Plural morphologically but singular syntactically:
The reverse applies to words like "mathematics" and "news" - the suffix "s" does not seem to signify plurality, so the pattern will be "Mathematics is...", "The news is...". The Hebrew equivalent in the second example will govern the plural verb.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

PATTERN 13: "COUNTABLE" and "UNCOUNTABLE" NOUNS, including the use of the ARTICLES

("thing" and "mass" nouns in some grammar books)

13.1 Both these subcategories of the noun are traditionally part of the Common Noun category, but grammatically the categorization of nouns into Countables and Uncountables is far more significant and valuable. As the term suggests, this division indicates semantically which objects signified by the noun can be counted and which cannot. Grammatically, the significance lies in the possibility to pluralize and the co-occurrence with the Articles or other determiners.

The Definite Article - "the"
The Indefinite Article - "a, an"

Some linguists define "no" before a noun as the "negative article", since it cannot co-occur with "the" or "a/an" but replaces them in a substitution table: "The/A/No book is on the table".

13.2 Uncountables

By definition, an Uncountable noun is never preceded by the indefinite article, since "a" signifies a number. Uncountables are abstract nouns and "mass nouns". Examples are:

abstract nouns - "music, sport, history, English"
"mass" nouns - "money, water, fish, food, tea, bread, milk".

Where a plural signifier is required, "some" is used - "some money". Unlike the Hebrew usage, Uncountable nouns in English are not preceded by the definite article in their "generic" meaning: "Milk is ..."
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

An Uncountable is preceded by the definite article when it has an "identifying" meaning: "The water in the cup is dirty". Contrast "Milk is good for you." (generic) and "The milk is here". (i.e. the particular milk we are looking for).

Uncountable nouns in English can be:

13.2.1. **Singular only** - singular in form and also in concord,
- e.g. "Water is ..."
- plural in form but singular in concord,
  e.g. "The news is ..."

13.2.2. **Plural only** - singular in form, plural in concord,
- e.g. "The police are ..."
- plural in form and also in concord,
  e.g. "Glasses are ..." (meaning "spectacles")

13.3 **Countables**

Countable nouns are "thing" nouns and must be preceded in the singular by either the definite or the indefinite article.

The definite article "THE" appears in both singular and plural and means "previous mention", "restriction", "specification", or "particularization"; the indefinite article "A/An" signifies one item, while there is no plural indefinite article (an alternative formulation - the plural indefinite article is zero). "Some" is often used in this context: a book = "Some books" or "books" (See the Syllabus for Class 7).

Since Hebrew has no indefinite article, pupils should always associate a Countable noun with an indefinite article and should learn them together, e.g. "a door" and not "door".

The alternative forms "A/An" depend on pronunciation and not on the spelling of the initial letter of the following word. "A" appears before a consonant sound.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

whether the actual letter is a "consonant" or a "vowel",

"a book" /ə bʊk/
"a university" /ə juː nɪvərˈsɪtɪ/

"An" appears before a vowel sound:

"an egg" /æn eg/
"an hour" /æn aʊər/

13.4 Homonyms

Some words are both Countables and Uncountables, with slightly different meanings:

e.g. "glass" = uncountable: a material
     "a glass" = countable, a utensil
     "the glass" = a particular example of the material or a specific utensil.

PATTERN 14: THE PLURAL FORM OF THE LINKING VERB

The plural form of sentence patterns 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

Examples: "We are (not) big, here, boys ..."
          "You are (not) big ..."
          "They are (not) big ..."
          "We/You/they aren't big ..."
          "Are they big?"
          "Who/what/where, etc. are they?"

PATTERN 15: DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN + LINKING VERB + COMPLEMENT

Singular and plural forms, in the positive, negative and interrogative.
15.1 Examples: "This/That is big..." (as Pattern 1)
"These/Those" are big..." (as Pattern 1d)

Only "that is" possesses a contracted form - "that's"; "these are" can be variously pronounced as /ðɪzə/ or /ðɪzə/. Distinguish "this/these" from "those" by the criterion of PROXIMITY. "This/these" is nearer in place, time or importance (i.e. a metaphorical use, meaning "nearer one's centre of attention or interest"). "Those" is not as frequent as "these" but should nevertheless be introduced as a member of the series.

15.2 Interrogative or Negative Stimulus and Its Responses

The singular response to an interrogative or negative stimulus using "this/that" is "it", e.g.

"Is this a book? Yes, it is. No, it isn't"
"This is not big. It is small".

The plural response to "these/those" is "they are...", e.g.

"Are those airplanes? Yes, they are. No, they aren't"

The pronoun "it" is used even if a person is referred to, e.g.

"Is that Mr. X? Yes, it is. No, it isn't."

PATTERN 16: ATTRIBUTIVE MODIFIERS

16.1 Attributive modifiers describe the noun they precede or immediately follow. A major grammatical signal in English is word order. For this reason among others, pupils should always be drilled within the framework of syntactic patterns, especially complete sentences. Drills of isolated words (e.g. noun plurals or morphological paradigms (e.g. a table of all the persons, genders, and numbers of a given tense form) should be avoided. Always practise in terms of natural speech units (phrases or sentences), whenever possible.
16.2 Attributive modifiers taught in Classes 5 and 6 are:

- an adjective - "a big boy", etc.
- another noun (Adjunct noun) - "a bus station", etc.
- a possessive pronoun (possessive determiner) - "my, your, his, her, its, our, their".
- a genitive noun or phrase - "David's book".
- a demonstrative (determiner) - this book, etc.
- a prepositional phrase - the book on the table.

All the attributive possessive pronouns are to be taught in Class 5, but not the predicative possessive pronouns ("mine, yours, etc."). The rule for the Genitive noun is not taught till later in the Primary School course, but pedagogical considerations dictate the use of children's names in the Genitive; use those genitive nouns as separate items in a substitution table for the possessive pronouns, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>This is</th>
<th>my book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>your</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David's</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that in some circumstances, the possessive pronoun may itself modify a genitive noun, e.g. "My David's book", the whole forming a Genitive Phrase.

16.3 Terminological note:

An "attributive" modifier is in juxtaposition with its Headword, a "predicative" modifier is separated from its Head by the linking verb "BE" ("the boy is big").

16.4 Word Order

16.4.1 The possessive pronouns, the Article and the demonstratives precede adjectives and noun-modifiers in the sentence, e.g. "My new gramophone record".
PATRONS FOR CLASS 5

The possessive pronouns, the Articles and the Demonstratives are called "determiners", as are certain other word-classes. With few exceptions, Determiners do not co-occur but replace each other in a substitution table, e.g.

The  new house is ....
This    
My

16.4.2 The Adjective precedes the Noun-Adjunct in the sentence, e.g. "a good (Adj.) transistor (N) radio". A different rule applies where a genitive noun modifies a head ("my son's new hat") but as stated above, the Genitive Pattern is not taught till later; instead, a few instances of children's names may occur as separate items (paragraph 16.2).

16.4.3 "All", "Half" and some other words are Pre-Articles or Pre-Determiners and precede all other items in the Noun-Phrase, e.g.
"All the boys arc ...."
"Half an/the orange is ...."

Both these words can be followed by "of" with no change of meaning:
"All of the boys arc ...."
"Half of an/the orange ...."

The general rule for attributive modifiers taught in Class 5 is therefore: ± Pre-Determiner ± Determiner ± Adjective ± Noun-Adjunct + Noun Head ± prepositional phrase. The sign ± means that the word-class in question may or may not appear.

16.5 Instances of potential Mother-tongue interference with attributive Modifiers on the part of Hebrew speakers are:

word order - Adjective Modifier following Noun-Head, e.g.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

"The boy good"
or even "The boy the good"
Instead of "the good boy"

word class - Noun Adjunct as Prepositional Phrase, e.g.

"A house from stone"
Instead of "A stone house"

Number - Adjectives declined for grammatical Number, e.g.

"The bigs boys"

PATTERN 17: THE IMPERATIVE

17.1 Verbs other than "BE" are now taught in their "base" form to signify the Imperative. This form thereby provides a useful basis for the subsequent introduction of the Present Continuous and Simple Tenses.

Examples: "(Please) stand up!"
"Go to the door!"
"(Please) open your books!"

In fact the whole concept of the Transitive verb taking the Direct Object is introduced incidentally via the Imperative.

17.2 The Imperative form is used to give an order or make a request. The word "please" preceding the Imperative transforms it into a request; if "please" follows the Imperative, it is a reprimand.

PATTERN 18: THE NEGATIVE IMPERATIVE

The Negative Imperative ("Don't go!") introduces the concept of the "carrier" function-word "DO", which pupils will meet and use later in the Present Simple, negative and interrogative forms.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

Note that in Modern English, "Don't" is used with "BE" to form its Negative Imperative ("Don't be late!").

PATTERN 19: THE PRESENT TENSE / CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE) ASPECT: positive

19.1 The structure of the Present Continuous should not constitute a learning problem as pupils are used to the "BE" pattern; note that "BE" in the Continuous Aspect is not a Linking Verb but an Auxiliary Verb. Teachers should present the BE + -ING form in a complete sentence always, e.g. "I am writing", otherwise pupils tend to identify the Continuous meaning with the suffix -ING alone and so omit the Auxiliary. Contracted forms are taught as with the Linking Verb. Linguists tend to regard BE + -ING as one morpheme in the underlying structure; even in the surface structure of the language, where the two forms are separated by the base form of the verb, they might be considered as one "discontinuous morpheme".

19.2 Although the Present Simple is now generally thought to be the more frequent Aspect, classroom situations and needs determine that priority be given to the Present Continuous. On the other hand, a very common error by the foreign learner is to use the Continuous where the Simple is the correct form (e.g. "I am reading the newspaper every day"). This may be due to over-anxiety in the use of this very "idiomatic" Aspect or simply to having been taught it first. If this is the case, the Present Simple should be introduced fairly soon afterwards and ample drill given in contrasting the two forms.

19.3 The rule guiding the teacher in this pattern is "INCOMPLETE DURATION". No other uses of the Present Continuous are taught in Classes 5 and 6, e.g. as Future ("I am coming tomorrow") or as Habit ("I am always thinking of you"). Drill should be in terms of complete sentences including an adverb of incomplete duration, e.g. "I am writing now, at this moment..." or as answers to questions such
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

"What are you doing?", in which case no adverb is required ("I'm writing a letter").

19.4 Sentence Pattern: Subject + Auxiliary "BE" + Base + -ING suffix ± Object ± Prepositional Phrase.

PATTERN 20: THE PRESENT TENSE, CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE ASPECT - negative

Sentence Pattern: Subject + Auxiliary "BE" + "NOT" + Base + -ING suffix ± Object ± Prepositional Phrase.

Here again the pupil is used to the "BE" + "NOT" pattern from the Linking Verb. The contracted forms are taught as with the Linking Verb.

PATTERN 21: THE PRESENT TENSE, CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE) ASPECT - interrogative YES/NO

Sentence Pattern: Auxiliary "BE" + Subject + Base + -ING suffix ± Object ± Prepositional Phrase.

Example: Are you writing a letter to him?

In teaching the "YES/NO" interrogative structure, short answers should be drilled as well as the complete forms:

Example: "Are you coming? Yes, I am.

No, I'm not."

These short answers, where the auxiliary is used instead of the main verb, are variously called "CODE", "ECHO IN REPETITION", "PRO-PREDICATE" or "AVOIDANCE OF REPETITION" by linguists.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS G

PATTERN 22: THE PRESENT TENSE, CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE) ASPECT
- interrogative with "WH" Pronoun

22.1 See patterns 6 and 7 (Linking Verb) for the main grammatical principles underlying this pattern.

22.2 Sentence Pattern: Interrogative Pronoun (Subject) + Auxiliary "BE" + Base + -ING + Object + Prepositional Phrase (as Pattern 6).

"Who is writing a letter to him?"

Short answers are drilled as well as the complete forms:

"Who is coming?" "I am". (see notes to Pattern 21).

22.3 "WHAT" and "WHO" as the Object of the Verb

These pronominal objects in initial sentence position require inverted word-order (see Pattern 7):

Examples: "What are you doing?"

"Who are you helping?"

"Who are you writing to?"

Use "WHO" and not "WHOM" as the pronominal object. In the course of their studies the pupils will meet the more formal "WHOM". At this stage "WHO" is taught as it is by far the more common usage, particularly in the spoken language. Similar considerations apply to the use of the end-prepositions; most if not all English grammarians today regard the end-preposition as the normal informal usage in Modern English. "To whom are you writing?" occurs in highly formal usage only. The third "compromise" formula of "whom are you writing to?" is rather dubious.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

PATTERN 23: THE PRESENT TENSE, CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE) ASPECT - Interrogative with "WH" - adverb.

See Pattern 8 (Linking Verb) for the main grammatical principles underlying this Pattern.

Sentence Pattern:
Interrogative Adverb + Auxiliary "BE" + Subject + Base + -ING suffix + Object + Prepositional Phrase.

Note the inverted word order (e.g. "Where is he going?").

PATTERN 24: THE GRAMMATICAL SUBJECT: "THERE IS/ARE . . . ."

24.1 Sentence Pattern:
Positive - THERE IS/ARE + NOUN PHRASE (NP) + Prep. phrase
Negative - THERE IS/ARE + NOT + NP + Prepositional Phrase
Interrogative - IS/ARE THERE + NP + Prepositional Phrase
Contracted Forms - THERE'S . . . ("There're" is very rare indeed and should not be taught).

THERE ISN'T/AREN'T . . .

24.2 "THERE IS" is a meaningless "grammatical subject" function (structure) word appearing in Subject position; the "logical" or "real" Subject comes after the Linking Verb, in the place of the Subject Complement (see Pattern 1). It is also called the "dummy subject" or "preparatory THERE" and should not be confused with the adverb of place "THERE". The function-word "THERE" is not stressed, while the adverb of place may be.

The interrogative form "IS THERE . . . ?" follows the intonation pattern for other YES/NO questions and has a rising tone at the end of the sentence.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

The "logical" or "real" subject must be a Noun or Noun-Phrase ("There's a book over there.") This Pattern is often preferred to the alternative order ("A book is over there.") when the subject is indefinite and has not already been identified. Alternatively, THERE IS/ARE may serve as an "attraction-drawer" to the "real" Subject following.

The number of the verb "BE" is determined by the "real" Subject following the verb: "There are three books over there".

24.3 Short Answers: "Yes, there is/are." (i.e. positive short answers never contract).

"No, there isn't/aren't".

PATTERN 25: PREPOSITIONAL PATTERNS

Prepositions are structure (function) words of time, place, direction, etc., which indicate a dependent relationship between two words, the second one being a noun or pronoun. Personal pronouns governed by a preposition are in the Objective Case (e.g. "between him and me"). Syntactically, a preposition followed by a Pronoun, Noun or Noun-Phrase (Determiner + Modifier + Noun) is a "PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE". In Class 5, some prepositions of place, direction, time, instrument and accompaniment are taught.

25.1 Place

The book is in the table.

on

under

by (or near)
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

I live at home. Teach "at" for small places, "in" for larger ones (according to the viewpoint of the speaker!)

He lives up the tree

25.2 Direction

I am going from Tel Aviv to Jerusalem
I am writing to you (metaphorical direction).
He is going into the water.
He is running down the street.
He is running up the street.
He is going out/out of the window.

25.3 Time

The lesson is at 8 o'clock on Wednesday in the morning.
It is half past ten. "At" before a specified hour; but note "at night".
It is five to ten. "On" before days of the week or dates (on January (the) 4th)
"In" before divisions of the day when preceded by the definite article ("in the afternoon"), months, years and seasons.

25.4 Instrument (or Manner)

I am writing with a pen.
I am going by bus, car, train, ship, airplane.
I am going on foot.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5

25.5 Accompaniment

I am going with you.

Prepositions taught are:

AT = place, time; BY = place, instrument; DOWN = direction; FROM = direction; IN = place, time; INTO = direction; ON = place, time, instrument; OUT/OUT OF = direction; PAST = time; TO = direction, time; UNDER = place; UP = place, direction; WITH = instrument, accompaniment.

PATTERN 26: CONJUNCTIONS "AND" and "BUT"

These conjunctions are also called "connectives" or "sentence-connectors". "AND" and "BUT" are co-ordinating conjunctions: they connect grammatically parallel structures – two sentences (thereby constituting a "Compound Sentence"), two phrases or two words.

"And" indicates addition; "but" indicates contrast.

PATTERNS FOR CLASS 5 OR CLASS 6

PATTERN 27: THE TRANSITIVE PATTERN: SUBJECT + VERB + OBJECT + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

27.1 As stated in the notes to Pattern 16, word order (an integral part of syntax) is a major grammatical signal in English. Traditional grammars often disregard syntax and concentrate on the far less important field of morphology (the inflection and derivation of words). Because of the central role of word order in English grammar (as well as for deeper psychological and linguistic reasons), the sentence pattern is considered today to be the way to present English grammar and as such is often called the "Linguistic Method". The regular order of words in declarative statements is
PATTERNS FOR CLASSES 5 OR 6

Subject + Verb + Complement or Object

27.1 The (Subject) Complement immediately follows the Linking Verb "BE", the Object immediately follows the Transitive Verb. In Hebrew, word-order is freer and an adverb may be interposed between the Verb and the Object.

27.3 The Indirect Object ("I am writing you a letter.") is taught in Class 6; in Class 5 a prepositional phrase can be used instead - "I am writing a letter to you," "I am buying a book for you".

27.4 The WH-interrogative adverb form of the Transitive Pattern follows the above pattern of Subject before Verb: the Auxiliary is inverted and placed before the Subject but the Main Verb still follows the Subject and is followed in turn by the Object.

27.5 The pronominal object may be taught as part of this Pattern - "me, you, him, her, it, us, them". See notes to Pattern 7 for the use of "IT'S ME" rather than the hyper-correct "IT IS I".

PATTERN 28: THE PRESENT SIMPLE TENSE - positive

28.1 The "base" form of the verb constitutes the Present Simple tense (exception: "BE"), with the addition of the suffix "-s" or "-es" for the 3rd person singular. The pronunciation of this suffix is /z/, /s/ or /lz/ according to the same principles as underlay the "plural -s" of nouns, i.e. "s" = /z/, when the base form ends in a voiced nonsibilant consonant or a vowel (monophthong or diphthong). The voiced nonsibilant consonants are /bdgmnŋlrvs/.  

Examples:  
"knows" /nɔz/  
"runs" /rʌnz/  
"sells" /sɛlz/
PATTERNS FOR CLASSES 5 OR 6

"s" = /s/, when the base form ends in a voiceless nonsibilant consonant -/ptkťʃ/

Examples:

"asks" = /ɑ:skz/
"hopes" = /houps/
"sits" = /sɪts/

The suffix "-es" /iz/ is added to a base ending in a sibilant fricative ("hissing sound") or an affricate: /zʃdʒtʃ/. Where the base ends with a "silent e", only "s" is added.

Examples:

dress => dresses /dresiz/
use => uses /ju:ziz/
wash => washes /wɔʃiz/
touch => touches /tuʧiz/

The verbs "do", "have" and "say" are exceptions, to a certain extent; they end regularly with "s" /z/, but also undergo internal vowel change or delete the final consonant

- say => says /si/ => /sez/
- do => does /du:/ => /dæz/
- have => has /hæv/ => /hæz/

Even "BE" can be regarded as regular insofar as its third person singular form likewise ends with "s" - "is" /iz/

28.2 As pupils are by now familiar with the Continuous Aspect, the Simple Aspect can be drilled in the form of contrasts with the corresponding Continuous pattern. The rule for the Simple Aspect in Classes 5 and 6 is HABIT, PERMANENT SITUATION, ETERNAL TRUTH. The future, narrative, demonstrative etc. meanings are not taught at this stage.

Example: "I speak Hebrew at home, but now I am speaking English".

28.3 The Simple and Continuous Aspects can be drilled with Transitive and Intransitive verbs alike.
PATTERNS FOR CLASSES 5 OR 6

PATTERN 20: "PRIVATE VERBS"

20.1 These verbs of sensation and state indicate situation rather than action. They do not occur in the Continuous Aspect and so cannot be drilled in the form of contrasts between the two Aspects. They are also called "non-conclusive verbs" by some linguists.

A full list of such verbs appears in every reputable grammar book: verbs of this category which will probably occur in the vocabulary for Classes 5 and 6 are:

bo, hear, have, like, see, think, want, know.

Examples: "I see you now. I hear you now. I have a book now. I know the answer now. I want my breakfast now."

29.2 Homonyms

Occasionally, an apparently "private" verb does occur in the Continuous Aspect. In this case, it has a slightly different meaning and does not express sensation or state:

Examples: "I think so now" = It is my opinion, a state.
"I am thinking now" = I am activating my brain.
"I am seeing him now" = I am interviewing him.
"I have time." = possession.
"I am having breakfast." = eating.

PATTERN 30: THE PRESENT SIMPLE TENSE - negative

Sentence Pattern: Subject + carrier "DO" + "NOT" + Base ± Object, etc. The contracted forms are "DON'T" and "DOESN'T" - /dount/, /dəznt/. The negative carrier "DON'T" has already been met as part of the Negative Imperative.
PATTERNS FOR CLASSES 5 OR 6

Examples of the Negative: "I do not/don't know. He does not/doesn't know."
"I do not/don't have a book. He does not/doesn't have a book."

PATTERN 31: THE PRESENT SIMPLE TENSE - "yes/no" Interrogative

Sentence Pattern: carrier "DO" + Subject + Base ± Object, etc., with rising intonation.

Examples: Do you have a book? Does he have a book?

Short answers are thoroughly drilled as was done with the "yes/no" Interrogative of the Present Continuous (Pattern 21); a short answer in the Present Simple consists of the sentence adverb "yes" or "no", the Subject and the carrier "DO" in the positive or negative forms. The negative is usually in the contracted form.

Examples: Do you live here? Yes, I do.
No, I don't.

PATTERN 32: THE PRESENT SIMPLE TENSE - Interrogative with "WH" pronoun

See Patterns 6 and 7 (Linking Verb) and 22 (Present Continuous) for the main grammatical principles underlying this Pattern (e.g. non-inverted word order).

Sentence Patterns:

32.1 Interrogative Pronoun (Subject) + Verb ± Object, etc.

Examples: "Who wants to do this?"
"Who likes chocolate?"
PATTERNS FOR CLASSES 5 AND 6

Note that the non-inverted word order does not require the use of the carrier "DO". In fact, many Hebrew-speakers over-generalize the interrogative use of "DO" and tend to insert it in this Pattern. Teachers should be on their guard against this tendency. A further difficulty lies in the fact that the speaker is required to use "DO" in a short answer, e.g. "Who knows the answer? I do."

32.2 Interrogative Pronoun (Object) + "DO" + Subject + Base etc.

Examples: Who do you know in this class? What do you learn in that lesson?

See paragraph 22.3 for "Who" and "What" as the pronominal Object.

PATTERN 33: THE PRESENT SIMPLE TENSE - Interrogative "WH-" adverb

See Patterns 8 (Linking Verb) and 23 (Present Continuous) for the main grammatical principles underlying this Pattern.

Sentence Pattern:

Interrogative Adverb + carrier "DO" + Subject + Base ± Object, etc.

Example: Where do you live?

Note the inverted word order.

GRAMMAR PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

See the introductory notes to the grammar patterns for Class 5. Some minor patterns may be left to Class 7, at the discretion of the teacher or course-writer (see the Introduction to this Syllabus, paragraph 2.1).
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 8

PATTERN 34: GRAMMATICAL SUBJECT: "IT IS"

34.1 Sentence Pattern:
Positive - IT IS + Adjective ("It's hot.")
  + Participle ("It's raining" - a Present Continuous form)
  This construction is mostly found with adjectives and participles
  referring to the weather.
  + Noun ("It's David").
  + Pronoun ("It's me.")
  + Time Expression ("It's one o'clock.")
  + Expression of Distance ("It's five kilometres.")
These last four examples are anaphoric uses answering questions
such as "Who is It?" or "What time is it?" or "How far is it?";
where again "IT IS" appears as a grammatical subject Function
(Structure) word.

Negative - IT ISN'T ...
Interrogative - IS IT ...?
Contracted form - IT'S ... 

N. B. The verb is always in the singular, whether the "real" Subject is singular or
plural (e.g. "It's David and John").

34.2 Pattern 34 is a "grammatical subject" (see Pattern 24), meaningless in it-
self, and followed by the "logical" or "real" Subject; it is sometimes called "Pre-
paratory IT". Its use is obligatory when the real Subject is an infinitive or a Noun-
clause ("It's nice to see you; it's a good thing that you came.") but these structures
are not taught in the Primary School.

The essential rule for "THERE IS" and "IT IS" is that a full English sentence re-
quires a Subject before the Main Verb; if for some reason the Subject is omitted or
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

placed after the verb, a "dummy" Subject is placed in Subject position instead. Hebrew has a freer word-order and does not use this grammatical device, so that the Hebrew speaker will tend not to use this "IT" at all.*

34.3 Examples of this Pattern were probably not early in the course, when teaching the time and the weather, but there they were separate items treated as entire semantic units (i.e. idioms). At this stage, the rule is imparted.

PATTERN 35: THE PAST TENSE, SIMPLE ASPECT

35.1 The Past Simple Tense is taught only as an expression of past time; neither the Indirect Speech nor the Conditional/Wishes uses of the past tense are taught at this stage. For the sake of simplicity and exposition, the explanations below refer to the verb paradigm; but the pattern is drilled syntagmatically. In teaching the Past Simple Tense, the Noun-Phrase (NP) pattern"---AGO" can also be usefully introduced, as well as adverbs of past time reference.

* An alternative approach in this Pattern is to see "IT" as a kind of anaphoric pronoun referring to an understood (but not expressed) concept in the underlying conceptual structure or situation; thus, "it's hot" might refer to "the weather is hot" and "who is it?" might refer conceptually to "who is this person?". In fact, Hebrew speakers would tend to say "who is this?". The varying analyses of this form largely depend on whether and how far semantics is considered a part of grammar.
35.2 The "regular" past-tense suffix spelt "ED" or "D" (alveolar plosive)

35.2.1 The suffix is pronounced /t/, the voiceless alveolar plosive, when the final phoneme of the base is a voiceless consonant that is not an alveolar plosive, e.g. /ptʃəs/.  

Examples: stopped /stəpt/  
liked /laɪkt/  
touched /tʌʃt/  
passed /pæst/  
laughed /laʊʃt/  
washed /wɔʃt/  

35.2.2 The suffix is pronounced /d/, the voiced alveolar plosive, when the final phoneme of the base is a vowel or a voiced consonant that is not an alveolar plosive, e.g. /bdʒvʌz məŋ jəl/.  

Examples: closed /kləʊzd/  
judged /dʒʌdʒd/  
stayed /stɛld/  
loved /laʊvd/  

There is some overlap between /t/ and /d/, which is also reflected in the variant spellings. Thus "learned" /lɜːnd/ or "learnt" /lɜːnt/ are both correct, as are "spelled" /spɛld/ or "spelt" /spelt/. The final phoneme of the base in those overlaps is always the voiced lateral /l/ or the voiced alveolar nasal /n/. The forms "learnt" and "spelt" etc. are orthographically irregular.

35.2.3 The suffix is pronounced /ɪd/, as an additional syllable, when the final phoneme of the base is an alveolar plosive, /t/ or /d/; e.g. wanted /wɒntɪd/, needed /nɪd/.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

35.3 Other paradigmatic subclasses (i.e. "irregular" verbs)

Most of these other forms are not "irregular" but belong to their own morphological subparadigm. However, the number of these other verbs is so small (about 140) and their criteria so complicated and mutually conflicting (e.g. drink – drank, but think – thought) that each verb is best taught as a separate item. Teachers interested in the morphological details and the paradigmatic classification are referred to book on Linguistics and to linguistically-orientated grammars.

The five subclasses of these so-called "irregular" verbs are –

35.3.1 No change from the Present

e.g. cut ⇒ cut

Linguists regard this phenomenon as the zero allomorph of the "past" morpheme. On the other hand, it is to be noted that all members of this subclass already end with the alveolar plosives /t/ and /d/, which is of course the "regular" past-tense suffix; however, the reverse does not apply - not all bases ending with an alveolar plosive belong to this subclass.

35.3.2 Various Forms of Vowel Change

e.g. break ⇒ broke

Some linguists regard this variant of the past tense morpheme as a "replacive" allomorph of the past morpheme \{D\} : /ou/ replaces /ei/, in this example.

Others see it as the "vowel change" exponent of the abstract "past" morpheme.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS '8

35.3.3 Vowel Change + Alveolar Plosive Suffix

e.g. say said /set/ /sed/
do did /du:/ /did/
keep kept /kI:p/ /kept/
hear heard /ha:/ /hA:d/ in some varieties of English
buy bought /bAf/ /bAt/

Insofar as the past tense ends with the suffix /t/d/, this subclass follows the rule for the formation of the past tense.

35.3.4 Changes in the Final Consonant + Internal Vowel Change

35.3.4.1 No vowel change

e.g. send sent /A/ /t/
make made /k/ /d/
have had /v/ /d/

The past tense ending in thus the regular alveolar plosive /t/ or /d/.

35.3.4.2 With vowel changes

e.g. teach taught /tI:t/ /tA:t/
catch caught /kA:t/ /kA:t/
bring brought /bAI/ /bAI:/

Here again, the past tense ending is the regular alveolar plosive /t/, although it is preceded by a vowel (see 35.2.2).

"BE" and "GO" are the two cases of "suppletion" in English and as such are undoubtedly irregular. Etymologically, "WENT" belongs to the same subclass as "SEND" and so can be regarded as, in a sense, regular in the tense formation but irregular in the base. "BE" is the only verb in English which distinguishes singular and plural in the past tense ("was/were"), just as it is the only verb which has a form for the base different from that of the Simple tense, which distinguishes first, second, and third persons in the Present tense, and which distinguishes singular and plural in the first person of the present tense. However, the present and past participles do follow the conventional patterns.

**PATTERN 36: THE PAST TENSE, SIMPLE ASPECT - negative**

Sentence Pattern: Subject (NP) + "DID NOT" (DIDN'T) + Base, etc. The only exception is BE (Linking Verb) → WAS/WERE + NOT + Complement. "HAVE" is still regarded as a regular inflected verb ("I did not have ...") at this stage.

**PATTERN 37: THE PAST TENSE, SIMPLE ASPECT - interrogative**

The "YES/NO" interrogative, "WH-" pronoun and "WH-" adverb interrogative are taught, according to the principles outlined in Patterns 31-33, with "DID" replacing "DO/DOES".

**PATTERNS 38: ADVERBS AND ADVERBIAL PHRASES (prepositional phrases modifying verbs)**

38.1 Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases are taught in Classes 5 and 6 as separate items, with stress laid on word order rules. The affixation pattern of "Adjective + ly" is best left till Class 7.
38.2 Some word-order rules for adverbs

38.2.1 Adverbs of time, place, and manner usually come after the Object: for the sake of emphasis, time or place (but not more than one) may take sentence-initial position. In general, adverbs have more mobility of position than other Parts of Speech. An adverb of place normally precedes an adverb of time - "I saw him there yesterday". Although some grammarians specify that adverbs of manner (e.g. "well", "slowly") precede those of place and time, it is generally considered that adverbs of manner are not inherently placed. An adverb hardly ever occurs between Verb and Object.

38.2.2 Adverbs of "frequency" and other pre-verb adverbs (e.g. "often, "scarcely") are not taught at this stage.

38.2.3 Some adverbs regularly take sentence-initial position. They are often called "sentence modifiers" or "sentence adverbs" since they modify the whole of the following sentence rather than the verb. Occasionally, they occupy sentence-final position. Examples: then, so, however, of course, certainly.

38.2.4 The above notes about adverbs refer also to adverbial phrases (prepositional phrases) and to "adverbial nouns" (e.g. "yesterday", "home" in "I got home yesterday").

Pattern 39: "GOING TO" to indicate future time

39.1 Teachers should break away from the old textbook conception of "SHALL/WILL" as the future tense. Most modern approaches begin treating future time with "GOING TO": while it is an over-generalization to equate "GOING TO" with future time, it is nevertheless the most common verbal form with future-time reference.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

39.2 "GOING TO" refers to

39.2.1 the future of intention, e.g. "I am going to write a letter."
39.2.2 the future of certainty, e.g. "It is going to rain."

39.3 Sentence Pattern:
Subject (NP) + Auxiliary BE + GO + suffix-ING + TO + Base + Object, etc. The negative and interrogative forms follow the same pattern as the Present Continuous Tense, e.g: "Are you going to see him? Yes I am."

39.4 The GOING TO future is a catenative or "chain" verb formed by the Present Continuous of "GO" and obligatorily followed by another underlying sentence which is represented by "TO" + Base etc. It should not be confused with the regular use of the Present Continuous of the Intransitive verb "GO". Thus, "I am going to Tel Aviv tomorrow" is not the GOING TO future, but the future meaning of the Present Continuous tense, while "I am going to Tel Aviv" merely indicates incomplete duration; neither of them is followed by the TO + BASE (infinitive) form. They are of course perfectly legitimate grammatical patterns but the GOING TO future must be followed by the infinitive - "I am going to go to Tel Aviv" in this case.

PATTERN 40: INCHOATIVE VERBS

40.1 These verbs are similar in syntactic behaviour to the Linking Verb "BE", but differ from it semantically. The "inchoative verbs" signify a process or indicate a perception or sensation, rather than merely "link" Subject and Complement. However, some grammar books class these verbs as Linking Verbs and indeed a grammatical test for inchoative verbs is the substitutability of BE.

Process Verbs: get (meaning "become"), become, grow, stay, turn, go.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

Perception Verbs: appear, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste. The teacher should know the rules involved, even though he teaches the verbs concerned as separate items.

40.2 Sentence Pattern:

Subject (NP) + Inchoative Verb + Complement.

See notes to Pattern 1 for definitions of (Subject) Complement.

Inchoative verbs are followed by a noun or adjective.

Examples:

He is getting fat.
He is growing old.
He turned red.
He feels good.
He became a teacher.
The machine went wrong.

American English restricts the use of "appear, look, seem" to Adjective Complements only (e.g. "That looks good"), whereas British English allows them to be followed by a noun also ("This looks/seems/appears a nice orange."). Some of these verbs may interpose the preposition "LIKE" before the Noun Complement, e.g. "This feels/looks/seems like gold." "This smells/tastes/sounds like ....", in American and British usage.

40.3 Homonyms

Some of these verbs are double or even triple homonyms, e.g.

SMELL - Inchoative: "The dog smells good."
- Intransitive: "The dog smells well."
- Transitive: "The dog smells me."

Others in this category are TASTE, FEEL, TURN, GROW, SOUND.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

PATTERN 41: MODAL: CAN.

41.1 Modals are Auxiliary Verbs that combine with the base form of the verb (i.e. without "TO") to modify the meaning of the base. Their syntax is simple but the numerous and differing meanings of the Modals constitute a considerable learning problem. In the Primary School the Modals CAN and WILL are taught, in the present tense only.

41.2 Syntactic Characteristics of the Modals

(I) They do not add the suffix "-s" in the third person present singular, nor do they occur in the Continuous Aspect;

(II) They form their negative without the carrier "DO", but simply add "NOT" or "N'T";

(III) They form their interrogative by inversion with the Subject, without the carrier "DO";

(iv) In the short answer form ("Code", "Echo in Repetition"), the Modal is repeated ("Yes, I can.")

(v) They may be stressed for emphatic affirmation ("I can go.")

Some linguists see a Verb-Phrase with a Modal as a combination of two underlying sentences (a Generalized Transformation), e.g. "I can see" = "I can" + "I see". The only exception is "WILL" in its future meaning.

41.3 CAN

The two most frequent meanings of this Modal are taught -

Ability: "I can speak English".

Permission: "You can go home now".

Negative: "I cannot/can't hear you;"

"You cannot/can't go home."
Patterns for Class 6

Interrogative: "Can I go now?"
Short answer: "Can you see him? Yes, I can./No, I can't."

41.4 The Pronunciation of CAN

In the positive pattern, CAN is pronounced /kn/, unless it is stressed for emphatic affirmation ("But I can/kən/ speak English!"). In the interrogative, both forms are found - "Can I go now?" = /kn/ or /kæn/. In short answers or in general before a pause, only the "strong form" is used - "Yes I can" /kæn/.

Pattern 42: Modal "WILL"

42.1 WILL is morphologically a Modal like CAN etc. and behaves syntactically in the same way (except in Conditional Clauses, which are not taught at this stage). Some grammarians see WILL as the "pure" future tense, others see it as a double homonym, one a modal and the other a future tense, whilst yet others see it as a present-tense Modal with the future as its most frequent meaning. All Modals have a future reference (e.g. "Can I go there tomorrow?"), as indeed do the Present Simple and Present Continuous Aspects.

42.2 WILL is taught at this stage to express

(i) futurity (but suggesting promise or inevitability).
   e.g. "He will arrive tomorrow."

(ii) volition, e.g. "I will help you." This use is especially common in the second person Interrogative, where it can be interpreted as a polite request, e.g. "Will you open the window?"

The other meanings of WILL (characteristic, induction, probability, insistence) are not taught at this stage; note that in Conditional Clauses WILL in the simple futurity meaning does not occur after "IF" but may do so in the volition meaning ("If you will do this, I will do that").
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

42.3 The distinction between SHALL and WILL in terms of first person as against second and third persons is very restricted in English. Most dialects use WILL for all persons, and teachers are advised to adopt this simple formula.

Declarative: I, etc + WILL + NOT + Base ...
Interrogative: WILL + I, etc + Base ...
Contracted forms: Positive - I'll
Negative - I won't (more rarely, 'I'll not')

Short answer or Echo; Yes, I will./No, I won't. (N.B. No contracted forms in positive Short Answers)

42.2 The so-called "Coloured Future" (I will, You/They shall, etc.) of command, promise or prohibition is likewise very restricted; in the later stages of the English course, the various uses of SHALL are met as recognition (passive knowledge) items. The interrogative "SHALL I...?" meaning an offer or a suggestion ("Shall I open the window for you?"), can be introduced in the Primary School as an idiom or formula.

PATTERN 43: THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

This Pattern deals with the degrees of adjectives — equality, comparison and superlativeness. However, teachers should not feel obliged to teach them together; they would tend to occur in different situations and only in somewhat artificial textbook surroundings do people actually compare all three degrees.

43.1 The Equality Degree

Pattern: AS + Adjective + AS. Unstressed pronunciation /əz/

Negative: NOT AS + Adjective + AS or NOT SO + Adjective + AS
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

43.2 The Comparative Degree, comparing two unequal objects, etc.

Pattern: Adjective + Suffix -ER + THAN (conjunction or preposition); MORE (intensifier) + Adjective + THAN

To show a relationship of inferiority, use LESS ... THAN or the negative equality degree (NOT SO/AS ... AS).

Monosyllabic adjectives (and adverbs) add "ER" (except "right, wrong, real"), as may disyllabics stressed finally ("severe, polite") or ending with a vowel ("yellow"); disyllabic adjectives ending in "y" change the "y" to "i" and add "er". Most other disyllabics stressed on the first syllable and adjectives of three syllables use the "MORE ... THAN" construction, as do all adjectives only used predicatively ("asleep, alive"). Some linguists might not regard "asleep" and "alive" as adjectives.

43.3 The Superlative Degree, comparing three or more objects, etc.

Pattern: THE + Adjective + suffix EST + OF

Adjectives and adverbs which formed their comparative by ER form their superlative by EST: those using MORE for the comparative use MOST for the superlative.

The superlative represents the relatively highest degree, not the absolutely highest - it may be the comparative from a different viewpoint;

e.g. "He was older than the others" may mean the same as "He was the oldest". One also finds "the best of two" in everyday usage.

43.4 Irregular constructions

Teachers should ensure that pupils are thoroughly aware of the irregular comparative and superlative forms where they occur in the word-list (e.g. good-better-best).
13.5 Structuralist linguists classify adjectives as words capable of receiving the ER/EST inflectional suffix or alternatively claim that the Comparative and Superlative are formed by the suffixes ER/EST only. They argue, for example, that the word "beautiful" is either (i) an adjective which has no grammatical comparative or superlative forms but expresses semantic comparison by the use of the Intoners MORE and MOST or (ii) is not an adjective at all, since it does not inflect for comparison. Instead, it is categorized as an "Adjectival" and all word-classes (parts-of-speech) are either "morphological" (inflected, e.g. Adjectives) or "syntactic" (uninflected, e.g. Adjectivals). Other linguists would argue that comparison is an abstract grammatical characteristic which may be phonologically realized by morphological inflection (ER/EST) or by syntactic structure words (MORE/MOST). The dispute may seem rather academic, but indicates the rigorous approach of modern linguistics.

PATTERN 44: NOUN GENITIVE

Noun genitives were met early in the course (Pattern 16) as discrete items in the substitution table drilling possessive pronouns.

44.1 Although the genitive case of the noun serves to indicate any close relationship ("my friend's death"), its main reference is still possessive. Accordingly, it tends not to be used for inanimates, unless metaphorically ("Jerusalem's sunset") or for expressions of time and measure ("yesterday's newspaper", "a 100 meters' race").

44.2 The singular genitive is expressed by 's in writing, in speech by /z/s/iz/ according to the same phonological rules underlying the use of the third person singular of the Present Simple Tense or the plural of nouns. Where the noun plural does not end with "s", the genitive ending is 's ("children's"; where it already
PATTERNS FOR CLASS C

ends with "s", there is no phonological expression of the genitive, only the graphological one of an apostrophe after the plural.

44.3 Note the "Absolute Genitive" (also called the "Elliptical Genitive") "Go to the doctor's", "At my aunt's" - where the head-word modified by the genitive noun has been deleted ("go to the doctor's clinic", "at my aunt's house").

44.4 The function of the Genitive Noun is to act as a Noun-Modifier in the attributive pre-head position, substituting the determiner in a sentence pattern; however, it may itself be the Head of a Noun-Phrase, with its own modifiers, the whole forming a Genitive Phrase.

Example: \[ \text{My best friend's new hat} \]

44.5 The Periphrastic Genitive (NP + OF + NP) e.g. "A cup of tea"

A prepositional phrase governed by OF will replace the genitive; it is obligatory for inanimate objects, other than the exceptions noted in 44.1. With animates, it serves to avoid a complicated series of apostrophes or for purposes of emphasis.

PATTERN 45: THE PREDICATIVE POSSESSIVE PRONOUN

"mine, yours, his, hers, its. (rare), ours, theirs".

45.1 This pronoun may be the Subject-Complement of the Linking Verb ("That's mine."), the Object of a preposition - "That looks like mine." or even "This book of mine", where the possessive pronoun is the Object of the possessive preposition (double genitive); or the Object of a Transitive Verb ("I want yours.").
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 8

45.2 Teachers might find it useful to drill this form in contrast with the attributive possessive pronoun (my, your, etc), sometimes called "the Possessive Adjective", e.g. "This is my book. This book is mine."

PATTERN 46: SHORT ADDITIONS (ECHO)

Only those Echoes showing positive agreement are taught in the Primary School; patterns of negative agreement ("I don't either.") are taught in Class 8.

Sentence Pattern: NP + Auxiliary + TOO

Examples: I + do/can/will + too.

This form, with its regular word order construction, is to be preferred at this stage to the alternative inverted word-order construction ("So do I"). Note the use of "DO" as the substitute for a Main Verb without a Modal in the "stimulus" sentence.

PATTERN 47: THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS - "ONE/ONES"

47.1 This pronoun replaces countable nouns and can itself be modified by a demonstrative, determiner or adjective preceding, and a prepositional phrase following:

Examples: "I like this blue one with the ..."
"......... these blue ones .......

47.2 Since the indefinite third person singular personal pronoun "ONE" (no plural) is restricted to hyper-formal use, it should not be taught (e.g. "One goes there." "It disturbs one"). Instead, use the second and third person plural pronouns for the Subject ("You/They go ... ") and the first person for the Object ("It disturbs me/us.").
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

PATTERN 48: ORDINAL NUMBERS

First, second ...

Cardinal numbers were taught early in the course. Note that ordinal numbers need "THE" or a possessive determiner ("MY" etc), except in aphoristic sentences and phrases - "First come, first served".

PATTERN 49: FIRST PERSON IMPERATIVE

49.1 Sentence Pattern: LET US (LET'S) + Base
Negative: DON'T LET'S + Base/LET'S NOT + Base.

"DON'T LET'S" is recommended, since it parallels the second person Negative Imperative ("Don't go!").

Distinguish between this pattern and the word "LET" in Pattern 50. Here "LET'S" is a function word (or phrase) indicating the first person imperative and suggesting common action.

49.2 Undoubtedly, many examples of this pattern will have been met earlier in the form of separate items: the rule is now learnt and the examples generalized.

PATTERN 50: LET + NP + Base

Example: "Let him go."

Here "LET", meaning "allow", is the normal second person imperative but is followed by a noun or pronoun and then the Base form alone without "TO".

PATTERN 51: NEGATION OF THE OBJECT

Sentence Pattern: NP + V + "NO" + NP
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

51.1 In a sense, the determiner (the negative article) "NO" negates the Noun-Object rather than the Verb and serves to emphasize the negated NP-Object rather than the activity. It is commonly found with the verbs "HAVE" ("I have no money") and "BE" ("It is nothing"), but may occur with other verbs also ("I saw no people there").

51.2 "No" is compounded with "one", "body", or "thing" and substitutes the bound morpheme "somo", i.e. someone/ no-one /sou\n\n/ something nothing /n\n\n/ somebody nobody /\n\n/ It also substitutes the bound morpheme "any" when preceded by the negated verb ("I didn't see anybody" = "I saw nobody"), but this pattern is not taught till Class 7.

There pronouns ("no-one, nothing, nobody") can be the Subject and the Object in a sentence; in both cases, the verb is in the positive. A common feature of substandard Modern English is the "double negative" - "I didn't see nobody." and pupils might be tempted to make this mistake through the interference of Hebrew patterns.

PATTERN 52: THE INDIRECT OBJECT PATTERN

Sentence Pattern: Subject (NP) + Verb + Indirect Object (NP) + Direct Object (NP).

Examples:
I gave him the book.
I told him the story.
I bought him the book.

This pattern is taught as a transformation of the propositional phrase with "in" or "for", e.g. "I gave the book to him"; "I bought the book for him"; intensive drill
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

has to be undertaken since the Hebrew speaker will be tempted to use a prepositional form instead of the objective case. Because of these problems of Mother-Tongue Interference, teachers might do well to concentrate only on those sentence-patterns which are transformations of the "TO" prepositional phrase (e.g. "I sent/gave/wrote him a letter.") and to leave the "FOR" transformation to Class 7.

There is a certain mobility of word-order where both the Indirect Object and the Direct Object are pronouns ("Give it her. Give her it.") but where the Direct Object is a noun, the Indirect Object always precedes, as in the sentence patterns above.

Some grammar books also posit a Pattern of two Direct Objects, e.g. "I taught him the answers. I asked him a question". Here the transformation would not be from a prepositional phrase but derived from two underlying sentences - "I asked him" + "I asked a question." However, they can also be viewed as deriving from prepositional phrases - "I asked a question of him. I taught the answers to him."

PATTERN 53: CATENATIVES ("CHAIN" VERBS): SUBJECT (NP) + VERB + INFINITIVE.

The Infinitive (TO + Base) is the Object of the Verb.

Examples: I want to go. (The "Object + Infinitive" pattern with this verb - "I want you to go" is not taught in Class 6).

I hope to go.

Note: the GOING TO future was regarded in Pattern 39 as a Catenative verb; this means that the verb "GO" used in the Continuous and meaning "intention" or "certainly" is transitive.
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

PATTERN 54: CONTRACTED FORM OF THE NEGATIVE OF "BE"

For initial teaching purposes, the contracted negative of BE was presented as NP + BE-NOT (e.g. He isn't.)

The other form is now introduced, NP-BE + NOT (He's not).

PATTERN 55: AGENT-NOUN DERIVED FROM VERBS

This pattern can be introduced incidentally and not in any specific sequence; it is a morphological and not a syntactic structure. An Agent-Noun (one who does an activity) is derived from the verb by the suffix /-or/ "-or". Transformational grammarians view it as derived from an underlying sentence ("He teaches" → "a teacher").

The regular spelling is -ER but some -OR (visitor, sailor, governor) and -AR (lur) forms are also found; when the verb is spelt with a final "e", only "r" is added. Not every verb forms an "agent-noun" in this manner; thus, there is no word "livers" meaning "people who live".

PATTERN 56: MORE PREPOSITIONAL PATTERNS

56.1 Place and Position
OFF He fell off the table
AROUND They ran around the room.
BETWEEN He sat between his mother and father. (BETWEEN refers to two objects but note the idioms "Between these four walls. Between you, me and the gatepost.")
AMONG I found my book among the others. (Surrounded by)
OVER The airplane is now over our heads. (up in a perpendicular direction)
PATTERNS FOR CLASS 6

NEAR Stand near the table!
BEHIND He stood behind the table. ("In back of" is found in some American varieties of English)
IN FRONT OF The teacher stood in front of the class. (BEFORE is rather literary)
ALONG We walked along the road. (following the length of)
FAR FROM Ramat Gan is not far from Tel Aviv. Is it far from here? ("far from" occurs most frequently in questions or negatives).
NEXT TO David sits next to Edna. (immediate vicinity)

56.2 Direction
THROUGH He threw the ball through the window.
ACROSS He walked across the road.
OFF, AROUND, OVER as above

56.3 Time
BEFORE He arrived before 10 a.m.
AFTER He arrived after 10 a.m.

Note: Most English speakers say "a quarter to ten" and "a quarter past ten", but some American varieties use "before" and "after" in these contexts.

56.4 Possession or other intimate relationship
OF the legs of the table; a cup of tea.

56.5 Others
LIKE He speaks English like a native. (resemblance)
FOR I got the book for you. (purpose)
ABOUT It's about 5 o'clock. (approximately)
Let's read about him. (concerning)
WITHOUT He went without us. (absence of accompaniment)
THE SUGGESTED SYLLABUS FOR CLASS 7, GROUPS A & B

New Structures:

1. QUANTIFIERS

Quantifiers are a subclass of the class of DETERMINERS. Other subclasses are ARTICLES and DEMONSTRATIVES. Usually, these sub-classes may replace each other in a substitution table but do not co-occur. As the name suggests, "QUANTI FIERS" provide information about numbers and quantities; the various quantifiers may be classified grammatically by their different potentiality of occurrence with countable and uncountable nouns, singular and plural.

1.1. SOME

"SOME" may occur before plural countable nouns, indicating an unspecified plural number. Thus, the indefinite singular articles A/AN may have the zero article or the quantifier "SOME" as their plural:

- e.g. singular: "I bought an apple"
- plural: "I bought some apples" or "I bought apples".

"I bought apples" has a contrastive meaning - "apples" rather than "oranges" - whereas "I bought some apples" is non-contrastive. This use of the word "Some" is pronounced (səm), not (ʌm).

1.2. ANY

"ANY" replaces "SOME" in negative sentences.

- e.g. "I bought some apples" → "I didn't buy any apples".

"ANY" usually replaces "SOME" in interrogative sentences,

- e.g. "Did you buy any apples?"
THE SUGGESTED SYLLABUS FOR CLASS 7, GROUPS A & B (cont.)

"SOME" may occur in an interrogative sentence when the expected answer is affirmative; "ANY" is neutral in this regard.

e.g. "Is anyone at home?"

"Is someone at home?"

The "SOME/ANY" transformation applies to adverbs and pronouns also.

e.g. SOMEONE → ANYONE

SOMEBEHERE → ANYWHERE

N.B. Stressed "SOME" + Singular countable ("There's some man to see you") should not be taught at this stage.

1.3. NOT ... ANY → NO

See the Primary Syllabus "Negation of the Object"

Grammatically, a sentence such as "I have no time" might be described as possessing a negated object, with "I don't have any time" as a negated verb, but semantically they are synonyms. To avoid confusion, teachers are advised not to teach "ANY" in its affirmative ("indiscriminate reference") meaning, e.g. "Anybody can do that" but to restrict themselves to EVERY/EACH (see 1.6.).

1.4. A LOT OF/LOTS OF (synonyms); MANY/MUCH

These quantifiers refer to a larger quantity than "SOME" does. Many grammar books ignore the "A LOT OF/LOTS OF" construction completely and instead teach only "MANY/MUCH", but informal usage prefers "A LOT OF/LOTS OF" for Countables and Non-Countables alike. "MANY/MUCH" are somewhat formal and literary. Furthermore, they are more usually found in a negative or interrogative sentence rather than in an affirmative one - "MUCH" is hardly ever found in an affirmative sentence.

"MANY" is used with Countable nouns; "MUCH" with Uncountables,

e.g. "I bought a lot of apples" (or "lots of apples") - Countable plural noun;

"I bought a lot of chocolate" (or "lots of chocolate") - Uncountable noun;
but "I bought many apples" or more commonly "I didn't buy many apples" - Countable plural noun;
and "I didn't buy much chocolate" - Uncountable noun.
However, MANY/MUCH are the only forms occurring in the interrogative phrases
"HOW MUCH?" (answer a Quantifier + Uncountable noun)
"HOW MANY?" (answer a Quantifier or numeral + a Countable plural noun).

1.5. A LITTLE/ A FEW; LITTLE/FEW
"A LITTLE/LITTLE" collocate (regularly co-occur) with Uncountables,
"A FEW/FEW" with Countables. There is no grammatical connection between the
Quantifier "a little" (as in "I drank a little water") and the Indefinite Article + Ad-
djective ("I bought a little apple"). "A LITTLE/A FEW" have a positive reference,
"LITTLE/FEW" have a somewhat negative or deprecatory implication. Thus, "I
have a few friends" is a matter for congratulation, "I have few friends" for con-
dolence.

1.6. EVERY/EACH
EVERY + singular noun refers to the single members of a group but emphasizes
the concept of inclusion, whereas EACH + singular noun focuses on the individual.

1.7. ALL (OF)
This Quantifier was met in Classes 5 and 0; it is a Pre-Article and collocates with
Countables and Uncountables alike.

1.8. BOTH (OF)
This Quantifier is likewise a Pre-Article, collocating with a group of two members only.

1.9. "SOME" with Uncountable nouns
See Pattern 13, Primary Syllabus
Uncountable nouns by definition have no plural, but "SOME" may be used to signify
a quantity of the mass or abstract noun, a limited but unspecified amount,
e.g. "I bought some chocolate."
"I learnt some English".
1.10. QUANTIFIERS AS NOUN-SUBSTITUTES

The above quantifiers act as a kind of pronoun or "noun-substitute". They may occur alone or together with the personal or indefinite pronouns.

e.g. "I bought some."

"I bought a lot."

"I bought a little/a few" ("I bought little/few" does not occur)

"I bought each one" (see the Primary Syllabus for "ONE/ONES")

"I bought all of them."

2. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS (-SELF/ -SELVES).

Reflexive pronouns are the direct objects of transitive verbs, where the Direct Object is the same person or thing as the Subject; they also occur as the Object of a preposition. Hebrew speakers tend either to under-use the reflexive construction or to over-generalize it, mistakenly identifying it with the "hitpael" under every circumstance. Pupils should therefore be taught the reflexive as a set of individual items rather than as the equivalent of a Hebrew construction.

Notice that the possessive form of the personal pronoun is used with the first and second persons, but the objective form with the third person; also that this is the only case where the second person plural is different from the second person singular in form:

"myself, yourself, ourselves, yourselves" but "himself, itself, themselves". "Herself" has of course the same form in the objective and possessive cases.

BY Reflexive

e.g. "I came by myself". This prepositional phrase means "alone". The "emphatic" or "intensifier" meanings of this pronoun ("I did it myself") should not be taught at this stage in order not to arouse unnecessary confusion.

3. "HAVE TO/"HAD TO"/"WILL HAVE TO"

Examples: Affirmative - "I have to go"

Negative - "I don't have to go"

Interrogative - "Do I have to go?"
THE SUGGESTED SYLLABUS FOR CLASS 7, GROUPS A & B (cont.)

Semantically, HAVE TO is similar to a MODAL AUXILIARY but formally it is not a Modal, since it adds "-s" to the third person singular present, constructs its negative and interrogative forms with the carrier "DO", and can co-occur with Modals ("May have to/will have to" etc.). "HAVE TO" is therefore regarded by grammarians as a "full" CATEGICAL ("chain") verb or as a SEMI-MODAL in view of the similarity of meaning with Modals.

HAVE TO is to be preferred to MUST in Class 7, in order to avoid the confusion and misunderstanding arising from MUST NOT, which means "prohibition" rather than "negation". Although some grammar books claim a difference between "HAVE TO" and "MUST" as "external" v. "internal" (moral) compulsion, most native speakers use these forms synonymously.

"I haven't to" is so rare as to be almost non-occurring but "Have I to . . . ?" is found in formal usage. In Classes 8 and 9, pupils will learn the "I'VE GOT TO . . . " HAVE I GOT TO . . . ?" forms, which have the same meaning as "HAVE TO".

4. MANNER ADVERBS: ADJECTIVE + suffix -LY

Most manner adverbs are of this type; there are a few constructed on a noun stem but they usually take a different suffix, e.g. "backwards, sideways, lengthwise.

Examples of ADJECTIVE + -LY are

"quiet - quietly"
"quick - quickly".

A few adverbs have the same form as the corresponding adjective (e.g. "fast"), while the irregular "well" is the adverb of the irregular adjective "good".

See Pattern 5 for "Pre-Verbs" (Frequency Expressions).

Manner adverbs, like other adverbs, usually occur after the Verb Phrase. Place adverbs occur before Time adverbs ("I went there yesterday"), but Manner adverbs can precede or follow both Place and Time adverbs. The only exception is in the case of an intransitive verb of motion, where the adverb of place as a rule follows the verb immediately, e.g.
THE SUGGESTED SYLLABUS FOR CLASS 7, GROUPS A & B (cont.)

"He went there (Adverb of Place) quickly (Adverb of Manner)."

Manner adverbs may answer the question-word "how?".

5. **PRE-VERBALS**

Most pre-verbal adverbs are frequency expressions, a subclass of Adverbs of Time.

Frequency expressions refer to the question 'how often' rather than 'when'. If they consist of one word only, their preferred place is before the main verb; if the Verb Phrase contains an Auxiliary or Modal, the pre-verbal is placed between the Auxiliary or Modal and the Main Verb,

e.g. "I often see him"/ "I can often see him".

Where the Main Verb is "BE", the frequency expression comes after the verb - "he is often here". If the frequency expression is to be emphasized, it can be placed before the Auxiliary or Modal; it always occurs before the Semi-Modal "HAVE TO".

If the frequency expression is a phrase, it follows the usual rule of Time-Adverb placing, at the very end of the sentence after all other adverbs - "I see him there every day" - or in sentence - initial position.

One-word frequency expressions may also occur finally - "I go there often".

**Examples of Pre-Verbals (frequency expressions and others)**

always    often    usually
sometimes  seldom  hardly
never      generally

Avoid the "emphatic" placing of one-word frequency expressions in sentence-initial position, with the resulting inversion of customary word order (e.g. "Never will I go there again").

6. **NEGATIVE INTERROGATIVE**

So far, only affirmative questions have been taught, in order not to create too heavy a learning load for the pupil. However, in this third year of study he should learn and use the negative interrogative of all the patterns learnt hitherto, e.g.

"Isn't he here? Don't you have to come?"
THE SUGGESTED SYLLABUS FOR CLASS 7, GROUPS A & B. (cont.)

7. PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVES

In Class 5, pupils studied the attributive and predicative placing of adjectives - "a big boy" (attributive), "the boy is big" (predicative). However, some adjectives are only used attributively (e.g. "main"), others only predicatively. In Class 7 some of the predicative adjectives are taught, those that have the prefix "a-".

e.g. awake (i.e. "The boy is awake"; never "An awake boy"); asleep
alive

Some grammarians prefer to regard these "a-" words as adverbs; yet others see them as a word-class of their own. These differing definitions result from the varying terms of reference or linguistic theories adopted; teachers consulting grammar books must be continuously aware of the fact that there is no overall agreed description of English grammar.

8. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Monosyllabic adverbs are inflected for comparison in the same way as the homonymous adjective, e.g. "fast-faster-fastest".

Adverbs ending in the suffix "LY" usually form their comparative and superlative forms by "MORE/MOST" + Adverb.

Irregular adverbial comparison exists in the same way as with the corresponding adjectives

e.g. well - better - best
badly - worse - worst

9. EITHER/NEITHER ... OR/NOH

Compound sentences with "AND" and "BUT" were taught in Classes 5 and 6; compound sentences with EITHER/NEITHER ... OR/NOH are taught in Class 7, using the twin sentence-connectors "either + sentence + or + sentence" or "neither + sentence + nor + sentence".
THE SUGGESTED SYLLABUS FOR CLASS 7, GROUPS A & B (cont.)

These words will likewise be taught as phrase-connectors - "Either you or I will go; he neither works nor plays". These phrases can also be viewed as underlying sentences. "Either/or" and "neither/nor" are more often found as phrase-connectors than as sentence-connectors.

10. CATENATIVE VERB + NOUN-PHRASE (NP) + INFINITIVE

This sentence-pattern with "WANT" etc is taught in Class 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Catenative</th>
<th>+ NP</th>
<th>+ Infinitive, Verb-Phrase, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>want</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>to go.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask</td>
<td>the guests</td>
<td>to answer the questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell</td>
<td>everybody else</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some grammarians regard the Infinitive or VP as a "non-finite clause".

As mentioned in connection with Pattern 7, there are no overall agreed terms of reference for the description of English grammar; in this case, the term "clause" is variously defined by linguists.

While the above catenative verbs operate within the same Sentence-Pattern in English, they constitute different problems for Hebrew speakers, each of the verbs mentioned forming a distinct sentence-pattern in Hebrew. Thus, teachers should drill this sentence-pattern very thoroughly and should make sure their pupils do not say "want that he should go" or "ask from him..." or "tell to him..."

11. EXPANSION OF FAMILIAR PATTERNS

Patterns first taught in Classes 5 and 6 are reviewed and consolidated in Class 7.

In addition the situations and vocabulary selected will no doubt dictate an expansion of these structures. For example, new PREPOSITIONAL PATTERNS will be learnt, more INCHOATIVE and PRIVATE verbs (see the Primary Syllabus) will be studied, and the INDIRECT OBJECT construction will be more widely applied.
THE SUGGESTED SYLLABUS FOR CLASSES 8 AND 9, GROUPS A AND B

VOCABULARY
A further 600 lexical items (words and phrases) are learnt for active mastery in these two years, thus making a total of 1,500 lexical items since Class 5; a variable number of items intended for passive recognition rather than for active mastery may be added.

Teachers and course-writers are given freedom of choice in selecting these items, but they are required to keep within the bounds of the criteria laid down in the Introduction to this Syllabus and in the Syllabus for the Primary School. Teachers and course-writers should continuously bear in mind the necessity for maximal generalizability of the word or phrase to new situations, for selection according to frequency and applicability to the pupil’s environment in the widest sense of the term, and in general for the essential usefulness of the new item.

The emphasis in this Syllabus is on structures rather than on vocabulary, so that the grammatical patterns selected have a prime influence in deciding the vocabulary selection (e.g. modal verbs, catenatives).

GRAMMAR
After the essential consolidation in Class 7 Grammar studies, Classes 8 and 9 study a large number of major grammatical patterns. They will also study a number of minor patterns which involve using a pattern already familiar in a new secondary meaning (e.g. future reference of the present progressive); such patterns, which do not involve any considerable learning load, are classified as such in the following pages.

No dividing line is drawn between the patterns to be studied in Class 8 and those for Class 9; each class or course will proceed at its own pace. Nor does the listing here imply any strict and detailed sequence of teaching, but only a rough guide (e.g. to teach the Passive before the Perfect).

By the end of Class 9, the pupil will have studied most of the more common grammatical patterns of English; he will very likely have met even more, for passive
THE SUGGESTED SYLLABUS FOR CLASSES 8 AND 9, GROUPS A AND B (cont.)

recognition. But it is important to realize that no attempt has been made to teach all the patterns of the language; considerable grammatical study is left to the Upper Division, where the less frequent structures (e.g. Modals + Perfect Base, Modals + Progressive Base), will be studied for the first time and more detailed treatment given to many of the patterns learnt in Class 9 (e.g. Perfect Aspect, Conditional Clauses).

Teachers should still control and restrict their classroom grammatical usage to that recommended in this Syllabus, even where this may differ from their own speech habits.
Pattern 1: \text{BE-PAST + VERB BASE + -ING (Past Tense Progressive Aspect)},
\begin{itemize}
  \item \text{e.g.} a) I was reading the newspaper, when he telephoned.
  \item b) At 6 p.m. last night I was reading.
  \item c) I was reading all morning.
\end{itemize}

Notice that the auxiliaries "was" and "were" are unstressed and so pronounced /war/ and /wə/, unless used emphatically, or contrastively, in which case the pronunciation is /wɔz/ as in "But I was reading", or in short answers - "I was".

The use of this tense and aspect may involve complex sentences with temporal clauses. The temporal clause may be either Simple or Progressive (Continuous).
\begin{itemize}
  \item \text{e.g.} d) I was reading, when he arrived.
  \item e) I was reading while he was sleeping.
\end{itemize}

The Past Progressive form is commonly used to indicate an interrupted past time activity: the subject was in the middle of an activity when something else occurred.

Some element of contrast is involved (example a), although it need not be expressed - (What was he doing?) "He was reading". On the other hand, it may indicate past time duration (example c), an activity in progress at a given point in the past (example b), or simultaneity of two activities (example e).

The following forms are taught:
\begin{itemize}
  \item \text{Positive - He was reading a newspaper.}
  \item \text{Negative - He was not (wasn't) reading a newspaper.}
  \item \text{Yes/No Interrogative - Was he reading a newspaper?}
  \item \text{Wh - Interrogative - When was he reading a newspaper?}
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Pattern 2: COMPLEX SENTENCES WITH SUBORDINATE TEMPORAL CLAUSES}

Examples: I was reading when he came.
I always read when the evening comes.

Temporal conjunctions to be taught are:
\begin{itemize}
  \item \text{WHEN ...}
  \item \text{WHILE ...}
  \item \text{BEFORE ...}
  \item \text{AFTER ...}
\end{itemize}
CLASSES 8 AND 9

This pattern should be taught with present or past time reference only, in order to avoid having to teach the present tense with future time reference ("When you come tomorrow, we'll go to the cinema"), at this stage.

The use of traditional linguistic terminology, in calling this pattern a "complex sentence with a subordinate clause", does not imply any adherence to a given linguistic school. As stated before in this series of syllabuses, English teachers must make themselves acquainted with the main ideas of modern linguistics, which presents the scientific basis to their descriptions of the language. On the issue of the status of the clause, some linguists claim it as an independent unit, while others see it as an "included sentence" or "downgraded sentence".

Pattern 3: MODAL "COULD"

Before teaching "COULD", teachers should revise "CAN" in its two meanings of ability and permission.

COULD is the past tense form of CAN in both these meanings -

"He could speak French once" = ability

"He could come" (His mother let him) = permission (permitted once but no longer so).

However, the "past permission" meaning is rather rare, and teachers should concentrate on the "past ability" meaning instead.

The "tentative" meanings of the past tense Modals are also to be taught, in which the past tense refers to present time

e.g. a) "I could do it."

b) "Could I open the window?"

The "tentative" form is used for a less positive statement (example a) or as a polite request (example b). The "less positive" meaning may be interpreted as an implied condition ("I could do it, if asked").

The use of COULD in the sequence of tenses (e.g. Reported Speech and Unreal Contemporary (Hypothetical) Conditions) is taught at a later stage in the Intermediate Division.
Pattern 4: MODAL "MUST"

MUST has two meanings - necessity - "You must see him at once."
- assumption - "He left last night; he must be there by now.

Teach both the positive and interrogative forms.

In the meaning of "necessity", HAVE TO is synonymous with MUST. HAVE TO was taught in Class 7. The past and future references of HAVE TO (HAD TO and WILL HAVE TO) are also the past and future analogues of MUST. Like all the other Modals, MUST may have a future reference - "You must see him tomorrow".

The past time analogue of MUST meaning "assumption" (Modal + Perfect base - "You must have seen him") is not taught until the Upper Division.

Notice that the interrogative of MUST normally is not a Yes/No question (SHOULD is more usual here) but implies a preferred negative answer ("Must I do it?" meaning "I hope not.

Pattern 5: MODAL "MUSTN'T"

MUSTN'T is a prohibition, not negated necessity or negated assumption. It is a very common error among learners of English as a second language to assume the relationship CAN: CAN'T:: MUST: MUSTN'T. The negative analogue of MUST is "DON'T HAVE TO", "NEEDN'T" or "DON'T NEED TO".

e.g. "You must do it" = you have to do it.

"You don't have to do it" = there is no necessity.

"You mustn't do it" = you are not allowed to do it.

Pattern 6: VERB "NEED" (MODAL AND FULL VERB)

6.1. The Modal "NEED" is used only in present tense negative and interrogative structures:
- "Need you go?", synonymous with "Must you go?", "Do you have to go?" and "Do you need to go?" (see below).
- "You needn't go", negative of "MUST", synonymous with "You don't have to go", and "You don't need to go". (see below).
6.2. In positive structures, "NEED" is a full verb, usually followed by a Noun Phrase - "You need a doctor."

An infinitive Object (i.e. "NEED" as a catenative) is rather rare - "You need to see him more."

As a full verb, "NEED" can also be used in the negative and interrogative; the use of the carrier DO is of course obligatory -

"You don't need a doctor"

"You don't need to go" (synonymous with the Modal "You need not go")

"Do you need a doctor?"

"Do you need to go?" (synonymous with the Modal "Need you go?")

In the past, "NEED" is always a full verb ("I didn't need to go"). "I needn't have gone" (Modal + perfect base) has a special implication. This form is taught in the Upper Division.

The infinitive Object of the catenative verb "NEED" is more commonly found in the negative and interrogative than in the positive; there it is as frequent as the catenative (or "semi-modal") "DON'T HAVE TO" or the Modal "NEEDN'T".

6.3. Teachers are advised to concentrate on "NEED" as a Modal rather than as a catenative - e.g. "needn't" rather than "don't need to".

Pattern 7: MODAL "WOULD"

This Modal, like all Modals, has a number of meanings - past tense of "WILL" in Reported Speech, contemporary unreal conditions, frequentative past, willingness in the past, polite requests. This last meaning (polite requests) is taught at this stage; later on in the course, the other meanings of WOULD are taught.

Example: "Would you open the door please?"

This use of WOULD rather than WILL indicates a more polite style but is otherwise synonymous with WILL.

Pattern 8: MODALS "MAY" AND "MIGHT"

8.1. "MIGHT" is the past tense of "MAY" in Reported Speech and possibly in unreal contemporary conditions. However, in the usual meaning of "possibility", MIGHT and MAY are synonymous in the usage of probably most speakers, although
CLASSES 8 AND 9

there are some who prefer to see MIGHT as more "tentative" than MAY (see Pattern 3). Teachers are recommended to regard both forms as in free variation (*synonymous*).

Example: "I may/might go there tomorrow", meaning "possibility". Like all the other Modals, it has a present and future reference. Note that MAY/MIGHT meaning "possibility" has no interrogative form, since this is always interpreted as permission (see below).

8.2. "MAY" (rarely "MIGHT") also indicates permission and as such is synonymous with "CAN". Teachers are advised to teach "CAN" for permission and to regard "MAY" as a passive recognition item, representing a more formal style.

 e.g. "You may go now"
      "May I go now?"
      "You may not go now" - perhaps a more tentative prohibition than "you must not go now" but in practice a synonym.

8.3. The past time analogue of this Modal ("You may/might have done" meaning "it is possible that you did") is not taught till the Upper Division of the school.

8.4. Hebrew speakers whose English is affected by mother-tongue interference will tend to say "may he that he knows me"; this mistake should be drilled out and replaced by "he may/might know me".

Pattern 9: MODAL "SHALL"

9.1. As stated in the Syllabus for Classes 5/6, the Modal "WILL" in its future time reference should be used for all persons, in the positive, negative and interrogative.

9.2. For active use "SHALL" is taught as a first person suggestion or polite offer, e.g. "Shall I open the windows?"

9.3. In Classes 8 and 9, pupils should become acquainted with "SHALL" in its other meanings as part of their passive language knowledge - for recognition rather than for active use.
Thus, pupil(s) will meet SHALL in its first person future reference and even perhaps (but not if it may cause confusion) the so-called "Coloured future" of promise or command ("You shall do it"), but are not obliged to use it.

Pattern 10: MODAL "SHOULD"

The meanings of SHOULD to be taught for active use are
1) Advisability or "normal" obligation but not compulsion (i.e. a synonym of OUGHT TO, which is taught at a later stage).
   e.g. "You should brush your teeth every day".
2) Tentative assumption (less positive than MUST) -
   e.g. "He left home last night; he should be there by now".

Pattern 11: CATENATIVE "USED TO"

11.1 Like HAVE TO and GOING TO, USED TO is a catenative verb followed by the base form of the verb; and because it is similar semantically to one of the meanings of the Modal "WOULD" it can be classified as a "Semi-Modal".

11.2 USED TO means a past habitual or repeated practice, no longer followed.
   e.g. "I used to live there" (but now I don't).
   "I used to smoke 20 cigarettes a day".

This verb has a past reference only, and the "suffix" is an integral and inseparable part of the verb: Hebrew-speakers often delete the "d" and give the resulting non-form ("I use to smoke 20 cigarettes a day now") the meaning which the Present Simple most frequently has ("I smoke 20 cigarettes a day now"). This mistake probably results from a confusion with the catenative BE + USED TO + NP ("I am used to cigarettes"; "I am used to smoking"). This pattern is taught at a later stage in the Intermediate Division.

11.3 The negative form of USED TO is subject to controversy resulting from different usages. American and most British speakers say /I didn't just to go/ which may be expressed graphically as:
   "I didn't used to go"
   or "I didn't use to go".
The pedagogical course advised is to avoid the issue and insert the pre-verbal "never" for the negative - "I never used to go". However, pupils should also learn to recognize the other forms.

11.4 The interrogative likewise uses "did", with the same problem of the "suffix"; here no evasion is possible and teachers are advised to teach "did" + "used to" -

"Did you used to know him?"

11.5 The recommended construction for the "tag-question" (Pattern 13) is

"You used to know him, didn't you?"

11.6 The alternative forms of USED TO in the negative and interrogative are:

"I used not to go"

and "Used you to go?"

But these forms are British formal usage and very rare; if introduced at all they should be regarded as passive recognition items only.

Pattern 12: Catenative: BE ABLE TO + BASE VERB

12.1 "BE ABLE TO" is often a synonym for "CAN", with the advantage of having an infinitive form so that a combination with an adjective, a catenative or a modal can occur,

e.g. "I am too busy to be able to help you"

"I am going to be able to help you"

"I may be able to help you".

"BE ABLE TO" is inflected for past and future meanings, although it is important to remember that CAN may be used for future reference.

12.2 "BE ABLE TO" differs in meaning from "CAN" insofar as it may also signify a single achievement resulting from effort or capacity.

e.g. "I was able to pass the examination last year"

"I ran hard and so was able to catch the bus".

In these sentences "COULD" is inappropriate.
Because of the semantic similarity, teachers are recommended to teach "KNOW HOW TO BASE together with "BE ABLE TO". Hebrew speakers tend not to use HOW TO in this context.

**Pattern 13: Tag Questions**

A "tag question" is added to a statement and seeks confirmation of that statement. It is an interrogative sentence with a considerable part then deleted.

- e.g. "He's your friend, isn't he?"
- "He isn't your friend, is he?"

The learning points involved in the pattern are as follows:

1. Where the statement is positive, the tag is negative and vice versa;
2. The tag question is composed of the auxiliary, modal or copula used in the statement and the subject. Where the main verb was in the Simple Aspect positive (i.e. no auxiliary or modal), the carrier DO is used,
   - e.g. "He went, didn't he?"
3. Normally, the subject of the statement is transformed into a personal pronoun.

This is the commonest structure and the one to be taught. This is also a pattern with a positive statement and a positive tag, with a depreciatory meaning: "You're his friend, are you?" (unfortunately for you), "You're coming with, are you?" (not if I can help it). This pattern should not be taught for active mastery, but might possibly become part of the passive grammatical inventory.

Most languages have such "tag questions" or attached forms ("echo questions"), which are usually one form only (but in Hebrew - [nükən], [lo ken], [ly], [ken]) whereas the English tag question may consist of the copula BE in present and past tenses, the auxiliaries DO/BE or HAVE (in the Perfect Aspect; see Pattern 25), or any modal. The "Semi-Modals" HAVE TO and USED TO are catenatives and normally use DO/DID or DID respectively - "He has to go, doesn't he?".

Teaching this pattern provides a useful opportunity for reviewing all verb forms taught so far.
Pattern 14: POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE AGREEMENT

a) S1 + Modal/Auxiliary/Copula + NP
   e.g. "So do I".

b) NP + Modal/Auxiliary/Copula + NOT(N'T) + EITHER
   e.g. "I don't either".

c) NEITHER/NOR + Modal/Auxiliary/Copula + NP
   e.g. "Neither do I".

This pattern agrees with a previous statement. It is the second occasion when inverted word order is taught, the first being the Interrogative.

In the Primary School, the form "NP + Modal etc. + TOO" (e.g. "I do too") was taught; this pattern is synonymous with pattern (a) above - "So do I". The negative agreement patterns (b) and (c) are synonymous.

Pattern 15: PASSIVE VOICE

1. o. NP (+Modal) + BE + VERB past participle + agent NP (by + NP)
   NP + GET + VERB past participle + agent NP

The Present and Past Simple are taught in the Passive Voice at this initial stage; the Progressive Passive (e.g. "The letter is being written") is taught later.

The Passive Modals are also taught - "The letter must be written". The two possibilities of the Passive transformation for the Indirect Object construction are taught.

"I wrote him a letter"

1) He was written a letter (by me)
2) A letter was written him (by me).

Pupils will also learn the GET + past participle catenative pattern, with its passive meaning. GET shows activity, BE shows state - compare "The murderer was caught" with "The murderer got caught", "They were married", "They got married".

Two learning points should be considered here -

a) the agent NP is not always obligatory and is often deleted;

b) pupils will learn the past participle form in this meaningful manner.

They should not be given the verb paradigm to learn by heart, but should learn the past tense form in Class 6 and the past participle separately at this stage, while learning the passive.
CLASSES B AND D

Transitive verbs are all passivizable, so pupils should learn the past participle forms of transitive verbs only - i.e. a word like "gone", "been" or "lain" should not be taught at this stage, but learnt later in connection with the Perfect Aspect.

Pattern 16: TWO-WORD VERBS; a) PREPOSITIONAL VERBS

- e.g. wait for (me)
  look after (him)

16.1 The preposition is normally inseparable from the verb and cannot be replaced (commuted) by another preposition without changing the meaning radically (e.g. compare "wait for" and "wait on").

The whole phrase is one grammatical unit, followed by a Noun Phrase.
However, a manner adverb may be inserted between the verb and the preposition ("wait quietly for me").

16.2 The NP Direct Object following the phrase ("he waited for her") may be seen as the Object of the whole unit or of the preposition only; in either case, the sentence is passivizable ("she was waited for by him; the problem was dealt with; the child was looked after").

16.3 There is a distinction between

a) Prepositional Verbs as above, where the whole unit is an idiom (a semantic unity) and the preposition non-commutable, e.g. "look for".

b) Verb + Preposition, where the two units are separately identifiable and the preposition commutable

- e.g. come in/out/on/off etc.
  run up/down etc.
  get on/off/in/out etc.
Pattern 17: TWO-WORD VERBS: b) VERB + PARTICLE (SEPARABLE VERBS)

The "particle" is also called an "adverb" or "adverbial particle".

- put out
- call up
- bring out (publish)
- write down
- throw away
- switch on

except for "away", particles also serve as prepositions

17.1 Verb + Particle combinations differ from the Prepositional Verb and the Verb + Preposition in the following ways:

a) Verb + Particle combinations are separable, i.e. the Direct Object NP of the verb may be interposed between the verb and the particle ("particle shift") - "I put out the fire" and "I put the fire out" are both equally correct. When the Direct Object is a pronoun, it must be interposed - "I put it out" and never "I put out it".

In Pattern 16, the verb and preposition are inseparable

- e.g. "wait for me" and never "wait me for".

b) The particle is always stressed, the preposition is not stressed in Prepositional Verbs but may be stressed in the Verb + Preposition combination for emphatic constructive purposes.

- e.g. Verb + particle: "Switch the light 'on!" and "He switched 'on the light".
- Prepositional Verb: "He 'waited for 'me".
- Verb + Proposition: "'Get on the 'bus" or "'Get 'on the 'bus".

17.2 Just as there is a distinction between a Prepositional Verb and a Verb + Preposition, there is likewise a distinction in "Separable Verbs" between

a) "Phrasal Verbs" (idioms, with non-commutable particles)
    - e.g. "run up a bill" (compare with "run up a hill", Verb + Prepositional).

b) Verb + Adverb (non-idiomatic) e.g. "throw it away".

17.3 Special points of difficulty for Hebrew speakers are:

a) the non-correspondence of the parallel Hebrew forms - where Hebrew has a
CLASSES 8 AND 9

(a) Verb + attached proposition, e.g. [звеъ 1а], English has a one-word verb, ("help") and vice versa, e.g. "look for" contrasted with [ץאפש].
(b) Some Verb + attached preposition structures in Hebrew are passivizable ([יָם zוֹר 1א]) others are not ([ץאָאֶק 1א]). In both these cases, the equivalent English construction is passivizable.

17.4 Examples of Patterns 10 and 17 will have occurred as individual items in earlier classes; in the Intermediate Division these two-word verbs should be classified according to their Patterns and the Particle Shift in Pattern 17 should be adequately drilled.

17.5 Teachers are advised not to introduce three-word combinations into the vocabulary at this stage, i.e. Verb + Particle + Preposition ("they won't put up with it"), because of the probable confusion entailed.

Pattern 18: CATENATIVE COMPLEMENTATION: VERB + BASE-ING

18.1 Examples of the -ING form ("GERUND" or "VERBAL NOUN" in traditional grammar) are:

He stopped talking.
He enjoyed talking.
He began talking.

Where catenatives followed by -ING occur in the vocabulary of the class, as they are sure to do, teachers should drill the complete pattern. A full list of such verbs is to be found in any reputable grammar book, including the distinction between

"He stops talking" (silence) and
"He stops to talk" (noise), which is not of course an example of Catenaive Complementation but is a clause of purpose equivalent to "he stops in order to talk" (Pattern 22).

Some verbs may be followed by the "TO + BASE" form or the -ING form, synonymously.

e.g. He began eating.
He began to eat.
He began to eat.
The Pattern \textit{PREPOSITION + BASE-ING} is also taught.
Examples are:

"He stops me from going."
"He went without saying good-bye".

\textbf{Pattern 19: CATENATIVE COMPLEMENTATION: VERB + NP + BASE}

\textit{e.g.,} "He makes him go"
"He helped him rise".

This pattern should be contrasted with the \textit{VERB + NP + INFINITIVE (TO + BASE)} taught in Class 7.

Hebrew-speakers will tend to insert "to" before the base, but they should be used to the base form occurring alone from their work with Modals.

\textbf{Pattern 20: CATENATIVE COMPLEMENTATION: VERB + NP + NP}

\textit{or} \textit{Verb + Direct Object + Object Complement}

\textit{e.g.,} "They made him happy/kind/tired".

This form is the last basic sentence pattern in English, the others (already met) being:

1) Subject + Intransitive Verb
2) Subject + Linking Verb + Subject Complement
3) Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object
4) Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object.

This "Object-Complement" construction is viewed by some modern grammarians as an underlying sentence (as in Patterns 18 and 19).

\textbf{Pattern 21: COMPLEX SENTENCES OF CAUSE AND CONCESSION}

\textbf{Cause:} "I did it \textit{because} I had to".
\textbf{Concession:} "I did it \textit{although} I didn't have to".

This pattern should provide no difficulty for the Hebrew speaker.

\textbf{Pattern 22: COMPLEX SENTENCES OF PURPOSE AND RESULT}

\textbf{Purpose} - "I did it (in order) to show you."

The to-infinitive is the most common way of expressing purpose; sometimes a finite clause is used - "I did it \textit{in order that (so that) I could show you."
CLASSES 8 AND 9

Result - "I was so quick that he didn't see me."
"I was quick, so he didn't see me."

As these structures parallel the Hebrew equivalent fairly closely, no special difficulties are expected.

Pattern 23: PASSIVE VOICE, PROGRESSIVE ASPECT

NP + AUX "BE" + BE-ING + VERB-PAST PARTICIPLE (+NP-AGENT)

Example: "The letter is being written by the secretary."

The Passive Voice, Simple Aspect, was studied earlier in the Intermediate Division: the Progressive Aspect is now studied also:
- Present Tense "is/are being written"
- Past Tense "was/were being written"

The interrogative and negative forms are taught at the same time, but teachers are advised not to teach the passive progressive modals ("the letter will be being written"), so as not to overburden the pupil with rare structures.

Pattern 24: PRESENT PROGRESSIVE WITH FUTURE REFERENCE
e.g. "I am travelling to Tel Aviv tomorrow".

This rather minor pattern extends the familiar pattern of the Present Progressive to a new application; since the Present Tense in Hebrew serves a similar function of indicating the near future, pupils are not expected to have much difficulty here.

The use of the Present Simple to indicate a planned determined near future ("The ship sails at noon tomorrow") is not recommended as a learning pattern for the Intermediate Division. Note that "I am going to Tel Aviv tomorrow" is an example of this Pattern; it is not the GOING TO future, which is followed by the infinitive ("I am going to travel to Tel Aviv tomorrow").

Pattern 25: PERFECT ASPECT, PRESENT AND PAST

NP + AUX "HAVE + VERB-PAST PARTICIPLE (+NP)

Example: I have written the letter.

25.1 The Present Perfect Simple and Progressive and the Past Perfect Simple are introduced in the Intermediate Division, but more detailed study of these structures is left to Class 10. Teachers are reminded that the Present Perfect is more
CLASSES 8 AND 9

commonly found in British than in American English, and sentences like "He already
did it" or "He just went" are accepted informal usage with many American native
speakers. Native teachers in whose idiolect the Present Perfect is less frequent
should adapt themselves to the general use of the Present Perfect Simple, but at
this stage this form should be used more for passive recognition than for active
mastery. The use of the Past Simple tense (where the Perfect is used in the pre-
ferred dialect) by pupils in Classes 8-9 should not be treated as a serious error.

25.2 The central meaning of the Present Perfect is the CURRENT RELEVANCE
of a past event. If a point of definite past time is stated or implied (e.g. "Yesterday"),
the Past Simple tense must be used.
Thus, 1) "He has lived in England" (and so can inform us of the situation)
but 2) "He lived in England last year"
or 3) "He has gone to America" (and is still there)
but 4) "He went there yesterday".

25.3 Teachers should also drill the use of the prepositions FOR and SINCE with
the Present Perfect:
FOR indicates a period, SINCE mentions the point of time at which an ongoing ac-
tivity began -
Examples - 5) I have lived here for many years (and am still here)
6) I have lived here since 1955   ( " " " " )

25.4 Thus the "Current Relevance" may indicate that the activity or state is
still going on at the moment (examples 5, 6) or merely be relevant to the present
(example 1). This central meaning is the one to be taught.

25.5 Present Perfect Progressive (Continuous)
It is not strictly true, as many grammars claim, that the Present Perfect means an
activity beginning in the past and continuing into the present. Verbs of sojourn
("live") are used in this way (see examples 1, 5, 6 above) but in general the PRESENT
PERFECT PROGRESSIVE is used for this meaning -
e.g. 7) "I have been teaching English since before you were born".
CLASSES 8 AND 9

Hebrew speakers will tend to use the Present Progressive instead of the Present Perfect Progressive. This is a very important structure in English and should be thoroughly drilled and contrasted with the Present Progressive and the Present Perfect Simple.

26.6 Past Perfect Simple

This pattern is used to indicate the relevance at some point of past time of a previously occurring event.

* e.g. "In 1969 he had been married for 10 years."

In complex sentences, with subordinate temporal clauses, it is just as correct to use the Past Simple in cases where the Past Perfect might have been called for.

A conjunction of time ("before, after") is a sufficient indication of the order of events, as is any temporal reference: in other words, any structure which is contextually clear and unambiguous.

* e.g. "He came in before I left" (instead of "had come")

"He left after I did" (instead of "had done")

"I lost the pen which my wife gave me 5 years earlier" (instead of "had given")

The Past Perfect Simple is also used in the Sequence of Tenses sometimes required by Reported Speech (see Pattern 26).

26.7 The interrogative and negative forms as well as the contracted forms ("I've gone", "I'd gone", "I've been going") are also taught. The passive of the Present Perfect Simple and of the Past Perfect Simple are also taught, but not the passive of the Present Perfect Progressive ("He has been teaching ... "), which is clearly very rare as well as being structurally very complicated. The Past Perfect Progressive ("He had been teaching") will likewise not be taught, although it might be presented incidentally in connection with Reported Speech.

Pattern 26: COMPLEX SENTENCES, WITH NOUN-OBJECT CLAUSES

NP + VERB + NOUN CLAUSE

Examples: 1) I know that he is here. (TH - clause)

2) I said that he is here (TH - clause)

3) I asked if/whether he is here (WH - clause derived from a "YES-NO" interrogative).
20.1 Note that in examples 4 and 5 the clauses are linked by a pronoun which is itself the subject of the noun-object clause; example 6 links the clauses by a pronoun which is the object of the following clause, while examples 1-3 are linked by conjunctions.

20.2 REPORTED SPEECH patterns are subsumed within this overall pattern. Teachers are advised that SEQUENCE OF TENSES (i.e. if the verb of report is in the past, the reported clause is transformed to the past-present to past, past or present perfect to past perfect) is not obligatory in informal usage, if the reported clause is still valid at the moment of report.

Examples: 1) He said that he is my friend - informal usage, transforming the Direct Speech "I am your friend".

2) He said that he was my friend - formal usage, transforming the Direct Speech "I am your friend" or informal usage, transforming the Direct Speech "I was your friend".

When there is a string of past tense direct speech sentences to be transformed, even formal usage tends to transform the first reported clause into the past perfect but to leave the following verbs in the past simple; e.g. "He said that he had done it before I came".

Teachers of a foreign language should not be over-permissive in usage, and the borderline between informal usage and substandard forms is not always clear; hence, teachers are advised to be conservative-descriptive and not over-permissive on the one hand or prescriptive on the other. With regard to the past tense transformation of Reported Speech, the recommended pedagogical procedure is to regard the transformation as optional for speech but obligatory for writing.

Reported Speech statements ("He said that he had done it"), orders ("He told me to..."
CLASSES 8 AND 9

do it" requests ("He asked me to do it"), and questions ("He asked how he could
do it") are all taught. Reported Speech orders and requests were originally met
in Class 7 (Pattern 10) as part of a Cntenative Verb + NP + I n f i n i t i v e pattern.
Statements are transformed into TH - clauses, questions into WH - clauses - why,
when. where. what. who (m). how, whether (alternatively, "if"). Reported speech
questions re-transform the word order into the regular pattern:
- He asked "Why will you do that?"
- He asked why I would do that.
The carrier DO is not used in Reported Questions - He asked "why do you speak
like that?" ➔ He asked why I spoke like that.
N.B. "THAT" is not obligatory - "He said (that) he's my friend".

Pattern 27: DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

27.1 Only "defining" ("restrictive") clauses are taught at this stage - clauses
that are a semantically-inseparable part of the sentence and modify the preceding
noun rather than the sentence as a whole.
Example: 1) The man that came in is my brother.
2) The man(thaOyou saw is my brother.

27.2 For pedagogical reasons (especially from the point of view of Hebrew
mother-tongue influence) as well as for considerations of frequency, the relative
pronoun THAT is to be preferred for human, other animate and non-animate re-
forents. WHO and WHICH are also permissible of course, in their distinctive
environments, but THAT is just as common and has the advantage of having the
same distribution as the other two together. THAT may not be used if the pre-
position precedes the relative, e.g. "The man that I was going to" or "The man
who I was going to" but "The man to whom I was going" (see Pattern 39 for WHOM).
In general, end-prepositions are to be preferred, at least In speech.

27.3 Both subject (example 1) and object (example 2) clauses are taught; for
object clauses, the ZERO relative ("contact clause") is also to be taught - "the
man you saw is my brother". Zero is also used with prepositional phrases - "the
man I was going to ..."
CLASSES 8 AND 9

27.4 The possessive relative WHOSE is taught for animates and non-animates alike - "The books whose covers are torn will be replaced".

27.5 Note that the defining clause is not separated from the rest of the sentence by commas and there is no pause in speech. An example of a non-defining clause is "my uncle, who lives in Canada, is coming tomorrow" - meaning normally that I have one uncle only. Such a sentence is paraphrasable as "My uncle lives in Canada and is coming tomorrow". The corresponding defining relative clause, "My uncle who lives in Canada is coming tomorrow" indicates which of my many uncles is coming.

Pattern 28: CONDITIONAL CLAUSES

28.1 The complex of conditional clauses should be spread over a number of years of study; at this stage only the "Open" and the "Unreal Contemporary" (Hypothetical) conditions in regular word order are taught.

i.e. 1) If he learns, he will know.
   2) If he learnt, he would know.

The conditional clause may precede or follow the main clause.

Other tense combinations of the "Open" conditions may also be taught, e.g.
"If he went to the football match, then he saw the new player." These do not present any learning problem.

Example 1 does present a learning problem since the conjunction IF is followed by the present tense even though it has a future reference. Here again, careful grading and selection are necessary, because WILL may follow IF, with the meaning of "volition-request" ("if you will do this, I will do that") or insistence (with emphatic stress on the first Modal).

28.2 IF in "open condition" is translated by [im] in Hebrew; IF in "unreal (hypothetical) contemporary" conditions (unfulfilled and improbable to be fulfilled) is often translated by [lu] in Hebrew.

28.3 The rule for Example 2 - "unreal contemporary" (hypothetical) conditions is:
   a) past tense in the conditional clause
   b) past modal in the main clause (WOULD, COULD, MIGHT).
CLASSES 8 AND 9

28.4 The "unreal past" condition, with the past perfect in the conditional clause and the past modal + perfect base in the main clause, is not taught at this stage. Nor are cases of deletion of the conjunction and inverted word order - "Were he here, we would do that."

28.5 The use of WERE rather than WAS in the "unreal contemporary (hypothetical) condition is optional; it is just as correct to say "If I was in his place..." as "If I were ...". The WERE form (subjunctive) is the more formal and to be preferred in written work. Note that the phrase "If I were you" is a fixed collocation in informal usage also.

28.6 "UNLESS" can be taught as an optional alternative to 'IF ... NOT".

28.7 WISH. The optative WISH is taught together with the Unreal Contemporary (hypothetical) condition. The WISH + THAT clause meaning an unfulfilled hope takes the past tense in the THAT clause.

E.g. I wish he was/were here now.

I wish he would come now.

The past optative I WISHED + THAT CLAUSE containing the past perfect tense (I wished he would have come) is not taught at this stage.

Pattern 29: TIME CLAUSES WITH FUTURE REFERENCE

Time clauses with present and past reference have already been taught (Pattern 2); future reference clauses are now taught also. As with the conditional conjunction IF (as used in "Open" conditions), the present tense is used after temporal conjunctions to indicate future time,

E.g. "When

Before you see him tomorrow, you will be surprised."

After

Since the open-condition IF fits this Pattern, teachers might consider teaching "IF" + present tense as part of this Pattern, and regard the Unreal Contemporary condition as a Pattern entirely separate.
CLASSES 8 AND 9

Pattern 30: MODAL "ought (TO)"
This modal means the same as SHOULD in its "moral" obligation, "advisability" and "tentative deduction" references.
This modal is structurally peculiar in being followed by the function-word "TO" - "I ought to go" "I ought not to go" "Ought I to go?"

Some grammars regard ought as the modal to be followed by the to-infinitive; others see "ought to" as the unit, followed by the base. Note the optional deletion of "TO" in the tag question and short answer "... oughtn't I (to)? Yes, you ought (to)."
The past time analogue of ought to (Modal + perfect base) is not taught in the Intermediate Division.

Pattern 31: MODAL PHRASE "WILL RATHER"
Some argument obtains whether the phrase is WILL RATHER or HAD RATHER; the general tendency is to regard it as formulated above. In speech, the contracted form is used - I'd rather go; in tag-questions (Pattern 13) WILL alone is found - "You'd rather do that, wouldn't you?"

Note that the negator follows the adverb "I'd rather not." WILL RATHER means "prefer"; if a conjunction or preposition is required THAN is used - "I'd rather walk than ride; I'd rather see him than her."

Pattern 32: MODAL PHRASE "HAD BETTER"
As in Pattern 31, the contracted form is most commonly used - "You'd better go."
The meaning of the phrase is "advice", including warning.
The tag-question form is as follows - "You'd better go, hadn't you?"

Pattern 33: "SEMI-MODAL" PHRASE "BE ABOUT (TO)"
Be about (to) is a catenative verb (in this case sometimes called a SEMI-MODAL because of its semantic similarity to the modal WILL), meaning "very near future". It is followed by the infinitive.
E.g. "The driver is about to enter his car."
The phrase may be analyzed as "BE ABOUT TO" followed by the base form or "BE ABOUT" followed by the to-infinitive (see Pattern 30 – OUGHT TO).

Pattern 34: "DARE" (Modal and Full Verb)
"DARE" behaves like NEED. As a modal, it is found only in present tense negative and interrogative structures.

"I daren't go there."
"Dare you come?"

In positive structures, DARE is usually a full verb –
"He dares to say that."

As a full verb, it can also be used in the interrogative and negatives:
"I don't dare to go there."
"Did you dare to come?"

Pattern 35: NP + "HAVE" (or "GET") + NP + Verb–PAST PARTICIPLE

Example: He has/gets his hair out.
He had/got his car mended.

"HAVE" is a catenative full verb in this meaning, forming its negative and interrogative with DO.

e.g. "Does he have his house painted?"

In this construction, the NP subject does not undertake the activity himself but "activates" someone else (stated or implied) to do it.

Pattern 36: CATENATIVE "BE USED TO" + GERUND. NP

Example: I am used to cigarettes.
I am used to smoking.

This "verb of habituation" is frequently confused with USED TO + BASE meaning "frequent past" ("I used to smoke"). taught earlier (Pattern 11). BE USED TO occurs in present and past and co-occurs with Modals.

If teachers wish, they may also teach the "GET USED TO" pattern, which differs from BE USED TO as "activity" versus "state".

e.g. I got used to him in the end. I am getting used to him gradually.
I am used to him now.
CLASSES S AND 0

Pattern 37: "HAVE GOT"; "HAVE GOT TO"

"I'VE GOT", "YOU'VE GOT" etc. mean "have" in its possessive meaning. They are present in meaning, perfect in structure, but very rarely found in the full form ("I have got a book") unless used in emphatic affirmation. The negative and interrogative do use the full form, as does the tag-question.

e.g. "Have you got a book?"
   "I haven't got a book."
   "You haven't got a book, have you?"

Both American and British English use this very common form, especially favoured in informal speech.

Note that GOT is the past participle in British English for all meanings of GET, but American English distinguishes between the one-time occurrence of participle GOT in this construction only (I'VE GOT) and the use of "GOTTEN" meaning "acquired".

Similarly, HAVE GOT TO is an alternative to HAVE TO, e.g. "I've got to go now": once again, the reference is to the pre.

Pupils should be encouraged to use HAVE GOT and HAVE GOT TO in conversational English.

Pattern 38: "HAVE" as an ANOMALOUS FINITE

i.e. I have not any books; Have you a book?

The formal British usage of HAVE as an anomalous finite (i.e. irregular structure for a full verb) has been delayed until late in the Intermediate Division: hitherto pupils have used the far more common DO + HAVE for interrogative and negative, as well as the HAVE GOT form. Speakers of American English never use the anomalous form: all English speakers use the DO + HAVE form for the non-possessive meanings of the verb (e.g. "did you have breakfast early today?" and never "had you breakfast"); and even in the possessive meaning, British users distinguish between the DO form for permanent or habitual possession, and the anomalous for temporary possession or possession on a particular occasion.

A common mistake with foreign learners of English is to over-generalize the anomalous finite use of HAVE; since the DO form is correct in every case, whereas
CLASSES 8 AND 9

the anomalous finite is an alternative used for temporary possession only, teachers are advised to see the Anomalous Finite form as an item mainly for passive recognition.

Pattern 39: WHOM

Hitherto, WHO has been taught as the accepted form for both subject and object pronouns, e.g. 1. Who saw me? 2. Who did you see? 3. Who are you waiting for? 4. I know who you are looking for. 5. This is the man who saw me. 6. This is the man who I saw. 7. This is the man who I'm waiting for.

In a more formal style, WHOM is the object pronoun parallel to WHO. Thus sentences 2 and 6 may read "WHOM did you see?" and "This is the man WHOM I saw". However, WHOM does not usually collocate with an end-preposition; thus, sentences 3, 4 and 7 should read as in the examples above or as the following:

3. For whom are you waiting?
4. I know for whom you are waiting.
7. This is the man for whom I am waiting.

It must be emphasized again that WHOM is restricted to a formal style. WHO (and the end-preposition where applicable) are the recommended forms to be used in everyday speech and writing.

Pattern 40: NP + VERB + SO/NOT

Examples: I hope so. I hope not.

SO/NOT are sentence (or clause) substitutes, representing underlying sentences. Some other verbs taking SO/NOT are 'believe, think, suppose, be afraid'. Notice the difference in meaning between "I don't think" and "I think not". "I don't think so" is synonymous with "I think not" and may be used interchangeably. Likewise, note the idiomatic meaning of "I'm afraid so" as "I'm sorry".
Pattern 41: SOME DERIVATIONAL AFFIXATION PATTERNS

All major inflectional patterns have already been taught. The most important productive affixes (syntactic and lexical) are now taught inductively, via other patterns. Uncontextualized "word-family" exercises are not advised and special attention should be paid to affixes which do not merely change the word-class but also change the meaning of the base somewhat. Classes 8-9 are introduced to these patterns; Class 10 will go into the subject in more detail.

Affixes are bound morphemes: inflectional affixes (e.g. noun plurals and genitive) give a further grammatical specification to the base but do not change the word-class; derivational affixes (e.g. happy → happily) change the word-class (in this example, adjective to adverb) or introduce semantic differentiation within the same word class (e.g. true → untrue). Most derivational suffixes are syntactic (change the word-class) and most prefixes are semantic (e.g. ex-king). Following are some common affixes which should be taught, inductively. In many cases, the base morpheme undergoes allomorphic variation when the suffix is attached, e.g. base "nation"/neiʃn/, base + affix "national" /neiʃnʃnl/.

1) Noun-forming suffixes:
   From the Verb - /a ns/ ... ance
      /ment/ ... ment
      /a/ ... er
      /ʃn/ ... tion
   From the Adjective - /lty/ ... ity
      /nis/ ... ness
   From other Nouns - /ʃip/ ... ship

   e.g. appearance
   e.g. government
   e.g. worker
   e.g. complication
   e.g. nationality
   e.g. happiness
   e.g. friendship

2) Verb-forming suffixes:
   From the Noun - /ais/ ... hce
      /ifı / ... ify
      /a n/ ... en

   e.g. organize
   e.g. beautify
   e.g. lighten
36

3) Adjective-forming suffixes:

From the Adjective - /aiz/ ... ize e.g. modernize
    /ifai/ ... ify e.g. simplify
    /en/ ... en e.g. shorten

From the Bound Base (i.e. the base is not a free morpheme and so does not
    belong to a word-class)
    /elt/ ... ate e.g. operate
    /aiz/ ... ize e.g. recognize

From Nouns - /l/ ... y e.g. funny
    /al/ ... al e.g. natural
    /ful/ ... ful e.g. careful
    /lis/ ... less e.g. careless
    /an/ ... en e.g. wooden

From Verbs - /abl/ ... able e.g. lovable
    /iv/ ... ive e.g. active

From Bound-Stem - /l/ ... y e.g. holy
    /al/ ... al e.g. local
    /obl/ ... able e.g. portable
    /ik/ ... ic e.g. comb

Noun-modifiers ending with "-ed" are regarded by linguists variously as adjectives
formed from verbs or as past participles modifying nouns.

4) Adverb-forming suffixes:

From adjectives - ... ly e.g. happily

From nouns - ... wards e.g. Northwards

5) Some lexical prefixes to be taught are:

anti - (anti-war)
ex - (ex-king)
pre - (pre-war)
post - (post-war)
re - (rewrite)
sub - (subcommittee)
negatives
non-, un-, im-, in-
**CLASSES 8 AND 9**

These are all productive prefixes added to free morphemes. Considerable controversy exists over their application to bound bases (e.g. pretend, reply), which are viewed by many modern linguists as one-morpheme units and not as complex words. In any case, the meaning of the "prefixes" is not immediately clear to the non-Latin or non-Greek speaker. Teachers are therefore advised to restrict themselves to productive morphemes of contemporary English and not to deal systematically with etymological investigations including etymological "word-families" where both supposed "prefix" and "base" are non-productive and whose common meaning is obscure, e.g. "insist, resist, consist, persist..." The occasional diachronic explanation may however be illuminating, as long as the teacher and class are aware of the processes of semantic change applying.

**Pattern 42: SUMMARY OF THE FUNCTIONAL PARTS OF THE SENTENCE AND OF NP WORD ORDER**

Teachers should revise the Sentence-Patterns taught so far and deal inductively with the functional parts of the sentence - Subject, Verb (Predicator), Modifiers, Function Words, Direct Object, Indirect Object, Subject Complement, Object Complement. Likewise, sentence-patterns in substitution tables etc. should stress the word order in the sentence, especially the position of noun-modifiers.

Below is the generally agreed view as to the order of these modifiers but a speaker wishing to emphasize a given word may change its normal word order.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-Determiner</th>
<th>Determiner</th>
<th>Numerals</th>
<th>Descriptive</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun-genitive</td>
<td>Quantifiers</td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>Possessive Article</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>the (my) old friend's</td>
<td>many</td>
<td>nice</td>
<td>large</td>
<td>old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>two</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colour</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Noun-Adjuncts</th>
<th>Head-Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>blue</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>wooden</td>
<td>garden</td>
<td>chairs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These notes are for the teacher's information only; functional parts of a sentence and the word order of the NP are taught inductively through the various sentence patterns.
Pattern 43: EXPANSION OF PREVIOUS PATTERNS
All patterns previously learnt will be reviewed and expanded, e.g. manner adverbs, prepositional patterns, catenatives.
Part 3: READING PROGRAMME FOR "ADVANCED LEVEL" CLASSES

The Drama

1. Tennessee Williams: "The Glass Menagerie".
2. Bernard Shaw: "Arms and the Man".
3. Samuel Becket: "End-Game".
4. Thornton Wilder: "Our Town".
5. Arthur Miller: "All My Sons".

The Short Story

6. Stephen Crane: "The Open Boat".
7. James Joyce: "Eveline".
9. T. Beachcroft: "The Erne from the Coast".
10. Philip Roth: "Ell the Fanatic".
11. Dorothy Parker: "The Standard of Living".
12. B. Malamud: "A Summer's Reading".
13. F. O'Connor: "Everything that Rises Must Converge".

Non-Fiction Prose

15. R. Carson: "The Shape of Ancient Seas".
16. S. Chase: "Our Shrinking Living Space".
17. E. Friedenberg: "The Image of the Adolescent Minority".
18. W. Golding: "Thinking as a Hobby".
19. J.B.S. Haldane: "On Being the Right Size".
20. E.A. Levenston: "Comparing Vocabulary".
21. M. Mead: "One Vote for the Age of Anxiety".
22. A. Montagu: "The Natural Superiority of Women".
23. J. Steinbeck: "How to Tell Good Guys from Bad Guys".
24. J. Thurber: "My Secret World of Idiom".
25. J. Thurber: "Courtship through the Ages".
26. E. Vargas: "The Jet Age Malady".
27. V. Woolf: "The Death of the Moth".

Poetry

29. W.H. Auden: "The Unknown Citizen".
30. R. Browning: "My Last Duchess".
31. e.e. cummings: "pit! this busy monster".
32. e.e. cummings: "the hours rise up".
33. E. Dickinson: "My Life Closed Twice".
34. E. Dickinson: "The Soul Selects its Own Society".
35. E. Dickinson: "To Make a Prairie".
36. E. Dickinson: "Wild Nights".
38. K. Fearing: "American Rhapsody (4)".
39. R. Frost: "Departmental".
40. R. Frost: "Mending Wall".
41. R. Frost: "Stopping by Woods". (see also 37 above).
42. T. Hardy: "In a Time of Breaking of Nations".
43. E.A. Housman: "To an Athlete Dying Young".
44. D.H. Lawrence: "Snake".
45. P. Logan: "Picnic".
46. W. Shakespeare: "Let Me Not to the Marriage..."
The above complete list will be divided into three "cycles" (see Part I, Section 2.2), with some texts being replaced with the advent of each new "cycle". The texts studied in each cycle are as follows:

I. One drama (one of three offered);
   II. Five short stories;
   III. Five non-fiction prose texts;
   IV. Ten poems.

A class choosing not to take poetry will read instead one more short story and one more essay, as specified in each "cycle".

CYCLE ONE

Drama

T. Williams: "The Glass Menagerie".
   or G.B. Shaw: "Arms and the Man".
   or A. Miller: "All My Sons".
The Short Story

S. Crane: "The Open Boat".
J. Joyce: "Eveline".
D.H. Lawrence: "The Blind Man".
P. Roth: "Ell the Fanatic" or D. Parker: "The Standard of Living".
F. O'Connor: "Everything that Rises Must Converge".

Non-Fiction Prose

J. Baldwin: "My Dungeon Shook".
R. Carson: "The Shape of Ancient Seas".
E.A. Levenston: "Comparing Vocabulary" or J. Thurber: "My Secret World of Idiom".
M. Mead: "One Vote for the Age of Anxiety".
J. Thurber: "Courtship through the Ages".

Poetry

W.H. Auden: "Musee des Beaux-Arts".
E. Dickinson: "Wild Nights".
R. Frost: "Mending Wall".
R. Frost: "Stopping by Woods".
T. Hardy: "In a Time of Breaking of Nations".
E.A. Housman: "To an Athlete Dying Young".
P. Logan: "Picnic".
W. Shakespeare: "Shall I Compare Thee...".
D. Thomas: "The Force that through the Green Fuse".
W. Whitman: "I Saw in Louisiana a Live Oak Growing".

Classes will read B. Malamud "A Summer's Reading" and E. Vargas "The Jet Age Malady" if they choose not to take poetry.

CYCLE TWO

Drama

S. Becket: "End-Game".
or T. Wilder: "Our Town".
or A. Miller: "All My Sons".

The Short Story

D.H. Lawrence: "The Blind Man".
T. Beachcroft: "The Erne from the Coast".
P. Roth: "Eli the Fanatic" or F. O'Connor: "Everything that Rises Must Converge".
B. Malamud: "A Summer's Reading".
D. Parker: "The Standard of Living".

Non-Fiction Prose

E. Friedenberg: "The Image of the Adolescent Minority".
J.S. Haldane: "On Being the Right Size".
A. Montagu: "The Natural Superiority of Women".
J. Steinbeck: "How to Tell Good Guys from Bad Guys".
J. Thurber: "My Secret World of Idiom" or E.A. Levenston: "Comparing Vocabulary".

**Poetry**

W.H. Auden: "The Unknown Citizen".
R. Browning: "My Last Duchess".
E.e. cummings: "pity this busy monster".
E. Dickinson: "The Soul Selects its Own Society".
T.S. Eliot: "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock" or
R. Frost: "The Death of the Hired Man".
D. Thomas: "The Hand that Signed the Paper".
W.B. Yeats: "Speech After Long Silence".

Classes will read J. Joyce "Eveline" and V. Woolf "The Death of the Moth" if they choose not to take poetry.

**CYCLE THREE**

**Drama**

T. Williams: "The Glass Menagerie".
or G.B. Shaw: "Arms and the Man".
or T. Wilder: "Our Town".
The Short Story

J. Joyce: "Eveline".
T. Beachcroft: "The Erne from the Coast".
P. Roth: "Ell the Fanatic" or D.H. Lawrence: "The Blind Man".
B. Malamud: "A Summer's Reading".
F. O'Connor: "Everything that Rises Must Converge".

Non-Fiction Prose

S. Chase: "Our Shrinking Living Space".
W. Golding: "Thinking as a Hobby".
E.A. Levenston: "Comparing Vocabulary" or J. Thurber: "My Secret World of Idiom".
E. Vargas: "The Jet Age Malady".
V. Woolf: The Death of the Moth".

Poetry

e.e. cummings: "the hours rise up".
E. Dickinson: "My Life Closed Twice".
E. Dickinson: "To Make a Prairie".
K. Fearing: "American Rhapsody (4)".
R. Frost: "Departmental".
D.H. Lawrence: "Snake".
W. Shakespeare: "Let Me Not to the Marriage...".
S. Spender: "The Express".
W. Wordsworth: "A Slumber Did My Spirit Seal".
W. B. Yeats: "That Deep-Sworn Vow".

Classes will read S. Crane: "The Open Boat" and J. Steinbeck: "How to Tell Good Guys from Bad Guys" if they choose not to take poetry.

NOTE - Schools will be informed by the English Inspectorate of the advent of each new "cycle".

Part 4: OTHER PROGRAMMES

4.1. Ordinary Level Matriculation

4.1.1. Language Programme: as for the Advanced Level (see Parts 1 and 2 of this Syllabus).

4.1.2. Reading Programme: Intensive Reading -

One drama, two short stories, and two non-fiction prose items, in specified cycles (Section 4.1.3.).

Extensive Reading: as for the Advanced Level (see Part 1 of this Syllabus, section 2.2), but probably not as many items. Teachers are advised to include other items in the "Advanced" reading programme as part of the Extensive reading programme.
4.1.3.
ORDINARY LEVEL INTENSIVE READING PROGRAMME

CYCLE ONE

Drama

T. Williams: "The Glass Menagerie"
or G.B. Shaw: "Arms and the Man".
or A. Miller: "All My Sons".

The Short Story

J. Joyce: "Eveline".
D. Parker: "The Standard of Living".
or P. Roth: "Ell the Fanatic".

Non-Fiction Prose

J. Baldwin: "My Dungeon Shook".
E.A. Levenston: "Comparing Vocabulary"
or J. Thurber: "My Secret World of Idiom".

CYCLE TWO

Drama

S. Becket: "End-Game".
or T. Wilder: "Our Town".

or A. Miller: "All My Sons".

The Short Story

T. Beachcroft: "The Erne from the Coast"

or P. Roth: "Eli the Fanatic".

B. Malamud: "A Summer's Reading"

or D. Parker: "The Standard of Living".

Non-Fiction Prose

E.A. Levenston: "Comparing Vocabulary"

or J. Thurber: "My Secret World of Idiom".

J. Steinbock: "How to Tell Good Guys from Bad Guys".

CYCLE THREE

Drama

T. Williams: "The Glass Menagerie"

or G.B. Shaw: "Arms and the Man"

or T. Wilder: "Our Town".

The Short Story

T. Beachcroft: "The Erne from the Coast"

or J. Joyce: "Eveline".
P. Roth: "Ell the Fanatic"

or B. Malamud: "A Summer's Reading".

Non-Fiction Prose

E.A. Levenston: "Comparing Vocabulary" or J. Thurber:
"My Secret World of Idiom".

E. Vargas: "The Jet Age Malady".

4.2. Government School-Leaving Certificate ("Gemer" examination)

4.2.1. Language Programme: The Syllabus for the Intermediate Division is to be regarded as the programme for the active grammatical and lexical repertoire; the entire Language Programme for the Upper Division (Part 2 of this Syllabus) is to be regarded as the programme for the passive recognition repertoire (see Part 1, section 1.1.2. of this Syllabus).

4.2.2. Reading Programme: Recommended texts will be Simplified Readers of a 1800 - 2000 word level, with the choice and number of texts selected at the discretion of the teacher, in consultation with the English Inspectorate. If in the opinion of the teacher and the English Inspector the class is able to read unsimplified material, selections from the "Ordinary Level" matriculation programme may be read instead.
4.3. VOCATIONAL AND AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS AND TRENDS

4.3.1. For students preparing for "Ordinary Level" matriculation, technical reading material will be studied in addition to an "Intensive Reading" programme more limited than that studied under Part 4, Section 1. For full details, see Part 5, Section 3. Otherwise, this programme is identical with that specified in Section 4.1. above.

4.3.2. For students preparing for the "Government School-Leaving Certificate ('Gemer') for Vocational Schools", technical reading material will be studied in addition to the recommended reading programme in Section 4.2. above.

4.3.3. The English Inspectorate of the Ministry of Education will from time to time publish bibliographies of approved reading texts for Vocational and Agricultural schools and trends.

Part 5: EXAMINATION SYLLABUSES

5.1. ADVANCED LEVEL (4 points) MATRICULATION

5.1.1. The aims of the Examination Syllabus are:

To provide a means for ascertaining and evaluating the degree to which pupils have achieved the aims of the teaching syllabus as specified in Parts 1 - 3 of this Syllabus, on the clear understanding that the teaching syllabus is always far wider than the examination syllabus.
67. HAVE GOT / HAVE GOT TO
68. "HAVE" as an anomalous finite
69. "WHOM" (formal style)
70. NP + Verb + "SO/NOT" - "I hope so/not".
71. Some Derivational Affixation Patterns

B. Further Applications of Structures Previously Studied

1. PRESENT PERFECT (other uses of). Pupils are taught the British usage of the Present Perfect.
   a) Just perfect as a very recent activity
   b) already, not yet, frequency adverbs
   c) to indicate action completed within a period of time which is specified and includes the moment of speaking, e.g. today, this week, during the last 5 years. Example: "I've seen him three times this week so far".
   N.B. The perfect of "BE" + preposition "TO" is used to indicate a return journey ("I've been to London").

2. MODALS (other meanings)
   2.1. WILL - characteristic ("Boys will be boys. He'll sit there for hours")
   - volition especially in the negative (e.g. "He won't come" - i.e. he refuses). See below "WOULD".
2.2. **WOULD** - past time characteristic ("When he was young, he would sit there for hours").

This form is partly synonymous with "USED TO" (as in the example), in the restricted context of activities that were habitual or recurrent in the past, but only when using non-stative verbs.

"Stative verbs" are also known as "Private Verbs" - see Primary School syllabus.

Compare: "I used to know him well".
  * "I would know him well".

(Asterisked sentences indicate non-occurring forms).

- volition in the past, especially in the negative (e.g. "He wouldn't do it" - i.e. he refused). See WILL above.

- tentative request ("Would you mind -ING...?", "Would you open the window please?")

2.3. **CAN** - Sensation ("I can see him now") N.B. British usage "I can't see him"; U.S. usage "I don't see him". Norwegians will tend not to use the Modal here / anl roFe oto/.

2.4. **SHOULD** - in the Object clause after verbs of suggestion ("subjunctive equivalent") - "I suggest that he should do it", instead of "that he do it" or "that he does it". See D 8 ("Recognition grammar"). Other verbs in this class are: demand, require, propose.
3. **PRESENT PROGRESSIVE + "ALWAYS" or "FOREVER"**

Examples: "I'm always doing that", "He's forever reading".

This use of the Present Progressive is sometimes called "SPORADIC REPETITION". In effect it is the "habitual" use of the present progressive; the reference is usually pejorative. Note that the present progressive "habitual" always requires an adverb, whereas the present simple "habitual" does not. Contrast "I always tell my class that..." with "I'm always telling my class that..." (i.e. rebuking them).

4. **PRESENT SIMPLE** (other meanings)

   a. "Planned future" - "They go on their trip tomorrow".

   b. "Demonstrative" - reporting an activity, not indicating duration and so not requiring the Progressive form: "The team comes on the field now". "So-and-so kicks the ball". "Now I wipe the black-board".

   c. "Narrative" ("historical present") a vivid reportage of a past event. "Napoleon orders his army to attack."

   d. "Performativ"e" - the words are part of the activity; the verb is used with the first person pronoun: "I say you're wrong", "I promise I'll come", "I hereby name this ship the X".

5. **ADJUNCT NOUNS** (Nouns as Modifiers of Nouns)

Adjunct nouns were introduced in Classes 5-6 as nouns modifying other nouns within a Noun Phrase. Some traditional grammarians regard the Adjunct Noun as an Adjective or as a "Noun functioning as an Adjective", ...
but structurally this definition is untenable (e.g. an adjective may be preceded by a word like "very" ("Pre-Adjective" or "Intensifier") — "a very stony hill" — whereas an Adjunct Noun may not — "a very stone house").

Hebrew will tend to use the genitive phrase ("amichut"), a prepositional phrase or an Adjective+Noun combination where English would use the Adjunct Noun+Head Noun.

Examples: "a gold watch" (Hebrew: prepositional phrase — /Sar?on mezhav/)
"city hall" (Hebrew: genitive phrase — /belt ha?1irja/)
"head teacher" (Hebrew: adjective+noun — /more ra7/)

Primary stress is on the Head element as in the examples above.

The Adjective+Noun pattern has a similar stress distribution.

. **COMPOUND NOUNS**

Pupils will have met very many compound nouns in the course of their English studies. Here again, Hebrew often uses a genitive phrase or a prepositional phrase. Where a genitive phrase is used, the word order will be the reverse of the English pattern, e.g. "nightclub" (hebrew: /mo?adon laila/), "headache" (/ko?ev ra?/), dining-room, housewife. Reversing the correct order of the English pattern to accord with Hebrew usage is a very common error. Compare: "bus station" (Modifier+Head) /axanat otobusim/ (Head+Modifier).
Another common error of Hebrew speakers using the Noun-Noun pattern (both Compound and Adjunct) is to pluralize the Modifier (e.g. "*oranges - peels") following Hebrew /kipot tapasim/). Whereas in beginning classes the parallel tendency to pluralize the adjective (*big boys) is soon eradicated because of the non-occurrence of pluralized adjectives in English, the pluralized noun as an adjunct or an element in a compound is much harder to eradicate since every learner comes across this pluralization (or alternatively and even more confusingly the genitive as a Noun-Head Modifier) in other contexts all the time, e.g. "a boys' school".

Some Characteristics of Compound Nouns in English:

I) Compound Nouns and Adjunct Nouns are usually analyzable as transformations of underlying sentences, e.g. "(I have a ) headache" as ",(my) head aches";

II) the first element carries primary stress (/'), as distinct from the Adjunct Noun pattern (see above);

III) the two elements are Modifier + Head. The Modifier may be a noun (e.g. goldsmith), an adjective (e.g. blackboard), a pronoun (e.g. he - goat), a verb (e.g. playground; for -ING modifier, see Section 7), or particle (e.g. outbreak - compare with the corresponding two-word verb "break out"). Compare: "a bus station" (a certain kind of station),

"a station bus" (a certain kind of bus).

Notes: (1) Compound nouns are manifested phonologically (stress assignment) not typographically. The orthographic conventions are usually quite arbitrary: one word ("blackboard"), two ("beauty parlour") or hyphenated ("dining-room"), with frequent overlapping. There are no fixed rules for hyphenation in English.
(II) Any word may carry primary stress, if the intention is to emphasize that word contrastively.

(III) Nouns are not the only compound words in English; there are also compound adjectives ("seasick") and compound verbs ("outdo").

The following types of compound adjectives occur in English:

a) a red-haired boy (= a boy who has/with red hair), a three-legged table, a cross-eyed look,

b) a fun-loving fellow (= a fellow who loves fun), a beer-drinking type, a nice-looking girl,

c) sunburnt, brickbuilt,

d) well-known, well-dressed,

e) quick-firing, high-flying, far-reaching

f) incoming, outgoing, upstanding

(IV) Ambiguities occur in the NP pattern in written English (where stress is not indicated) because of word order and the paucity of inflectional and derivational suffixes in the language; thus "the English teacher" may be Noun+Noun; /hamore le?anglit/ "the English teacher" or Adjective+Noun /hamore ha?anglit/ "the English teacher".

7. **-ING AS A NOUN-MODIFIER**

Grammarians divide this structure into (I) Gerund+Noun, in which case it is a Noun modifying another Noun (Compound Noun stress pattern), and (II) Present-Participle + Noun, in which case it is a Verb modifying a Noun (Adjunct+Noun stress pattern).

Examples: "Running water, which may be described as a transformation of "water that is running" (i.e. present-participle);"
"Dancing girls", similarly analyzable as "girls that dance" (present participle).

Both these examples above stress the last element (Pattern 6). On the other hand, "Dancing shoes", is describable as a transformation of "shoes for dancing" (i.e. a gerund, which has the stress pattern of a Compound Noun).

This pattern cannot be analyzed as "Adjective+Noun", since the -ING cannot be compared ("more - , most - ") or be modified by an Intensifier ("very"). Some other -ING modifiers, however, are adjectives according to this classification - e.g. "This is a more / very interesting pleasing book" (all drawn from a special set of animate-object verbs). Semantic restraints (selectional rules) operate here and each item must be learnt separately; thus, for example, the set of animate-object verbs (e.g. "excite, astonish, shock, satisfy") have the common property of arousing emotion of one kind or another. "Dancing girls" will be translated by different syntactic structures in Hebrew, (I)/banot rokdot/ for the English participle construction (primary stress on "girls") and (II) /rakdanlot/ for the gerund (primary stress on "dancing").

8. "PRE-ADJECTIVES" ("INTENSIFIERS") MODIFYING ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

This construction is an expansion of "VERY"+Adjective/Adverb, taught in Classes 5-6. Other examples of Intensifiers are "somewhat, pretty, too, fairly, quite". Some of these Intensifiers may also appear before the Comparative ("somewhat better"), others also function as Determiners ("much better" as Intensifier, "much money" as Determiner).
Traditional grammarians classify these words as "adverbs" but nothing is gained by combining into one word-class modifiers of verbs and modifiers of adjectives and adverbs, since they do not function alike.

- SENTENTIAL COMPLEMENTS IN VARIOUS FUNCTIONS:

(n) Pupils will already be familiar with the fact that verbs can be complemented not only by ordinary NP's, but by expressions (clauses and phrases) derivable from underlying sentences. (Syllabus for the Intermediate Division Patterns 18 (-ING) and 20 (Noun-Object Clauses). There are three major ways of turning sentences into complements in English: with the Infinitival to, with the Gerund -ing and with the subordinator that:

  e.g. I want to help you.
  I enjoy helping you.
  I know that I can help you.

  hel: (I) Hebrew has only two equivalents for these three forms:
  the Infinitival/anl roce laʔazor/...; a /ʃə/ or /kt/ clause:
  /anl yodea Še ani jaxol/...
  (II) The choice of type of complement depends on the particular verb, and this is another source of potential interference.
  Compare: I suggest that we go now: /ani macija še nelex axʃav/
  * I suggest to go now: /ani macija lalexet axʃav.
  (see * note on page 30)

(b) These same complement structures can also be used with NOUNS, as follows:

  J) INFINITIVAL: the need to help others
       the desire to help others
the ability to help others
the chance/opportunity to help others

II) GERUND: the habit of talking with one's mouth full
the idea of going abroad
the thought of living alone

III) NOUN
CLAUSES: the idea that he might go abroad
the fact that nobody knows the answer
the knowledge that it could never happen

(c) The -ING form is accompanied by the possessive form of the
Subject of the complement (e.g. "Do you mind John's playing the
piano?", "I resent his taking all the food"). However, in contem­
porary usage, both the possessive and the objective form of the
underlying subject are acceptable in the following contexts:
e.g. I disapprove of John's driving.
    I disapprove of John driving there on his own.
    Do you mind my opening the window?
    Do you mind me opening the window?

In such cases, the use of the possessive makes the expression more
like an ordinary nominal (see 9e) below), while the use of the
objective case (for example, him instead of his) makes it keep more
of its verbal flavour.

(d) See also Pattern C10 (Pro-Subject IT) for further examples of
sentential complements.
Note: the -ING form and the FOR-TO structure (see Pattern C10) can occur not only in Object position in sentences, but also as the surface Subject, as follows:

I) For you to do that would be ridiculous = IT would be ridiculous for you to do that.

II) That he never comes on time is well-known = IT is well-known that he never comes on time.

III) His saying that irritated me.

   BUT NOT: *It irritated me his saying that (except perhaps in a very informal colloquial style).

A fourth type of Complement structure - in addition to the three noted in 9a) above - is provided by cases of Nominalization, i.e. the process whereby a verb is turned into a noun, and the verb-phrase of which it was the Head is thereby transformed into a noun-phrase. Compare, for example:

VERBAL -ING form: "Absorbing immigrants is..."

NOMINAL -ING form: "The absorbing of immigrants is..."

ABSTRACT NOUN: "The absorption of immigrants is..."

Note that the infinitival and gerund nominals are like verb-phrases in that they may contain adverbial modifiers of the verb (e.g. "absorbing immigrants effectively") and, except when the subject is impersonal, may have perfect or passive verb-phrases (e.g. "having absorbed..." "being absorbed"). But the abstract noun is like a noun-phrase in that it takes only adjectival modifiers (e.g. "the effective absorption"), does not have perfect or passive verb-phrases, requires the
verbal object to be in a prepositional phrase (e.g. "the absorption of..."), and may contain the derived nominal form of the verb itself in -tion, -ment, -al etc.

(II) All verbs in English have an -ING form. Many have both the -ING form and the abstract-noun form, e.g.: reacting - reaction, expecting - expectation, judging - judgment, developing - development, refusing - refusal, arriving - arrival.

However, many of the commonest verbs in the language have no special abstract-noun form, e.g. "come, go, write, read; cook, swim, drive, work". This is the source of many ambiguities; thus, "I disapprove of John's cooking" could mean "the fact that John cooks", "the way in which John cooks" or "the things that John cooks."

(III) Note that in the sentence "We found some writings for the collection", the -ING form is interpreted as a concrete noun.

In Hebrew, the form called יָסַם חַפֶּלֶנ/ יָסַם חַפֶּלֶנ/ manifests very similar properties, e.g. יָסַם חַפֶּלֶנ/ "proof" or "proving" יָשָׁב/ "settlement" or "settling".

(g) In addition to Nouns and Verbs being complemented by the same four basic types of structures (all of which are derivable from underlying sentences), ADJECTIVES may similarly be complemented:

e.g. He is AFRAID OF (his wife's) taking risks.

He is RESPONSIBLE FOR (the judge's refusing to hear the {case.

the collapse of their business.

It is EASY (for you) to talk that way.

It is OBVIOUS that they will never get here on time.
Note that in the last two examples we again have instances of the
Pro-Subject IT referred to in 9d) and 9e) above and in Pattern
C10 in this Syllabus. See also Pattern C5 in this syllabus for
the ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION structure.

(h) The two non-finite constructions (the Infinitival and the Gerund) can
also be derived from sentences in the past, in which case the
Perfect form of these expressions is used, as follows:
to have + Past Participle, having + Past Participle.

- e.g. We were glad to have met them = We were glad that we had
met them.
He regretted having told her = He regretted that he had told
her.

However, teachers are advised to treat both the Perfect Infinitive
and Perfect Gerund as parts of the "Recognition grammar" referred
to in Section D of this Syllabus.

10. HAVE + NP + BASE

Example: I had him do it.

a) "HAVE" here means "to cause" and is partly synonymous with
"MAKE" Pattern 19, Classes 8-9.

b) "MAKE" is ambiguous as between "compulsion" ("he made him
apply for the job") and "cause" ("he made him dislike the game").
With adjective complements, only the latter interpretation is possi-
ble - "he made her happy/sad/tired".

c) "HAVE" generally refers to causing at one's own behest or volition
- "We had our guests come early" or "She had her pupils hand in
their essays every Sunday morning".
d) HAVE+NP+PAST PARTICIPLE ("I had my hair cut") is taught in the Intermediate Division, Pattern 35 classes 8-9, but can now be reviewed as based on c) above. Thus, "They had their house painted" = "they had someone paint their house".

11. ACTIVE INFINITIVE WITH PASSIVE MEANING

Example: "He is to blame".

The parallel passive form is just as common - "there's no time to lose, be lost." However, the construction "he is to be blamed" may also mean that someone will blame him, whereas "he is to blame" simply means "it is his fault".

12. MORE DERIVATIONAL AFFIXATION PATTERNS

These patterns were introduced in the Intermediate Division (Pattern 41, Classes 8-9). Teachers are advised to pay special attention to prefix and suffix patterns in the Upper Division, on the general lines suggested in the Intermediate Division Syllabus. Care should be taken in the case of derivative forms which in Modern English are no longer semantically related, e.g. arbitrary-arbitrate, considerable. Similarly, teaching time need not be spent on pointing out the common origin of prefixes, as in "desist, defer, depress, detain", or in bound stems, as in "desist, insist, persist, consist", etc.
C. NEW STRUCTURES TO BE LEARNED AS PART OF THE ACTIVE GRAMMATICAL INVENTORY

1. COMPLEX VERB PATTERNS

1.1. HAVE (present or past) + BE-past participle + VERB - past participle.

This construction is called the "PERFECT PASSIVE" (present or past).

Example: "The letter has been written" (+ by - agent).

N.B. The forms "has/had been being written" are so rare as to be virtually non-occurring.

1.2. HAD+BE-past participle+Verb-ING

This construction is called the "PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE".

Example: "He said that he had been living there for ten years".

The Present Perfect Progressive was taught in Classes 8-9.

1.3. PRESENT MODAL + HAVE + VERB - past participle

This construction consists of the Present Modal+Perfect Base.

Examples:

(I) "He will have gone by 8 p.m." (the so-called "future perfect"). Note the use of "by" in this connection, where Hebrew speakers will tend to use "until" (similarly with the Modal WILL - "he will get here BY 8 o'clock").

(II) "He may have gone yesterday" (indicating past possibility) or "by the time we arrive" (i.e. also a "future perfect").
(III) "He must have gone there yesterday" (indicating past inference).

All these structures have "past implications" of one form or another. Contrast the Past Modal+Present Base form of some of these verbs, e.g. "He had to go" (past obligation) v. "He must have gone" (present certainty about a past event) as the two past-time analogues of "MUST"; likewise, "He didn't need to go" (neutral implication—he went or he didn't) v. "He needn't have gone" (but he did, see Pattern 1.5 below) where the verb "NEED" in the first example is a full verb not a Modal.

Hebrew speakers usually find this structure particularly difficult, since Hebrew has no similar construction. The nearest equivalents might be:
- example (I) above /hu kvar lo jijbe kan baṣa 8/
- example (II) above/yilaxen ʃe halax etmol/ or / yilaxen ʃe kvar lo jimace ad ʃe nagia/

1.4. **MODAL + PROGRESSIVE BASE**

Modal + BE + VERB -ING

(a) **Present Modal**

Examples: "He will be going" (i.e. the so-called "future progressive")

"He may be going"

This verbal form is not only used to indicate incomplete duration in the future (e.g. "He will be writing when you arrive" or "he will be sleeping at 8 p.m.", showing incomplete activity), but also a future activity already planned or contemplated (note that the present progressive may also indicate future);
Note the following distinction in the interrogative:
- "Will you be going there tomorrow?", which merely seeks information;
- "Will you go there tomorrow?", which might entail a request, as
evidenced by the possible addition of "please".

(b) Past Modal

Examples: "(He said) he would be going".
"If he were with us now, we would / might / could already
be enjoying ourselves".

Some Traditional grammarians call the pattern with "WOULD" the "future progressive in the past" but such a definition ignores the formal and functional relationship of all the modals in this pattern.

Other more complex modal patterns (e.g. "he/will/would have been
going") may be regarded as part of the passive "recognition" grammar (see part D).

1.5. PAST MODAL + PERFECT BASE

Past Modal + HAVE + VERB-past participle

Examples: "He would / could / might / should / ought to / needn't have gone".

(a) This construction is most commonly found in the "unreal past" conditional, where the conditional clause is in the past perfect. It is negative in declaration or implication, presupposing that a certain activity definitely ("would, should") or probably ("might, could") did not happen.

(b) Contrast: - He could have helped us (but he did not).
He could help us (maybe he still will).
- She should have told them (but she did not).
She should tell him (maybe she still will).
(c) In Hebrew, a single form / haja karix / is generally used for all the following distinctions in English:

(I) had to = fulfilled obligation

I had to go to the dentist, so I couldn't meet you.
But not: * I had to go to the dentist, but I didn't.

(II) Should/ought to have = unfulfilled obligation.

I should have gone to the dentist, but I fell asleep.
But not: * I should have gone to see him and I did.

(III) Was/were supposed to = either interpretation

They were supposed to leave for Italy last Monday,

(a) but their flight was cancelled.

or (b) so they rented their apartment.

N.B. The following Hebrew equivalents of the above examples have been suggested: (I) /hictarex/

(II) /haja karix/  

(III) /haja amur/.

(d) Contrast: He ought to have gone (but he didn't).

He needn't have gone (but he did).

2. NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

Example: "Chaim Weizmann, who was born in Russia, became the first President of the State."

(a) A non-defining (non-restrictive, parenthetical) clause is in opposition to the main clause; it adds information to but is not semantically
dependent on the main clause. The two functions of this relative clause are parenthetical (hence the commas or pauses) and conjoining. Hebrew speakers (and probably most English speakers conversationally) use a compound sentence of two main clauses instead of this construction, in the above example "Chaim Weizmann was born in Russia and became..." (i.e. conjoining). The correct use of this pattern is part of the necessary instruction in English stylistics in the Upper Division. Care should always be taken to distinguish this more formal parenthetical-conjoining pattern from the defining relative, which is a semantically and structurally integral part of the sentence and is used to modify the Head Noun.

(b) Speakers usually pause before and after such a clause (indicating its parenthetical character).

(c) This relative clause is normally preceded by a comma and followed by a comma or a full stop; alternatively it may be marked off by parentheses or dashes.

This pausing or punctuation does not apply in the case of Defining Relative Clauses (taught in the Intermediate Division syllabus).

(d) The relative pronouns used in this more formal construction are WHO, WHOM (obligatory as the Object pronoun), WHICH and WHOSE. The zero relative (deleted pronoun) and THAT are never used in this pattern.

(e) The two types of relative clause may be contrasted thus:
"My friend who lives in England writes regularly". (defining - i.e. one of my many friends, so that the relative clause is essential to the meaning of the sentence), and "My friend, who lives in England, writes regularly"
(non-defining - i.e. I have one friend, with the sentence conveying two separate pieces of information).

3. **VERB (Sensory Verb) + NP + Base/Participle**

   Contrasting examples: "I saw him read/reading."

   This pattern can be viewed as a combination of two sentences - "I saw him/he read/ or "I saw him/he was reading. The use of the Base form indicates completion, while the participle indicates incomplete duration.

   Another (classic textbook) example is "I saw him cross the road" (i.e. he arrived at the other side) as against "I saw him crossing the road" (i.e. en route). Hebrew does not make this distinction in the form of different structures.

4. **THE INDIRECT OBJECT AS AN OBLIGATORY PHRASE**

   In Classes 5 and 6 the Indirect Object both as a prepositional phrase ("I gave the book to him") and as pronoun or noun-phrase ("I gave him the book") were taught. However, certain verbs in English govern an obligatory prepositional phrase as Indirect Object; Hebrew speakers tend to over-generalize the NP Indirect Object pattern and so create such typical errors as: "I explained him the answer" instead of "I explained the answer to him", and "I suggested her the answer" instead of "I suggested the answer to her".

   Verbs taking the Indirect Object transformation are generally Germanic, monosyllabic words (exception: "say").
In other words, most verbs that have an obligatory prepositional phrase are polysyllabic (except for "say") whereas those that have both structures are usually monosyllabic.

5. ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION

Certain adjectives collocate with specific prepositions; in general, the use of the correct preposition is a sure sign of an idiomatic grasp of English and the teacher should drill these various prepositional patterns, including two-word verbs (Intermediate Division syllabus), the preposition+gerund (Intermediate Division syllabus) and now the adjective + proposition pattern.

Examples: "busy at, fond of, aware of, afraid of, good for, angry with". Notice the preposition+NP+infinitive pattern - "it's kind of you to say so", "it's good for you to do that" - i.e. usually with "Preparatory IT+BE" patterns (see Pattern 10).
6. **SENTENCE-CONNECTORS**

("Conjunctive Adverbs" in Traditional grammar).

These function words (examples: "THEREFORE, HENCE, MOREOVER, BESIDES, HOWEVER, LIKewise, FURTHERMORE") connect sentences into an organized discourse. "PERHAPS" is distinguished from the other words of this class, since only it may head the first sentence in a passage. The main purpose of these words is stylistic and paragraph-syntactic.

Pupils in the Upper Division should have a good grasp of these words and their function, as integral features of English idiom. Some of these words are more typical of formal written style (e.g. "hence"), while others are colloquial and informal ("still", "besides"). In general, pupils in the Upper Division should be deliberately exposed to the more formal usage of written discourse.

7. **IDIOMATIC USES OF CERTAIN WORDS**

The appropriate use of words such as those below is an indication of idiomatic control of the language. In the Syllabus, the main stress is always on sentence patterns (including the use of verb tenses and aspects) but in the Upper Division due attention should be paid to parts of speech other than the Noun and Verb and to their co-occurrence in sentence patterns. Some of these "idiomatic words" (usually adverbs) are the following:

**ALREADY:** This word occurs in the Perfect phrase in British and some varieties of American English; it also occurs in the Simple and Continuous aspects ("They were/are already writing; he already knows the answers"); its most common position is pre-verbal; it
"Already" usually occurs in a positive statement, "not yet" replacing it in the negative and interrogative, but "already" may occur here to indicate surprise - "Is it 10 o'clock already? Have you seen him already?". When used in an interrogative sentence, a positive answer is expected (or feared). It is sometimes over-used by Hebrew speakers as a direct translations of /kvar/, e.g. "He knew (how) to do that already from an early age."

**STILL:** This word occurs in positive statements, "any more" in negative. In interrogative sentences, "still" implies a positive answer, "any more" a negative one - "Do you still like him?"
- "Do you (more probably "Don't you") see him any more?"

Note the pre-verbal position of "still" (except after "BE" as is the case with all pre-verbals), except for other placing for the sake of emphasis.

"Still" and "Yet" may be compared in these sentences:
- "Is he at school yet?" (i.e. has he arrived?)
- "Is he still at school?" (i.e. hasn't he left?)

"Still" means "even to this (that) time"; with the comparative form of adjectives it acts as an Intensifier, meaning "even more" ("This book is cheap, but that one is still cheaper"); it is also a colloquial sentence-connector (or sentence-adverb) meaning "nevertheless".
- "Money is short. Still, they manage".

**ONLY:** This word may modify nouns, verbs and sentences.

As a noun-modifier, it means "single" "no other", "nothing else" as in "He is the only man here". It may occupy different positions in the
sentence according to the parts of the sentence to be emphatically modified:

**e.g.** "I'm only writing a letter" (i.e. "I'm not doing anything else"), as against "Only I'm writing a letter". Before expressions of measure, it means "though more might have been expected" as in "He's only 3 years old", "It holds only 4 gallons", etc.

"Only" may co-occur with "too" as an intensifier of the intensifier — "I'm only too pleased to be invited. It's only too true, unfortunately."

It emphasises the conjunction "if" as in "If only he were here." Lastly, "only" may be a conjunction, meaning "but" — "He's clever, only he's lazy."

**JUST:**

(I) As a pre-verbal, "Just" is used in the perfect phrase in British and some varieties of American English to indicate the immediate past, as in "He's just gone" (some American varieties - "He just went.") But note "He just missed the train yesterday" contrasted with "He's just missed the train" (current relevance).

(II) "Just" also means "exactly" or "precisely", as in "It's just the thing I wanted".

"It's just 9 o'clock".

"I'm just going".

(III) "Just" also means "the very last opportunity", as in "I saw it just in time". Contrast "I could just see him", as positive in meaning, and "I could hardly see him", as negative (See "hardly" below).

(IV) It may also function as an intensifier of prepositions or adverbs, as in - "It's just over there; it was just about then; just here/now/off".

(V) It is also an Imperative modifier, used to soften the tone of
the command, as in "just come here, (please/will you?)". "Just a moment!"

(VI) "just" is also a synonym of "only" in certain contexts ("He's just a teacher.")

**AT ALL:** This phrase means "in any way" or "in the least" in a negative connotation (stated or implied).

Examples: "I don't know him at all."
"If you're at all interested..."
"Does he do any work at all?"

Note the idiom "not at all", meaning "you're welcome", as a response to "thank you".

**N.B.** "At all" should not be translated as/bixial/ in Hebrew in a positive sentence, but only in negative and interrogative contexts, as in the above examples (also "He hardly speaks at all").

**BARELY, Seldom, RARELY, HARDLY, SCARCELY:**

These pre-verbals are regarded as "quasi-negatives". Semantically they are positive, insofar as they do signify an achievement under difficulty, but syntactically they are negative, as evidenced by the positive question-tag -

"I don't know you, do I?"
"I hardly/scarcely know you, do I?"

as contrasted with "I do know you, don't I?"

Furthermore, they co-occur with "anybody/thing/where" more often than with "some...", again indicating their negative character.
Teachers and course-writers should pay special attention to finer lexical considerations and semantic distinctions such as these.

8. **EMPHATIC VERB PHRASES**

(a) Where the AUXILIARY (Modal, be, have or do) in a Verb-Phrase is given emphatic stress, it serves to re-affirm the proposition as a whole and/or deny its negation - just as YES/NO questions query the entire proposition, rather than any single part of it.

Thus: He WILL help us (why did you think he might not?).
He IS coming with us (whether you like it or not).
She DOES understand French (you don't know everything about her).

Note the use of the carrier DO with the Present or Past Simple.

(b) Elsewhere, any element in a sentence can be given emphatic stress.

Compare: - "John WILL buy Stella a new coat" - a general re-affirmation of a certain proposition.
- "JOHN will buy.....", answering the question "WHO will buy...?"
- "John will BUY..." i.e. he won't LEND her one.
- ".... a NEW coat", i.e. not a second-hand one, etc.

9. **MODAL "BE TO"**

Examples: "You are to be there at 8 o'clock".
"We are to meet at 8 o'clock".
IE TO indicates an arrangement and involves the concept of obligation (someone else arranges for you to do something). It is a Modal verb, since it cannot co-occur with other Modals (*he may be to meet us).

10. PREPARATORY "IT" (See Pattern B0 - Sentence Complements)

In Classes 5 and 6, the "Dummy Subject" (or PRO-SUBJECT) IT was taught in the pattern IT IS + Adjective, Participle, Noun, Pronoun, or expression of time or distance. The following structures can usefully be taught at this later stage:

(I) IT IS + NP + FOR + NP + INFINITIVE

Example: "It's hard for me to get up in the morning."

"It's easy for you to do that",

Here "you" is the explicit Subject of the embedded sentence ("you do that"). The FOR-TO Infinitival in Subject position is so formal as to sound stilted (e.g. "For me to do that would be easy.").

Pupils should be made aware of such usages ("Recognition" grammar) but should be encouraged to use sentences with the Pro-Subject IT.

(II) IT IS + NP + INFINITIVE

Examples: "It's good to know that." "It's hard to get up in the morning". The "real subject" of BE in the infinitival phrase and the "IT" pattern can be viewed as deriving from the underlying sentence "to know that is good". Again, this is a very stilted usage: when the Subject of BE is an infinitive phrase, the Preparatory IT is certainly to be preferred. An alternative transformation of the underlying sentence would be "That is good to know."
which is as common as the IT construction.

(III) IT IS + NP + GERUND

Examples: "It's no use going there".
"It's fine knowing you".
"It's no good your pretending".

This construction seems to be most common in a negative context. The "real Subject" is the gerund, but the "Preparatory IT" is the more frequent and therefore the preferred construction.

As stated in the Syllabus for Classes 5 and 6 "The essential rule for 'THERE IS' and 'IT IS' is that a full English sentence requires a Subject before the Main Verb; if for some reason the Subject is omitted or placed after the Verb, a "dummy" Subject is placed in Subject position instead." Hebrew has a freer word-order and does not use this grammatical device, so that the Hebrew speaker will tend not to use this 'IT' at all or will say 'THIS' (/ze/).

These constructions (including, the ones below) can be viewed as generalized transformations from two underlying sentences.

(IV) IT IS + NP + CLAUSE

Examples: "It is a shame (that) you couldn't come."
"It's obvious (that) he did it."

Here again, the Noun Clause in initial-sentence position ("that he did it is obvious") is found in the most formal style only; pupils should be encouraged to use the "Preparatory IT" construction.
Where these expressions (in sections (I) - (IV)) follow the verb, the empty Pro-Subject IT must be used - in Hebrew this is not necessary. Where they occur in Subject-position, the word IT must not be used. Some Hebrew speakers might tend to transpose the informal Hebrew usage / ze/ as 'IT' and so produce the following unacceptable sentences:

* For you to say that it is stupid.
* That he always comes late it is well-known.
* To do your homework in time it is wonderful.
* It is coming here it was a nice surprise.

(V) PREPARATORY 'IT' WITH CERTAIN LINKING VERBS

Examples: "It appears/seems/that he has been here." Note also such verbs as "It happens/occurs to me that...", which are not Linking Verbs.

(VI) PREPARATORY 'IT' WITH VERBS EXPRESSING EMOTIONS

Examples: "It amazes/pleases/delights/disappoints/excites me to hear your news." In all these cases, the recomposition of the sentence to have the clause or other complement of the verb in sentence-initial position is rare, hyper-formal or non-occurring. Note that these verbs comprise the same class as those mentioned in Pattern D7.
11. **PREPARATORY 'IT' AFTER THE MAIN VERB**

(I) Example: "I think it strange/a pity that he should be invited". The sentence may be analyzed as a compound sentence with three parts: the first part is "I think"; the second part has "IT" as a Dummy Subject with the deleted verb "BE"; and yet a third part "he should be invited". This construction appears most frequently with verbs of "belief" (e.g. "consider, hold, believe").

A similar construction, but more complex, is "I owe it to you that we are all safe and sound".

(II) Example: "I leave it to you to decide". The infinitive is the Direct Object of the verb (cf: I leave the decision to you").

(III) Example: "This will make it possible to undertake the task". Here again, 'IT' may be viewed as the Preparatory Subject IT of a clause with deleted verb 'BE', with the "Real Subject" at the end.

12. **"WISH" + NOUN-OBJECT CLAUSE** with the verb in the past perfect.

Example: "I wish/ed (that) he had been there".

Pattern 28.7 of the Intermediate Division Syllabus specifies the "WISH+THAT CLAUSE", with the verb in the THAT clause in the past tense, meaning an unfulfilled present hope. ("I wish he were here now"). At this stage, the Noun-Object Clause with the verb in the past perfect is taught, meaning an unfulfilled hope relating to past circumstances ("I wish/ed he had been here then").
D. SOME STRUCTURES WHICH MAY FORM PART OF THE PASSIVE "RECOGNITION" GRAMMAR

If the teachers are satisfied that their pupils have thoroughly mastered the Patterns in Part C of this Syllabus, they will probably teach some of the following structures as part of the active grammatical inventory of the pupils, but for most pupils the following structures will probably be "recognition" items only, met and explained in the course of their readings etc. but not intensively drilled or tested.

1. INVERTED WORD ORDER

as in conditional sentences ("Were you to do this, I would...; Had you done this, I would have...), with negators heading sentences ("Never have I seen..."), and with "only+adverb" heading sentences ("only later did I realize...").

2. MODALS IN CONDITIONAL CLAUSES

Examples: "If you were to/should/will/would do this, I would be...most obliged".

3. MODAL + PROGRESSIVE PERFECT BASE

Example: "I will/may have been living..." (i.e. including the so-called "future perfect progressive")

4. PAST MODAL + PROGRESSIVE PERFECT BASE

Examples: "I would/might have been going..."
5. **INDEPENDENT PARTICIPLE AS A SENTENCE-MODIFIER**
(Sentential Complement as an adverbial modifier)

Examples: "Reading, he fell asleep. Having seen her home, he took a taxi".

6. **INDEFINITE SUBJECT "ONE"**

Example: "One doesn't do that kind of thing".

7. **"COLOURED FUTURE"**

Example: "You shall do it, whether you want to or not".

8. **VERBS OF SUGGESTION OR COMMAND + (THAT) CLAUSE WITH BASE** (in all persons)

Examples: "I suggest/demand (that) he be here".
   "I suggest/demand (that) he not come".

9. **PERFECT INFINITIVE AND PERFECT GERUND**

Examples: "We were sorry to have missed you".
   "We remembered having seen you somewhere".

   N.B. The Perfect Base is taught in the active grammatical inventory, as part of a complex verb phrase (e.g. he would have gone - Pattern C 1.5).

10. **NP + PASSIVE INFINITIVE**

Example: "He is a man to be admired".
11. NOUN CLAUSES AND INFINITIVALS (SENTENCE COMPLEMENTS)
IN SUBJECT POSITION

Examples: "For you to behave like that is inconceivable."
"That he did it is well known to everyone".

(See Patterns C10 for Pro-Subject IT and B9 Sentential Complements).
Part A - Reading Aloud

When the tape starts going round

SAY YOUR NAME CLEARLY TWICE ON THE TAPE

Then read the following passage on to the tape. Imagine you are a teacher reading to a class that has not heard the passage before, and does not have the text in front of them.

**HUMPTY DUMPTY**

When Alice had come within a few yards of the egg, she saw that it had eyes and a nose and mouth; and when she had come close to it, she saw clearly that it was Humpty Dumpty himself.

"And how exactly like an egg he is!" Alice said aloud, standing with her hands ready to catch him, for she was every moment expecting him to fall.

"It's very provoking," Humpty Dumpty said after a long silence, looking away from Alice as he spoke, "to be called an egg—very!"

"I said you looked like an egg, sir," Alice gently explained. "And some eggs are very pretty, you know," she added, hoping to turn her remark into a sort of compliment.
"Some people," said Humpty Dumpty, looking away from her as usual, "have no more sense than a baby!"

Alice didn't know what to say to this: it wasn't at all like conversation, she thought, as he never said anything to her; in fact, his last remark was evidently addressed to a tree—so she stood and softly repeated to herself:

"Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall;
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall.
All the King's horses and all the King's men
Couldn't put Humpty Dumpty in his place again."

"That last line is much too long for the poetry," she added, almost out loud, forgetting that Humpty Dumpty would hear her.

"Don't stand chattering to yourself like that," Humpty Dumpty said, looking at her for the first time, "but tell me your name and your business."

"My name is Alice, but—"

"It's a stupid name enough!" Humpty Dumpty interrupted impatiently. "What does it mean?"

"Must a name mean something?" Alice asked doubtfully.

"Of course it must," Humpty Dumpty said with a short laugh: "my name means the shape I am—and a good handsome shape it is, too. With a name like yours, you might be any shape, almost."

"Why do you sit out here all alone?" said Alice, not wishing to begin an argument.

"Why, because there's nobody with me!" cried Humpty Dumpty. "Did you think I didn't know the answer to that? Ask another."

From: "Through the Looking Glass"
When the tape starts going round, SAY YOUR NAME CLEARLY TWICE; then give talks on the following subjects:

(You will be given time to think before the tape starts going round.)

1.) In the dentist's waiting room (about 2 minutes)

2.) Tell the plot of any story that comes to your mind (about 2 minutes)
Part C - Dictation

Name ..................................................

When the tape starts going round, write what is dictated to you, taking good care to punctuate and spell correctly. You will hear each sentence read at normal speed and then again phrase by phrase. Each phrase will be read slowly twice giving you sufficient time to write it down. At the end the passage will be read again right through.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
Sample Passage (Cloze test)

Instructions for the Pupil:

Put in the missing words. In each blank space put in one word only. Write down the missing word with its number. Do not copy out the whole passage.

Inspector Allen looked at his watch, then switched off all the lights in the room and went to the window. From there he could easily see all the traffic passing along the street below, though he himself was hidden.

Soon a yellow taxi (1) along slowly. The man seated (2) the driver was covering (3) face with his hand, obviously taking care not to (4) recognized.

"That must be the (5) we're after," thought the Inspector. (6), at that moment the telephone at his elbow (7) and he turned from the window. In that instant the (8) disappeared.

Presently, (9), he heard the sound (10) a key turning at the entrance door of the flat. He (11) perfectly still (12) quiet footsteps came towards the room. Then carefully drawing the curtain round (13), he waited (14) the moment (15) he could spring out and (16) his man.
But before he could move (17) was a loud peal of laughter.

"Come on out of there, Allen," called the newcomer. "You (18).

have hidden those feet of (19), if you (20) want to be discovered."

The original items deleted in the above passage are:

1. came, 2. behind, 3. his, 4. be, 5. fellow,
6. Unfortunately, 7. rang, 8. taxi, 9. however, 10. of,
11. stood, 12. as, 13. him, 14. for, 15. when, 16. catch,
17. there, 18. should, 19. yours, 20. didn’t.
LIST OF REFERENCES


Cohen, Gershon and Aronson, Ruth. The Teaching of English in Israel (a survey conducted under the direction of Dr. G. Ortar), The Hebrew University, Jerusalem, John Dewey School of Education, Jerusalem, 1964.


325


Haaretz (daily newspaper in Israel), March 17, 1968.


Taped Interviews with:
  Mr. Yitzhak Ernest on September 5, 1974, Jerusalem, Israel.
  Mr. Raphael Gefen, on August 28, 1974, Jerusalem, Israel.
  Dr. Elite Olshtain on September 4, 1974, Jerusalem, Israel.
  Ms. Sheila Sar-Shalom, on September 2, 1974, Jerusalem, Israel.


The Palestine Review, March 29, 1940.
