Introduction

This curriculum for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the college level was originally prepared by the members of the Forum of Coordinators of EAP from the various teachers’ colleges during the years 1992-1999, a process which culminated in the publication of a national curriculum document in 1999.

In 2008, it was decided by the Forum to revise and reissue the National Curriculum. The existence of a national curriculum contributes to the level of professionalism in EAP departments in teacher training colleges across the country:

- It clearly states the proficiency standards required in the teacher training colleges.
- It enables coordinators to provide appropriate instruction and testing for students.
- It offers guidance to members of the teaching staff.
- It enables students to transfer from one college to another without disrupting their progress in acquiring English proficiency.

Although the original National Curriculum was published only nine years ago, burgeoning research in language and second language learning has given new insights into instruction and testing and has led to changes in student placement. Additionally, the continuing development of technology has resulted in powerful tools to support the teaching of English for Academic Purposes. This revision will benefit from readily available corpus data, computerized readability and vocabulary analysis tools, as well as online text to speech and speech to text programs.

In spite of all of these changes, many of the problems the original national curriculum addressed are still current. The original curriculum attempted to respond to the following 12 questions:

1. Should our courses transcend the narrow confines of reading comprehension courses?
2. How could our language aims and objectives reflect the values of humanistic education?
3. How could we expand the educational horizons of our students?
4. Which approaches might be adopted to suit these objectives?
5. Which skills, strategies and techniques are basic to responding to these aims and objectives?
6. What standards and approaches can be applied across the board in all colleges? What entrance and exit requirements should be set?
7. Should the National Curriculum provide flexibility to allow for the diversity of colleges (national religious, ultra-religious, Arab, secular and kibbutz institutions)?
8. How can a national program provide standards and yet permit diversity at the same time?
9. How can we establish common standards so as to assist students wishing to transfer from one college to another?
10. How do we provide for students with learning difficulties?
11. How can computers be efficiently integrated into the EAP class?
12. How can the EAP program prepare students for M.Ed. or M.A. studies?

The original National Curriculum has answered many of these questions. However, with the passage of time, some of the questions and some of the answers have changed, and some of the questions remain unresolved.

The updated National Curriculum addresses the issue of standards touched on by questions 6-9:

6. **What standards and approaches can be applied across the board in all colleges? What entrance and exit requirements should be set?**

The curriculum is based on two principles: 1) placement in at least four levels based on a standardized test, and 2) uniform requirements for hours of study for students who are placed in the same level. The English section of the Psychometric test has been adopted as the standard for placement in EAP courses. With the Psychometric test in mind, a scale was devised to determine how many courses a student must complete and at which levels. This scale is also used by the universities. A standard exit exam was rejected because of the problems of differing content and emphasis from one college to the next.

7. **Should the National Curriculum provide flexibility to allow for the diversity of colleges (national religious, ultra-religious, Arab, secular and kibbutz institutions)?**

This question was answered in the affirmative in the original National Curriculum and the position of the Forum remains unchanged. The current system is uniform with respect to the number of courses studied without affecting the organization or content of the courses. Thus the individual colleges can incorporate material that is reflective of their specific populations.

8. **How can a national program provide standards and yet permit diversity at the same time?**
We assume that students studying in an appropriate EAP course with other students of similar ability will develop skills and will progress at a comparable pace.

9. How can we establish common standards so as to assist students wishing to transfer from one college to another?

If a student were to transfer to another teacher training college, this approach makes it possible to identify an equivalent level at the second institution. The student can continue his/her studies in a course at the appropriate level.

Questions 1-3 address broad issues of philosophy and the answers reflect the diversity of the teacher training colleges themselves. The values of each individual institution are reflected in the nature of the EAP program.

1. Should our courses transcend the narrow confines of reading comprehension courses?

2. How could our language aims and objectives reflect the values of humanistic education?

3. How could we expand the educational horizons of our students?

As teachers of EAP, we view ourselves as educators first and foremost. We believe that the way student teachers are taught will have a long-term influence on the way they relate to their pupils in the future. Our mandate is to expose our students to a humanistic model of education.

As research yields greater insight into the teaching of reading comprehension in a foreign or second language, the task becomes somewhat less amorphous. As a consequence, the teaching of reading comprehension seems less confining, and the broadening of students’ horizons becomes a given.

4. Which approaches might be adopted to suit these objectives? 5. Which skills, strategies and techniques are basic to responding to these aims and objectives?

The goal of EAP courses is to allow students access to English language materials in the field of education and in their field of concentration. To that end, we recognize the importance of teaching reading skills and strategies, broadening students’ command of the vocabulary found in the materials they will be using professionally, taking a balanced approach to the four skills with the emphasis on reading, and improving students’ skill in textual analysis. Goals and purposes beyond the development of English language skills are dictated by each institution and are reflected in the content, teaching methods, and self-study projects used in the classroom.

Questions 10-11 address issues that are even more important today than they were in 1999.
10. How do we provide for students with learning difficulties?

Using computers and other technological advances, students with learning difficulties can often achieve levels of mastery and independence that were unheard of ten years ago. Yet, there are still students for whom the mastery of EAP is a task which demands more time than students have available. This problem demands solutions on an institutional level. Potential solutions will be addressed at length later in this document.

11. How can computers be efficiently integrated into the EAP class?

This question is on the table today. Computers offer a wealth of information and wizardry, however, the use of computers in EAP is not an end in itself. Rather, the computer is a tool which students should learn to use when reading English to solve problems or to make work more efficient.

In conclusion, Blossom Wiesen, the initiator of the National Curriculum project, wrote in the introduction to the original document: “We believe that in order for the curriculum to be effectively integrated into our colleges, it needs to directly reflect the objectives of all of the coordinators while providing flexibility in order to answer the needs of diverse populations.” As we update this document, we see how manifestly successful that approach was. We are privileged to update a well-conceived and clearly articulated vision that has as much to offer today as it did when it was originally published. As Sir Isaac Newton stated: "If I have been able to see further than others, it is because I have stood on the shoulders of giants."
Theoretical Basis for This Curriculum

An early model presented reading comprehension as a 'bottom-up' process (Gough, 1972; LaBerge, and Samuels, 1974) -- a linear, text-grounded activity in which the reader decoded orthographic input and then linked words into sentences, sentences into paragraphs. The 'bottom-up' skills are especially crucial at the lower levels of EAP.

Smith (1971) and Goodman (1967) helped to integrate the field of cognitive psychology into the field of reading, with the top-down approach that defined reading as thinking—an active, constructive process. This more reader-centered model drew on Bartlett's schema theory (1932) which defined the schema as a mass of past experience actively engaged in organizing and interpreting new experience. However, schemata are not fixed, but expand and evolve as new information is acquired (Anderson and Pearson, 1984). It is this dynamic nature of the schema which is most salient for reading comprehension models. Sharkey (1990) states that schemata are constructed in response to 'textual input.' The EAP student must be made aware of the need to reconstruct schemata during the process of reading through self-monitoring.

A third model, drawing on both the 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' approaches is the interactive model, which presents reading as a process in which the reader uses the lexical and syntactic information in a text, not necessarily linearly, to construct meaning while utilizing his own knowledge, expectations and assumptions (Barr, Sadow, and Blachowicz, 1990). It is this integrative model which is applied in the comprehension of academic content.

Formal Schemata and Reading

Patricia Carrell (1987) divides schemata into two categories: content schemata and formal schemata. Studies revealed the importance of familiarity with the structural scaffolding in which a reader constructs his expectations of text content and showed how awareness of rhetorical structure affected comprehension and recall (Meyer and Freedle, 1984; Afflerbach, 1990). When comprehension breaks down, foreign-language readers tend to rely on formal schemata. Thus, recent approaches to EAP emphasize developing formal schemata through teaching students to recognize signals of rhetorical structure.

Bonnie Meyer (1984 op cit) developed a taxonomy which is applied in order to introduce rhetorical structure to students. Meyer's taxonomy of rhetorical structure of expository texts includes the following types: comparison, problem/solution, causation, description and collection (including sequence). She showed how metacognitive awareness of signals of rhetorical structure helped students to organize, and therefore recall, information in expository texts and concluded that devoting reading instruction to the identification of
different discourse structures may be effective in facilitating ESL reading comprehension, retention and recall.

Another important tool in the reader's strategy 'arsenal' is that of metadiscourse (language which exposes or predicts connections or writer's attitude). A study by Belinda Camiciottoli (2003) supported the hypothesis that the metalinguistic cues facilitated comprehension. Her recommendation is that metadiscourse become a conscious focus rather than merely an incidental element within EAP instruction.

EAP and the Lexical Threshold
Alderson (1984) asked the seminal question: is weak reading a language problem or a reading problem? His conclusion was that most weak L2 readers' difficulties stem from a poor knowledge of L2—and therefore, the need for focused instruction on vocabulary skills is imperative. Sutarsyah, Nation and Kennedy (1994) argue that the two word lists they devised (GSL – General Service List, and UWL – University Word List) comprise a threshold corpus of over 3,000 words which bring learners to the level of 95% comprehension—the threshold which they determined necessary for comprehension of a text. A wide range of strategies—ranging from direct instruction to context-based deduction, should be applied to increase academic vocabulary.

Genre Analysis and Content Based Instruction
Swales defines a genre as comprising 'a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes." (1990: 58) Those purposes include creating a common body of knowledge shared by members of a particular academic community, as well as a common set of expectations regarding content, structure and terminology to be used in texts belonging to this community.

Yet the purpose of a genre, according to Geisler (1994), is also exclusionary. It keeps out those who are not 'in the know', who do not have the necessary technical vocabulary, background knowledge, or even ability to follow the rhetorical moves in an argument. Therefore, it is crucial to initiate EAP into the academic community through content based instruction. A content based syllabus is based on the following precepts:

- Language teaching should be related to the eventual uses to which the learner will put the language
- The use of informational content tends to increase the motivation of the language learner
- Language learning is promoted by a focus on significant and relevant content from which learners can derive the cognitive structures that facilitate the acquisition of vocabulary and syntax...
  (Flowerdew (1993)

This approach has been expanded to include task-based instruction (Stoller, 2001), where relevant content is applied to authentic tasks. Recent research has demonstrated the efficacy of this approach (Song, 2006).

In conclusion, a viable EAP curriculum represents the successful integration
of bottom-up language skills, meta cognitive strategies, applied in a content-based framework.

Course Requirements at Each Level

General Remarks

The EAP program presents a holistic language learning approach to reading comprehension and English language learning developed to serve the needs of students in teacher training colleges. A broad range of articles and textual styles is presented to the students to insure motivation, relevance and continued academic growth. At each level, language structures and skills are acquired and reviewed through a spiraling approach. As the student progresses to higher and higher levels, the structures and skills acquired become more complex, while continuing to serve the objective of reading comprehension. The EAP programs at teacher training colleges aim to enable our students to read authentic academic texts relevant to their professional objectives. Moreover, the acquisition of the relevant reading skills should enable students to integrate information gleaned from their reading into projects, semester papers, and daily lessons in other subject areas studied concurrently at the colleges.

Since English is viewed as the medium of expression, oral and written English assignments are integrated into classroom activities and student assignments. These multi-skill activities flow naturally to and from the reading of professionally relevant texts and impact on student progress. Wherever possible, use of additional media is included in the students' learning experiences – spoken (radio, television, and lectures) and electronic (computers and internet). Thus, students are provided with language experiences from a number of available sources and are encouraged to communicate in English at all stages and levels of the learning process. The introduction of additional media appeals to differences in student cognitive and learning styles and creates an awareness of this issue among these future teachers. Students are introduced to online dictionaries, thesaurus, and other tools. Students are permitted to use dictionaries of any type throughout the course and during examinations.

On the level of application, students are exposed to content-based and task-oriented learning approaches (Song, 2006) in order to attain a specified level of proficiency. Although they are ultimately tested on their ability to cope with textual materials, their oral and written skills are also related to. Students will be exposed to a varied and enriched curriculum which will hopefully expand their horizons so that they in turn can stimulate their own students in the future. In addition, students' exposure to all facets of English language learning will enable them to attend lectures, use the internet, and participate in courses offered by visiting scholars in fields relevant to their profession, all in English.

Teaching Methods
At all levels teaching methods are designed to meet the educational needs of the students. Teachers introduce materials and topics of high interest to sustain student motivation, engage students actively through the use of varied teaching techniques, and integrate activities and techniques to elevate the students' educational level.

**Extensive Reading and Projects:**

Projects and extensive reading are endorsed as aspects of class work which provide the student with an opportunity to independently apply the reading and language skills learned in class. Projects usually involve identifying a topic of interest, searching for appropriate articles and other material, and integrating the concepts learned. Students may be asked to prepare short summaries, graphic organizers, or presentations of the articles they have read independently. Students may also be asked to present their work orally in class either in small groups or frontally.

**Vocabulary and Grammar**

Current research has demonstrated the critical role that vocabulary acquisition plays in becoming a skilled L2 reader. Moreover, it has been proven that extensive reading does not ensure adequate vocabulary growth for EAP students, and therefore explicit vocabulary instruction must be a component of all EAP courses. Online vocabulary analysis tools enable the selection of salient vocabulary for academic articles.

The explicit teaching of grammatical structures should be undertaken only for those structures which impinge on students’ understanding. Analysis of syntax and the structure of sentences, paragraphs, and texts should also be included whenever such knowledge enhances students’ ability to understand what they are reading. Grammatical and syntactical structures should be examined in context, with the emphasis on understanding rather than on production.

**Oral Proficiency**

Oral proficiency is addressed to the extent that time permits. In the lower levels in particular, improved oral proficiency enhances reading comprehension. Class activities serve to reinforce reading comprehension through group work, role play simulations, extemporaneous talks and class discussions. These activities revolve around educational issues and topics that students have encountered in their reading.

**Contrastive Analysis and Translation**

Students are encouraged to use their understanding of L1 as an aid in comprehending L2. Whenever feasible, comparisons and contrasts are noted between L1 and L2. Moreover, translation is used to clarify and emphasize meaning and nuances. Just as the student's experiences may be integrated into any and all cognitive experiences, the student's L1 knowledge should
also be acknowledged and used to full advantage.

**Student Placement**

This curriculum is based on the principle of uniform placement according to the results of a national, standardized test, the English section of the Psychometric Test. Uniform placement insures that students of similar English proficiency will be placed in classes at the same level in all teacher training colleges. Since no examinations are infallible in their ability to discriminate, EAP departments may have to transfer a few students due to incorrect designations by the Psychometric Test. An internal placement test has been developed by the forum of coordinators for the placement of those students who are accepted by the colleges without the Psychometric Test. The use of this test is left to the discretion of the EAP coordinator at each college.

The following levels will be the course designations for all teachers colleges.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Psychometric Test English Range</th>
<th>EAP Course Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic/Mechina Below</td>
<td>0-76</td>
<td>This is the basic level for those whose skills are below the intermediate level. Many colleges do not accommodate these students in their EAP programs. Rather, the students are expected to get to the intermediate level before beginning their EAP studies. However, occasionally, new immigrants, Arab students, and returning students do matriculate with inadequate preparation in English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate I</td>
<td>77-84</td>
<td>This level can be completed by a course which is comprised of 120 hours of study, 4 hours a week for one academic year. This level is often divided into 2 sixty hour courses, Intermediate I and Intermediate II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate II</td>
<td>85-99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced I</td>
<td>100-119</td>
<td>This level can be completed by a course which is comprised of 120 hours of study, 4 hours a week for one academic year. This level is often divided into 2 sixty hour courses, Advanced I and Advanced II. Advanced II is the proficiency / exemption level course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced II</td>
<td>120-133</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency / Exemption Level</td>
<td>134 or higher</td>
<td>Students whose Psychometric Test English scores fall in this range are deemed proficient and exempted from EAP studies toward the B Ed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Online Courses**
Online courses are becoming more prevalent as an additional learning option. Online instruction can incorporate a broader range of information, integrating course content with the informational resources of the web. Students can interact and work together in ways that are not possible or practical in face-to-face education (Collison, Elbaum, Haavind, & Tinker, 2000). These courses usually serve the more advanced students, who are able to undertake independent work as well as navigate the web. The conceptual basis is constructivist. The teacher is more of a facilitator or mentor.

Online courses offer greater flexibility of time and place, enhance motivation, allow personal choice of texts, and individual student progress. At the same time, online courses provide varied opportunities for the use of English and develop computer skills. However, online courses are very demanding for teachers, and they require self-discipline and responsibility on the part of the student. Additionally, technical problems and inadequate access to computers may impede student progress.

**Students with Learning Disabilities**

As research has revealed more about the functioning of the brain, the category of learning disabled students has expanded. In the past, students who encountered serious difficulty in the early years in school rarely pursued higher education. Today, many such students are able to overcome their difficulties through the use of a combination of remedial instruction, assistive devices, and testing accommodations.

The relationship of foreign language learning to overall cognitive ability is such that mild learning disabilities are often first manifested or only manifested in foreign language courses. For this reason, the EAP programs must cope with students who face considerable obstacles in learning English despite otherwise normal ability in their studies. Helping these students to find their way with English is critical to their success and enriches the teaching field.

A first step to helping these struggling students is to relate to the disabilities presented in their psychological evaluations and to arrange the learning and testing accommodations that will enable them to progress. Accommodations such as extended time and not penalizing students for spelling errors enable a large percentage of the learning disabled population to succeed. Others who have more severe problems require the redefinition of reading comprehension as the ability to understand academic texts when they are presented orally. They may require access to orally presented texts and/or may need assistance in writing. The computer can serve as an assistive device for such students. Computer programs are readily available which read digital documents aloud and which turn dictation into a digital file. These programs can allow learning disabled EAP students to access texts and work independently.

It is important to recognize that learning disabled students are individuals, and their disabilities are not all the same. There is a small percentage of students for whom the goal of achieving proficiency in English is not
realistic during their college years. For these students, each college needs a committee to review the situation and to determine the proper course of action. It is important in the case of a release from English studies that the formula used on the transcript clearly differentiates between those who have reached proficiency and thus are exempted from further English study; and those who cannot reach proficiency and are therefore released from further English studies because of their inability to advance in the mastery of English.

**Evaluation and Assessment**

Students are constantly given feedback on their coursework, on their written exercises, article reports, and tests. At the culmination of each course, students are tested at that level. A course grade of 60% or better is required for promotion to the next level. Beyond providing the instructor with an objective tool for assessing student achievement, examinations at all levels should provide learning experiences for the students. Authentic academic texts are the basis for the exemption and other level exams, and the texts should appeal to student interest and motivation.

Texts for testing purposes vary as to level of difficulty, length and genre. Authentic texts are used, though they may be abridged or simplified. Question-types vary and are suited to the level.

**Grades**

Passing grades will continue to follow the policy accepted at each college. The accepted passing grade for students transferring to another academic college will be recognized by all colleges. While it is strongly advised that student level should be verified by consulting with the coordinator of the college from which the student transferred, coordinators should endeavor to recognize the work students have completed at other teacher training colleges. However, coordinators need not feel compelled to recognize the exemptions from colleges which do not comply with this curriculum.

With the adoption of the M.Ed at the colleges, it is recommended that students meet the Masters level prerequisite for English of a grade of 80%. Those students who have not achieved a grade of 80% should be required to complete one additional course.

**Recommended Qualifications for Teaching Personnel**

The National Curriculum requires a highly professional staff in order to implement the course of study. Therefore, the following minimum requirements are recommended for the professional staff:

1. M.A.
2. Teaching experience in Israel
3. Knowledge of Hebrew or Arabic
4. Native-like proficiency in English
5. Observations of teaching performance prior to hiring
6. Teaching license or certificate
Basic (Mechina) Course

I Overview

The Basic Course is designed for students who:

- have not completed the 4 or 5 Point English Bagrut Exam and are accepted to the college on condition.
- are over age 30 and have not studied English previously or have limited proficiency.
- have scored below the minimum grade on the Psychometric test or the Amir test.
- are new immigrants who have not studied English previously. All immigrants who have studied English previously should be placed according to their scores on the Psychometric Exam.

II. Textual Materials and Methodology

Students are taught from textual sources mostly consisting of booklets produced by the colleges, and which have been compiled using material adapted from professional sources where possible, including the Internet. During the course, students will read simple text genres from authentic and abridged materials. Text materials are selected to expand receptive and active vocabulary as well as to reinforce previously learned vocabulary and structures. In the Basic Course, emphasis is placed on the skills needed for reading and writing.

On the macro-level the course emphasizes reading comprehension. Students are introduced to simple texts. Oral comprehension of English is an essential part of the course. L1 is used when necessary.

On the micro-level, lessons concentrate on grammatical aspects, not as discrete items, but within context. Therefore, within the context of how to read the basic English sentence, students are taught sentence structure and identifying subject, verb, and complement. They are taught the functions of the word within a sentence, parts of speech, word order, and changing functions (e.g. nouns which function as adjectives). From the sentence, students progress to the paragraph: main idea, supporting ideas, the function of the paragraph within the context of the text. Students are taught to:

- identify tenses in context
- identify the usual sentence order in English and its exceptions
- comprehend the function of punctuation
- identify noun phrases and verb phrases
- identify adjectives and adverbs
- comprehend reference words

Vocabulary Development and Dictionary Skills are crucial to student progress and are integrated at both macro and micro levels. Lessons emphasize:

- synonyms and antonyms
In the area of dictionary skills, students are taught to understand the advantages and limitations of the bilingual Learners’ English-English dictionary, and electronic and online dictionaries.

III. Assessment and Evaluation:

Students will be given an unseen text, accompanied by a variety of question-types. At this stage a narrative, descriptive, or argumentative text may prove most effective for examination purposes. They will be asked to demonstrate reading. The use of a text they have previously studied or prepared with a variety of questions is recommended as an additional approach to classroom assessment, although not for final examinations.

Intermediate Levels

I Overview

The Intermediate Level is usually divided into two courses of 60 hours each. These courses are designed to meet the needs of students who have tested according to the numerical score for the lower levels on the Psychometric Test (Intermediate I, 77-84; and Intermediate II, 85-99). Also included in this category are students who have completed the Basic Course successfully.

II. Textual Materials and Methodology

The Intermediate Courses are skill-intensive courses for the full range of language skills taught at a higher level than the Basic Course. There is a heavy emphasis on the teaching of vocabulary, and students are introduced to technological aids such as electronic and online dictionaries.

At the Intermediate Level, text materials are straight forward expository prose. Texts (500 to 1500 words in length) are abridged, authentic texts from educational and related-field magazines, the popular press, and books. Students are exposed to these materials in booklets prepared by the instructors which emphasize professionally relevant topics. A content-based instructional approach is recommended. The texts are organized in thematic units to enhance learning by recycling vocabulary and concepts. Besides current high interest articles, the booklets contain exercises and activities written by the staff to teach both reading comprehension and language skills.

On the macro-level, students are taught reading skills and strategies. These include understanding the text in terms of main idea and supporting details, and conventions of paragraph development (chronological order and sequence, process, inductive and deductive reasoning, cause and effect,
comparison and contrast, and analogy). They will be instructed in critical reading skills such as differentiating fact and opinion, inferring scales of meaning, bias, and propaganda, and identifying markers of certainty. Skimming and scanning techniques will be included in the course to enhance students' ability to read for meaning and speed.

On the micro-level, students are taught various aspects of English grammar as they arise naturally in the context of the texts presented. These include sentence structure (especially the structure of complex sentences); verb forms (including tenses, passive voice, modals, and conditionals); noun and verb phrases; parts of speech; reference markers, and punctuation. The focus is on understanding rather than production.

There will be intensive, active teaching of vocabulary. The aspects covered will be differentiation of active and passive vocabulary; synonyms, antonyms, homophones, and cognates; words with more than one meaning; affixes and base words; and guessing in context. Every effort should be made to recycle and review the vocabulary taught.

III. Assessment and Evaluation

Students at intermediate levels are assessed on both the texts they have studied and on novel texts which reflect the materials they have read during the course of the semester. Tests should focus on both global understanding of the text as well as close reading. Test questions are varied and include short, open-ended questions, true and false with justifications, multiple choice type questions, translations, charts, and short paraphrasing or completions. Novel texts should be used for final examinations.

IV. Integrating other skills at the Intermediate Level

Students are encouraged to use their understanding of LI as an aid in comprehending L2. Wherever feasible, comparisons and contrasts between L1 and L2 are noted. Moreover, translation is used to clarify and emphasize meaning and nuances. Just as the student's experiences may be integrated into any and all cognitive experiences, the students' language knowledge should also be acknowledged and used to the greatest advantage. In order to enhance the student's English language experience, oral proficiency is encouraged. Class activities serve to reinforce learning through group work, role play simulations, extemporaneous talks, and class discussions. These activities generally revolve around educational issues and topics students have read in the specially prepared booklets.

V. Projects and Extensive Reading.

Students are required to read narrative articles from the field of education as their extensive reading assignment. This aspect of the class work provides the student with an opportunity to independently apply the reading and language skills learned in class. The student is expected to prepare a short summary or graphic organizer or to answer questions pertaining to the article. Thus, a
start is made in introducing the writing element into the process. Often, students are asked to discuss the article with classmates in group activities.

Advanced I

I Overview

The Advanced I course is designed to meet the needs of students who scored according to the numerical score for Advanced I on the Psychometric Exam (100-119) or students who have successfully completed Intermediate II.

II. Textual Materials and Methodology

Students are taught from authentic texts, either in their entirety or abridged (1000-2000 words).

On the macro-level students are taught the structure of the research article with emphasis on understanding the title, introduction, hypothesis, procedure, method, results, conclusions and implications for the future. The articles emphasize abstract concepts and introduce terminology such as: contentions, implications, differentiating between opinions and factual data, inference, and summary. Students learn to use structural and contextual schemata to aid in text comprehension. Students learn to differentiate between text types (informal reports, case studies, newspaper articles, news stories, editorials, features, essays, research articles, abstracts, book reviews, descriptions, text book chapters, etc.). Some colleges have adapted study units which emphasize a single content area through a selection of texts which explore the subject from different disciplines.

On the micro-level, lessons emphasize:

a. Vocabulary. In order to build students' professional vocabulary, words are selected from the academic word list (Coxhead, 1998). Articles are often selected for the purpose of exposing students to new vocabulary and/or reinforcing previous learning. Attention is drawn to familiar words in unfamiliar contexts or new nuances.

b. Sentence Structure. Within the context of text comprehension, students engage in a continuing examination of the complex sentence and its features including: verbs, connectors, word order for emphasis, reduced relative clauses, conditionals, etc.

c. Paragraph Organization. Within the context of text comprehension, students continue to examine comparisons and contrasts, examples and analogies, sequential organization, cause and effect, hypothesis and proofs, and reasoning, both deductive (general to particular) and inductive (particular to general).

d. Comprehension. Students are taught to identify the writer's purpose, hypothesis, point of view and message. They learn to elicit information from graphs, illustrations, examples, analogies, contrasts and comparisons.
Students learn to ascertain the author's tone and style, and to understand their impact on the reader.

**e. Relevance.** Because articles are relevant to the students' academic disciplines, students are actively involved in the learning process. Texts are analyzed and discussed, and the writer's success in conveying the message is assessed. In addition, their applicability to the Israeli scene is always a point of discussion and/or evaluation. Whenever possible, comparisons are made with research done in Israel.

**III. Internet and Library Projects**

Advanced I students are required to do a personal project in which they use the Internet and the library databases to search for an academic article on a topic of professional interest. The articles must be in the fields of education, psychology, etc. Students receive guidance as to which journals are appropriate sources and the article chosen must be approved by the teacher. Students are required to present a written analysis of the article.

**IV. Assessment and Evaluation**

Texts for tests include authentic educational or related-field texts similar to the texts read and discussed during the course. The text is selected for its level of difficulty as well as its content. Question-types are varied, including multiple choice, short and long open-ended questions, and translations. Emphasis is placed on application of the skills learned during the semester, including global questions as well as those which demand close reading, inferences, comparisons, generalizations, and summaries.

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**Advanced II**

**I. Overview**

The Advanced II Level course is designed to meet the needs of students who have scored according to the numerical score for Advanced II on the Psychometric Exam (120-133) or students who have completed the Advanced I course.

**II. Textual Materials and Methodology**

The Advanced II Level students are taught from largely unabridged, authentic texts (1500 – 3000 words).

At the end of the Advanced II course, the students should be able to read, comprehend, and appreciate contemporary professional texts which do not rely heavily on unusual idioms, slang, and/or highly technical terminology. They should be able to relate to and comprehend a variety of styles and forms relevant to professional needs. They should be open to exploring and seeking to define unfamiliar cultural references. Most text nuances should be accessible to them and within their professional purview.
In conclusion, the students should be able to relate text inferences to reality-based knowledge. They should be able to understand the various ramifications of the text as they relate to other fields of knowledge within their social environment. On the performance level, they should be able to relate orally and in writing to relevant professional material. They should be able to explore issues further and incorporate the new knowledge into their studies.

On the **macro-level**, students learn to categorize the journal according to genre and level (popular, professional, or academic). Skimming and scanning exercises are used for an overview of the article including title, information concerning author, abstract, sub-titles, text coherence, illustrations, graphs, charts etc. Students should be able to relate to writer's style including satire, irony, qualifications, and inference.

On the **micro-level**, lessons stress a spiraling approach to skills taught during Advanced I, aspiring to higher level comprehension of paragraph organization including: comparisons and contrasts, examples and analogies, sequential organization, cause and effect, hypotheses and proofs. Students are encouraged to infer the reasoning approach used: deductive (general to particular) or inductive (particular to general).

### a. Text Analysis
Within the context of examining texts, lessons concentrate on: cohesion and reference and connectives. In the context of sentence functions, the following areas are discussed at this level: amplification, cause and effect, comparisons, conclusions, contrasts, definitions, descriptions, evaluations and judgments, evidence, problems, questions, findings and results, solutions, summary and conclusions.

### b. Critical Reading
In concluding their analysis of the text, students complete a guided summary of the main ideas of the text. They offer opinions and responses, identify the questions or problems which remain unresolved in the text in contrast to the author's stated aims, and identify the areas for further research both noted and not noted by the writer.

### III. Internet and Library Projects

Both Advanced I and Advanced II students are required to do a personal project in which they use the Internet and the library databases to search for one or more academic articles. The articles must be in the fields of education, psychology, etc. Students receive guidance as to which journals are appropriate sources and the material chosen must be approved by the teacher. Suitable sources include professional magazines and journals, both print versions and online versions such as *Educational Leadership, Phi Delta Kappan, Childhood Education, Psychology Today, The Reading Teacher, The Arithmetic Teacher, The Science Teacher, Social Education, The Special Education Teacher*. Students are required to present a written analysis of the article and, in Advanced 2, present their project in class.

Students are encouraged to integrate content knowledge acquired in the EAP program with seminar projects in other subjects studied at the college. The
objective of all project work is to help students become independent readers of academic texts in English beyond the EAP program

IV. Assessment and Evaluation

Students' reading comprehension is tested at the end of the Advanced II course. The examination consists of an authentic text (2000 - 3500 words) which may have been abridged, but not simplified, and questions. The content basis of the text is either education or an education-related topic. During the English for Academic Purposes courses, students have been exposed to a vast array of texts using education and psychology-related vocabulary. It is assumed that their learning will serve them well during the evaluative examination.

The final exemption examination has questions emphasizing both micro and macro approaches: multiple choice, True and False with justifications, English to Hebrew/Arabic translations, short and long completions, and guided summary. Students are expected to achieve a minimum grade of 60% (70% at some colleges).

V. Final Grade

a. The final grade for the exit level is composed of the grade on the proficiency test plus the grade on class work. The proportion should be standard for all students within each institution. The minimum proportion for the final exam should be 50%.

b. The class grade includes: homework, article reports, class participation, class exams, quizzes, and attendance.

References


Sample Tests with Texts

This section includes examples of tests for each of the levels described, Basic, Intermediate I, Intermediate II, Advanced I, and Advanced II. The texts are chosen based on their relevance to the professional interests of the students as well as their connection to the material taught in class.

The criteria for selecting texts for tests include appropriate content and suitable level. Multiple factors determine the level of a text: level of abstraction, vocabulary, and readability. Since readability and vocabulary are easily measured, we have included guidelines for these measures to aid in the selection of texts for testing. The suggested lengths are appropriate for a 1 1/2 to 2 hour testing session. The guidelines are presented in the table below.

Guidelines for Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Vocabulary 1-1000</th>
<th>AWL</th>
<th>Readability – Flesch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advanced II</td>
<td>2000-3500</td>
<td>Below 75</td>
<td>10 and above</td>
<td>30-45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced I</td>
<td>1000-2000</td>
<td>Below 75</td>
<td>10 and above</td>
<td>30-45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate II</td>
<td>750-1500</td>
<td>75-85</td>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>45-55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate I</td>
<td>500-1000</td>
<td>75-85</td>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>55-65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td>65 and over</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The length of a text can be determined by counting the words or by using the word count feature of most word processing programs or by using an online text analysis program. Vocabulary 1-1000 refers to the percentage of words in the text drawn from the 1000 most frequently used English words. Easier texts in general include a larger percentage of high-frequency words. AWL refers to the academic word list (Coxhead, 1998). This list is compiled from corpus studies, and it contains around 500 words that appear very frequently in academic texts. The Flesch Reading Ease figure is a popular readability measure based on the average length of the words in a text and the average length of the sentences. The higher the readability, the easier the text.

The Sample Texts at a Glance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Title of Article</th>
<th>Number Of Words</th>
<th>Words from 1-1000 Frequency Band</th>
<th>Words from 1000-2000 Frequency Band</th>
<th>Words from AWL</th>
<th>Flesch Reading Ease</th>
<th>Readability Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate I</td>
<td>Price of Success</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>83.65</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>60.85</td>
<td>60.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Intermediate I - Level 4 (Psychometric 77-84)

Article: The Price of Success

1. Like a soldier preparing for battle, Kensuke Suzuki leads a regimented life. He's up at 6:30 every morning. Gymnastics practice begins at 7:15. From 9 a.m. until 3:00 p.m. there is intensive class work, then four more hours of athletics. Dinner follows at 8 p.m. Three nights a week he attends an extra 80 minute academic session. Then comes homework and TV. Exhausted, by midnight Kensuke collapses into bed. It's a demanding schedule - especially when you're only 13 years old. Yet Kensuke plunges into his days with a chipper, can-do spirit. He knows the grinding classroom work and the afterdinner sessions at the supplementary school, or Juku, are part of the price of success in Japan's educational school system. "Sometimes I'm tired and I don't feel like going to Juku or gym practice," he concedes. But if I don't go, I'll fall behind."

2. Although his peers in most other countries would find Kensuke's schedule appalling, his is a typical day for Japanese junior high school students. Tokyo's ministry of education sets nation-wide standards for achievement, measuring what pupils actually know, rather than their aptitude. High marks assure admission to a top-ranked university and a good career; poor grades and test scores can mean a second-rate college and a job with little promise. The result is a near mania on the part of Japanese kids for memorization of facts, figures and formulas, which can be parroted back during exams.

3. To get an edge, more than half of Japan's urban junior-high students attend Juku. Kensuke started going when he was eleven. "My grades weren't so hot," he confides. His mother, Junko Suzuki, concedes that
special help is a good idea. "What high school he gets into depends entirely on his grade average, so if he doesn't get the extra tutoring, his future is at risk," she says. The classes, which cost about $100 a month, concentrate on one subject per session, including Japanese, math and English. Unlike the lockstep pace of the regular classroom, there's time at Juku for explanations if a student has trouble with a concept. "It's more fun to study there, I understand the material better."

4. Kensuke has already decided that he wants to attend Waseda University, a prestigious private school in Tokyo, from which his father, a civil engineer and construction company executive, graduated. He hopes to gain admission to the high school affiliated with Waseda, which should make getting into the university a bit easier. "If I can get into Waseda I think I'll be able to get a job with a good company," he says. Despite all the rigors of his schedule, Kensuke remains a happy, even cheerful child. He genuinely enjoys gymnastics - although sports will do him no good when it comes to getting into university. He enjoys music and has even exchanged puppy-love notes with a girl in his class. They haven't gone out on a date yet. After all, they see each other at school all the time.

Questions
1. Translate the following noun phrases.

   1) an extra 80 minute academic session 2) a demanding morning schedule
   3) Japan's educational school system 4) Japanese junior high-school students
   5) poor language grades 6) test scores
   7) Japan's urban junior-high students 8) grade average
   9) a prestigious private school 10) a construction company executive

2. Kensuke's rigid schedule

   a) made him hate school and schoolwork.
   b) caused him to be too tired to enjoy anything outside school.
   c) did not destroy his positive approach to life.
   d) forced him to do far more than he could.
3. Kensuke was willing to follow this schedule because
   (paragraph 2)  a) all Japanese children have the same program.
   b) his aim was to get into a very good university.
   c) the regular Japanese standards were too high.
   d) he learned how to memorize facts.

4. Mark: TRUE or FALSE. (paragraph 2). Justify from the text.
   Japanese standards of education do not take the mental ability of the
   student into consideration. TRUE/FALSE
   Justify:

5. The writer's attitude to "memorization of facts" is critical. TRUE/FALSE
   Justify:

Complete the sentences

7. Good grades are important in Japan because

8. Kensuke liked the Juku classes, since in the regular classes he

9. Translate the mother's statement in paragraph 3.

Article: Methods of Education: East Versus West

1. A teacher from a Western country recently visited an elementary school in
   an Asian country. In one class, she watched sixty young children as they
   learned to draw a cat. The class teacher drew a big circle on the
   blackboard, and sixty children copied it on their papers. The teacher drew
   a smaller circle on top of the first and then put two triangles on top of it.
   The children drew in the same way. The lesson continued until there were
sixty-one identical cats in the classroom. Each student's cat looked exactly like the one on the board.

2. The visiting teacher watched the lesson and was surprised. The teaching methods were very different from the way of teaching in her own country. A children's art lesson in her own country produced a room full of unique pictures, each one completely different from the others. Why? What causes this difference in educational methods? In a classroom in any country, the instructor teaches more than art or history or language. He or she also teaches culture (the ideas and beliefs of that society). Each educational system is a mirror that reflects the culture of the society.

3. In a society such as the United States or Canada, which has many national, religious, and cultural differences, people highly value individualism - the differences among people. Teachers place a lot of importance on the qualities that make each student special. The educational systems in these countries show these values. Students do not memorize information. Instead, they work individually and find answers themselves. There is often discussion in the classroom. At an early age, students learn to form their own ideas and OpInIOns.

Questions
1. From the title we understand that this text is about (5 points).
   a) communism and capitalism.
   b) studies in geography.
   c) approaches to teaching.
   d) problems between East and West.

2. Circle: TRUE or FALSE (5 points).
   The visiting teacher came from an oriental country. TRUE/FALSE
   Justify: (5 points)

3. In paragraph 1, line 8, the word "one" refers to (4 points)

4. Which of the three pictures below a, b or c shows the correct order
in which the teacher drew the cat on the board? Circle the correct option.

A   B   C

5. In paragraph 2 the visiting teacher was surprised because.
   a) there were sixty children in the class.
   b) the educational methods were so similar.
   c) the cats were all absolutely identical.
   d) the students were so well-disciplined.

(5 points)

6. How is the word "culture" defined in paragraph 27

(6 points)

7. Translate: "Each educational system is a mirror that reflects the culture of the society. (Paragraph 2, lines.7-8).

(8 points)

8. Paragraph 3. Circle: TRUE or FALSE. Justify from the text.

"Individualism" is a problem in countries such as Canada and USA.
TRUE/FALSE

J usitfy: (6 points)

   a) students to work individually.
   b) learners to present their views to others.
   c) the memorization of information.
   d) teachers to find answers themselves.

(5 points)


What is the negative aspect of the Asian system?
Translate: "When students graduate from high school, they haven't memorized as many basic rules and facts as students in other countries".

Intermediate II (Psychometric 85-99)
Article: Outstanding Teachers*

Abstract
This article is about four exceptional teachers who manage to motivate their students and foster the love of learning. All of them spent time and effort developing teaching programs that would appeal to different types of students. Their efforts lead to better student relationships and cooperation in class as well as higher academic achievement.

Peace Education
1. Diane Shatles takes a holistic approach to reading and writing. "In my classroom, books – not workbooks or worksheets- are most important," she says. Her teaching is child-centered. "I don't want to stand in front of the room and do all the talking," says Diane. "I want to encourage students to communicate with each other, and to cooperate."

2. Diane's philosophy of teaching comes together in a program she calls 'Conflict Resolution through Children's Literature'. She uses literature to teach concepts of peace education: acceptance of others, communication, cooperation, and conflict resolution. Her methods include such techniques as semantic mapping, role playing and creative writing.

3. Diane chose to focus on peace education because she had noticed that although her students' reading and writing were improving, the kids had a great deal of trouble getting along with each other. "I teach in a multi-racial school," she says. "I want the kids to respect differences, and I want them all to know that their ideas are important."

4. Students involved in the program start by discussing their experiences with different kinds of conflicts. Then they begin reading a story that contains a conflict situation, such as a fight. They stop reading just before the conflict is resolved and brainstorm for their own solutions. Once they have a good list of possibilities, the students evaluate each one and vote for the best. Then they finish the story and compare their solutions with those of the author's.
As a follow-up, Diane guides her students through role-playing activities to reinforce alternative methods of solving conflicts.

5. Does it work? Diane says that after teaching this way for a year she notices a marked increase in social understanding and far better student relationships. "By reading and writing stories about conflicts and suggesting different solutions," she says, "students learn to solve their differences creatively without resorting to violence."

6. A teacher for 23 years, Diane is also a veteran curriculum developer. Besides the conflict resolution curriculum, she has developed a bibliography of children's books dealing with conflict resolution themes.

Brain-Friendly Science
1. Kathleen Carroll believes that all her students are potential geniuses. If they don't show it, the reason is that she hasn't found the right way to reach them yet. Kathleen teaches science and coordinates her school's special program for gifted and talented children. She gets her students to read, talk, visualize, move, dance, sing, and act their way to understanding.

2. Kathleen maintains that in order to achieve long-term memory one needs to get students emotionally involved. She bases this approach on one school of brain research that has shown that the limbic system – the emotional center of the brain – is involved in long-term memory.

3. Kathleen, a teacher with 17 years experience, has successfully applied this theory to almost every aspect of her science curriculum. For example, she used her brain-friendly techniques in simulation games and hands-on activities to help her students understand pressing conservation issues, such as tropical rain forest destruction and energy use.

4. As part of a multi-faceted study unit, her students designed and constructed models of tropical rain forests, gave demonstrations and explanations on how they work. They also role-played people involved in deciding how to develop a part of the tropical rain forest. The project culminated in a musical play and slide show on tropical rain forests that Kathleen's students created and presented to the whole school.

5. For their study of energy use, students created songs, dances, and short plays. Then they produced a rock music video tape on energy consumption – a video made possible by a grant from the Washington Energy Office. Last year, Kathleen, who also lectures on accelerated learning at Trinity College, was selected as the outstanding teacher of gifted students for the Washington, D.C. public schools.

Math Carnival
1. As the math specialist at an inner-city middle school, Charla Couch spends a lot of time convincing her students that they can do the work. By the time these students come to her class, they've all failed in math for nearly seven years. They see themselves as losers – and so do their peers.
2. To help reverse this negative cycle, Charla devised a project that would boost her students' self-esteem and improve their image among their peers, as well as building their math skills. The project – a schoolwide math carnival – involved the children in her class in addition to some special education students.

3. Charla designed a detailed plan for the carnival with 23 separate booths for demonstrating different mathematical skills through games. The day of the carnival, the students whom Charla had trained took charge. Because they had practiced the math games for weeks, they knew exactly what to do once the carnival got underway. Her students explained to the visiting students how the games worked and handled any problems that arose during the carnival.

4. Her kids worked hard and were proud of what they did. Charla believes that because they had to teach something to others, they learned it better themselves. Her students’ test scores verify that belief; they improved far beyond all expectations. “But more important,” she says, “students who felt like losers became winners.”

Literary Expression
1. Tommy Delaney operates by a simple philosophy: a teacher isn’t judged by how he shines in the classroom, but by how he makes his students shine.

2. Tommy, a 20-year veteran, has a rather unusual job: he teaches at the Atlanta Youth Development Center, a center for delinquent boys ages 11 to 16. There he gets his students to shine by writing and publishing a literary magazine and a bi-monthly newsletter. By doing this, they learn to believe in their own potential and self-worth. “When these adolescents learn to express themselves in writing,” he says, “they’re less likely to have to fight society.”

3. The idea for the literary magazine and newsletter began with Tommy’s conviction that his middle-grade students would work harder and learn more if they could see tangible evidence of success. “Seeing their writing in print was the answer,” he says. “It gave them a purpose for learning the basic spelling, grammar, and writing techniques I emphasize during pre-publication work.”

4. Tommy does a lot of one-on-one coaching. Many of his students are deprived culturally, socially, economically, and educationally. He knows he can’t really teach them, unless he reaches their hearts. “Once I’ve broken down the barriers,” he says, “the magazine and the newsletter give the kids a sense of identity.”

5. Now six years old, the magazine – appropriately titled Reaching Out – is circulated statewide, with a growing number of subscriptions from libraries, schools, public officials, and private citizens. The bi-monthly newsletter, The Informer, is a vital communication link among the Youth Development Center staff. Furthermore, Tommy has inspired his students to write and produce plays, arrange talent shows, and participate in local speech contests.
6. Says Tommy, “I tell my students that they alone hold the key to their ultimate success. Their physical body can be incarcerated, but their imagination, creativity, and potential for success can never be shackled.”

*Abridged from Learning, September, 1989.

Questions

**Peace Education**

1. Diane’s teaching is child centered because she
   a. believes in a holistic approach to teaching.
   b. uses books rather than worksheets.
   c. encourages active student participation.
   d. prefers groups to frontal teaching.

2. What was the main problem in Diane’s class?

3. What were her two main aims?
   a) ________________________________
   b) ________________________________

4. Paragraph 4, translate into Arabic or Hebrew.

   “Once they have a good list of possibilities, the students evaluate each one and vote for the best.”

5. Diane’s methods have fostered not only ________________________________

   ________________________________ and

   ________________________________

   but also ________________________________.

**Brain-Friendly Science**

6. Paragraphs 1 and 2. Complete the sentence.
   Since Kathleen believes that in order to achieve ________________________________

   ________________________________ students must be ________________________________

7. The model of a tropical rain forest is an example of
a) using role-play to encourage memory.
b) how to clarify the functions of the brain.
c) getting the students emotionally involved.
d) using hands-on activities to teach science.

8. Mark TRUE or FALSE. Justify from the text.
Kathleen’s science project got financial support from the government.
TRUE / FALSE
Justify: ____________________________________________________________

Math Carnival
9. What were the three main aims of the math carnival?

a) ________________________________________________________________
b) ________________________________________________________________
c) ________________________________________________________________

10. Mark TRUE or FALSE. Justify from the text.
During the project, Charla helped her students cope with difficult situations.
TRUE / FALSE
Justify: ____________________________________________________________

Charla’s students learned from __________________________________________.
Their grades __________________________________________________________.
Their self-image changed and they felt they were __________________________ rather than __________________________.

Literary Expression
12. Explain the expression “A teacher isn’t judged by how he shines in the classroom, but by how he makes his students shine.”
______________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________

13. Tommy believes that if his delinquent boys learn to express themselves in writing, this will
a) prevent them from reacting violently against their peers.
b) teach them how to cope with social demands.
c) enable them to become future writers.
d) teach them the skills of publishing.

14. Tommy maintains that unless
_________________________________________
he will not be able to
_________________________________________

**Article: The Test Must Go On**

1. Most Western nations, including the U.S., envy Japan the benefits of its educational system. More than 90% of Japanese students graduate from 12th grade (in contrast to 76% in the U.S.) despite a demanding academic curriculum. By the end of 3rd grade, children must master 881 of 2,000 essential Japanese ideograms; by 6th grade they should know 1,000 more. During high school, the Japanese must learn more math and science than their American counterparts. By the time they take their college entrance exams, students are prepared to handle questions in English grammar, as well as Japanese, and in subject matter not generally approached until college in the U.S.

2. The system has served Japan well. Since World War II, it has produced a highly literate and mathematically capable population. It also prepares students for smooth entry into an overcrowded and competitive society that sets a high value on the virtues of discipline and cooperation. In a carefully ordered culture like Japan's, high educational achievement is virtually the only guarantee of a successful career. The Japanese industrial and occupational structure requires the Japanese education and selection systems. Furthermore, students, who go onto a technical course instead of higher education, are aware that everyone will know that they have not succeeded educationally.

3. Serious schooling begins early. From the time children first set foot in school, at age six, they are faced with seven hours of classes a day, 240 days a year - and 12 years of unremitting pressure. Twice a year they must take exams to get into one of the very prestigious public universities. Students devote almost all their waking hours to studies. In addition to regular classes and half-days on Saturdays, they often spend up to five additional hours at special private schools to improve exam grades. These special schools are not just for high school students. A recent survey of Tokyo area youths found that 75% of 4th, 5th, and 6th graders were enrolled in some sort of course to has trouble with a concept. "It's more fun to
study there, I understand the material better."
overcome early exam difficulties and get a head start on becoming one of
the 96,000 students accepted each year by public universities. The last
years are the hardest, says Jin Watanabe, a 10th grader. "On the first day
of 10th grade the teachers will tell you how many days you have left till
the final university exams begin."

4. Japanese students have a name for the annual examination rite:
"examination hell". Each year some 700,000 students (32% of Japanese
high school graduates) go on to college, but a candidate may apply to only
one top university. Because government ministries and top firms all take
their employees from a handful of universities, having to settle for a low-
ranking institution is an almost irreversible disaster. The thousands of
students who do not get accepted at the one university of their choice
spend a year, sometimes even two, in cram schools preparing to try again.
The ultimate measure of success: acceptance by the 14,000-student Tokyo
University. Since all the national universities have a single standard exam,
academic security is taken very seriously. When an exam proctor asked
University administrators what to do in case of a bomb threat, they said,"Use your head, the exam must go on."

5. Preoccupation with exams leads the Japanese to emphasize memorization
rather than analytical thinking. The pedagogy is simple: the teacher talks,
the students listen. A teacher in Tokyo says: "The school system doesn't
let teachers teach well, and students lose their individuality". A 12th
grader adds, "For tests you only memorize, which you forget as soon as
the exams are over".

6. Some students are beginning to take an uncharacteristically disrespectful
course: open rebellion. Youth crime has jumped 12.4% in the past year,
with youths accounting for almost half of all criminal offenders in Japan.
Violence in schools has increased 42% since 1980, and most of the crimes
are committed against teachers.

7. Most students agree that surviving years of "exam hell"
provides one with a common experience, which lasts through
life. But there are those who do not survive. The pressure to do
well can become so intense that some students commit suicide,
even before attempting college entrance exams. The teenage
suicide rate in Japan is 17.6 per 100,000 and almost all of it is
thought to be related to academic stress. Indeed the universities
do not offer much consolation. One sent this message to a
rejected candidate: "You cannot go on living unless you are
tough."
Questions

1. Why is Japan's educational system held up as an example?

2. Complete the sentence with information given in paragraph one.
   During high school, Japanese students matter. that students in the U.S.

3. In paragraph 2, the writer stresses
   a) the positive aspects of the educational system.
   b) some negative aspects of the Japanese industrial structure.
   c) positive as well as negative aspects of the educational system.
   d) the importance of academic success in order to get a job.

4. The main idea in paragraph 3 deals with the Japanese students'
   a) test schedules for acceptance into universities.
   b) efforts to achieve grades high enough to get into universities.
   c) devotion to studies from a very early age.
   d) the opportunity to study at special private schools.

5. Paragraph 4 has a cause and its effect. What are they?
   Cause:
   Effect:

6. List THREE aspects of the Japanese system of education:
   a)
   b)
   c)

7. What does the word "one" in paragraph 7, line 1, refer to?

8. Mark TRUE or FALSE. Quote from the text to support
a) The writer blames the educational system for the increase in crime among youth. TRUE/FALSE
Quote:

b) Academic institutions in Japan are worried about the negative aspects of the educational system. TRUE/FALSE
Quote:

Advanced I (Psychometric 100-119)

Article: Individual Differences: Changing Conceptions in Research and Practice*

1. Research on individual differences has undergone substantial changes in recent years. In most cases, these changes reflect new conceptions of the nature of individual differences that have their roots in social-philosophy. For example, early work on individual differences that began with Galton, Binet, and others, conceived of individual differences in a manner that could be characterized as a form of elitism - that is, some people have it and some people do not. Psychometric work on intelligence followed. Although there was some concern for a theoretical conception of intelligence (Spearman, 1923; Thurstone, 1924), this concern never became a major aspect of traditional psychometric research on individual differences.

2. Experimental psychologists were interested in discovering the fundamental principles of learning. This topic is at the very heart of education. Following World War II, the general social philosophy and psychological conceptions of human behavior that influence educational research, began to acknowledge that learning is an active, constructive process. Although cognitive psychological research was primarily interested in identifying various cognitive processes, other changes occurred. There was a growing feeling that individual differences in performance were largely the result of differences in the learning experiences that individuals have had (Hunt 1962) and not the result of talent, ability, and other factors emphasized by traditional, elitist ideas of individual differences.

3. These changing conceptions have interacted in interesting ways to influence current research on individual differences. Expert/novice
differences in. knowledge and performance are explored in this article. Although research in this area is heavily influenced by cognitive psychology (Chi, Glazer and Rees, 1982), it also reflects the change toward more egalitarian thinking. At one time, individual differences in expertise typically would have been explained in terms of general ability or talent - for example, experts knew more because they learned things more quickly or had the "ability" to process new information more effectively.

4. Now, the point is that experts have had more experience and have more knowledge than novices, and identifying how this affects the knowledge of experts and novices is significant. Note how the term novice implies a potential for becoming an expert, unlike the terms that have been used previously to refer to individuals lacking expertise, terms such as poor learners, low ability, and so forth. A good example for this orientation is evident in this quote from two early researchers in the field: "Although there must be a set of specific aptitudes that comprise a talent for chess, individual differences in such aptitudes are largely overshadowed by immense individual differences in chess experience. Hence, the over- riding factor in chess skill is practice." (Chase and Simon, 1973).

5. However, differences in amount of knowledge or superior reasoning and memory ability are not sufficient to explain differences in the way experts and novices perform. Contrary to what might be expected, for example, chess masters do not think further ahead than novices. Both use the same strategies and consider about the same number of alternatives before making a move - if anything, masters consider fewer alternatives than novices. In addition, masters and novice-players are able to remember the same number of piece locations when chess pieces are arranged randomly on the board, indicating that they have comparable short-term memory. Similarly, Chi (1978) found that 10 year old children, who play tournament chess recall more chess positions than adults who have little knowledge of chess, a reversal of the normal development differences in which adults recall more than children.

6. Masters excel over novices only when they are able to take advantage of the superior organization and structure in chess knowledge that they possess. Their superior performance is not due to superior memory ability, reasoning power, or amount of knowledge, but rather in the way that their knowledge is structured.

7. Expert/novice differences have been studied most extensively in the context of solving physics problems. These problems are well-defined in that there is a particular solution that everyone would agree is the correct one. In nearly all these studies the experts were faculty members or graduate students in physics, and the novices were under-graduates who had just completed a relevant course
such as first year physics. It is worthwhile to note that the novices had all received some instruction relevant to doing the problems. They were not total novices but lacked the additional formal instruction or extensive practice in solving physics problems that were characteristic of the physics experts (Champagne et al., 1982).

8. The typical procedure was to present physics problems to both the experts and the novices and ask them to think aloud, while solving the problem (after receiving special instructions on how to do this task). The purpose of the investigation was not to evaluate the correctness of the solution between experts and novices. Rather, the investigators were concerned with qualitative not quantitative differences between the two groups - that is, what techniques are used by experts and novices in problem-solving.

9. A number of interesting qualitative differences in the performance of experts and novices emerge from this study:
   a. Experts tend to perform a qualitative analysis of the physics problems before deciding which equations to use, whereas novices tend to focus on syntactic translation of the problem.
   b. Novices tend to focus on literal objects and/or key terms, whereas experts tend to identify characteristics and conditions of the physical situation described in the problem (Chi et al. 1982).

These and other results seem to prove that the experts centered their thinking around the principles of physics, whereas the novices centered around objects and required specific goals in solving the problems.

10. Many problems are ill-defined, especially those encountered in the social sciences, meaning that there is no commonly agreed on answer, and solutions can be a matter of opinion. Research in this area of problem-solving is just beginning. Voss, et al. suggest that at least for political science problems, solutions to ill-defined problems can be evaluated by determining whether a particular solution is:
    a. Possible in relation to the limitations created by the problem itself.
    b. By determining whether a solution is logical in the light of the history of the problem. There is also a difficulty in determining what constitutes a solution to an ill-defined problem since solutions are not immediately testable.

11. The problem was presented to: four political science faculty members and experts in the Soviet Union; six under-graduate students who had completed a course in Soviet domestic problems - the novices; and four political science faculty members - non-experts in the Soviet Union and four chemistry faculty members. All of these individuals were asked to
think aloud while solving
the following problem: "Assume you are the head of the Soviet Ministry of Agriculture and assume crop productivity has been low over the past several years. You now have the responsibility of increasing crop production. How would you go about doing this?"

12. The experts (political scientists with Soviet Union expertise) spent a great deal of time developing a problem representation, similar to the behavior of physics experts solving the well-defined problem. They categorized their reasoning according to political, economic, social factors and then kept returning to their original problem representation. In this way they experimented with new ways to eliminate the cause that had been originally identified. The novices, on the other hand, suggested a relatively large number of simple solutions without developing any of them to any extent.

13. If we examine the problem-solving techniques of the others involved in the project, we discover that the political scientists whose expertise was specifically in the U.S.S.R., behaved more like experts than novices. They developed a problem representation and then developed a solution. They differed from those who were specialists in that they offered fewer implications and supported their arguments with less specific factual information. The chemists resembled the novices because they did not develop a problem representation. Since they lack both experience in political analysis and knowledge of the Soviet Union, this seems to indicate that experts must have both specific and general knowledge for problem solving.

14. Although there are similarities in terms of the behaviors of experts in both physics and political science in problem representation, there were differences in problem-solving of well-defined and ill-defined problems. Individuals clearly differ with regard to competence or expert/novice differences. Although these differences are related to how much an individual knows, they are not conceptualized in terms of talent and/or ability, as has been the case with so much of the earlier research on individual differences. Rather, they are thought of as differences that exist in individuals having differing amounts of knowledge in a particular area.

15. As an individual acquires knowledge about a particular topic, his or her knowledge structure gradually changes qualitatively as well as quantitatively. Consequently, the way in which an individual goes about solving a problem or learning some new material, is influenced by what he has already learned. As an individual learns more, he will gradually acquire the higher-level performance characteristic of experts.
16. One important implication of this research for teaching is the realization that apparent differences in learning ability among students may merely reflect knowledge deficits that can be remedied through additional instruction, rather than ability differences that are unlikely to be changed through educational intervention. Thus, this research offers the likelihood that additional instruction and effort in helping novices to learn will not be wasted on students who are not capable of learning. Once differences between experts and novices have been identified, we can turn our attention toward finding appropriate ways of helping a novice become an expert.

17. It seems extremely unlikely, however, that effective teaching will merely consist of providing the learner with more and more knowledge. For example, it has been found that experts develop a way of looking at a problem which novices do not. Does this mean that we should provide students with the problem representations used by experts, as an integral part of instruction? Or should they be encouraged to form their own presentations while learning? Other individual differences exist; for example novices may or may not be slow learners.


Questions

Exercises:

1. Vocabulary. The following terms appear in the article. Locate, define the terms. Write a paragraph summarizing the ideas expressed in the article which include these terms.
2. List the researchers and their contributions. (paragraphs 1-5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF RESEARCHER</th>
<th>CONTRIBUTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. What is the hypothesis of this article?

3. The game of chess was introduced to

a) compare the way experts and novices perform.

b) show that both novices and experts had similar short-memory. c) show experts take advantage of better organization and structure. d) all of the above.

4. The problem-solving project on the U.S.S.R. was introduced to

a) show that Soviet specialists and novices behaved similarly. b) show that novices and chemists behaved similarly. c) show that all experts behaved similarly. d) show that all experts behaved differently.
Article: Sexually Active Teenagers Are More Likely to Be Depressed and to Attempt Suicide
by Robert E. Rector, Kirk A. Johnson, Ph.D., and Lauren R. Noyes
Center for Data Analysis Report #03-04

Teenage sexual activity is an issue of widespread national concern. Although teen sexual activity has declined in recent years, the overall rate is still high. In 1997, approximately 48 percent of American teenagers of high-school age were or had been sexually active.

The problems associated with teen sexual activity are well-known. Every day, 8,000 teenagers in the United States become infected by a sexually transmitted disease. This year, nearly 3 million teens will become infected. Overall, roughly one-quarter of the nation's sexually active teens have been infected by a sexually transmitted disease (STD).

The problems of pregnancy and childbearing among unmarried young women are also severe. In 2000, some 240,000 children were born to girls aged 18 or younger. Nearly all these teenage mothers were unmarried. These mothers and their children have an extremely high probability of long-term poverty and welfare dependence. Less widely known are the psychological and emotional problems associated with teenage sexual activity. The present study examines the linkage between teenage sexual activity and emotional health. The findings show that:

When compared to teens who are not sexually active, teenage boys and girls who are sexually active are significantly less likely to be happy and more likely to feel depressed.

When compared to teens who are not sexually active, teenage boys and girls who are sexually active are significantly more likely to attempt suicide.

Thus, in addition to its role in promoting teen pregnancy and the current epidemic of STDs, early sexual activity is a substantial factor in undermining the emotional well-being of American teenagers.

DATA SOURCE AND METHODS
The data used in this analysis are taken from the National Longitudinal Survey of Adolescent Health, Wave II, 1996. This Adolescent Health (Ad-Health) survey is a nationwide survey designed to examine the health-related behaviors of adolescents in middle school and high school. Its public-use database contains responses from approximately 6,500 adolescents, representative of teenagers across the nation. The survey is funded by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). This analysis focuses on the link between sexual activity and emotional well-being among teens in high school years (ages 14 through 17). The Ad-Health survey asks students whether they have "ever had sexual intercourse." For purposes of analysis, teens who answered yes to this question are labeled as "sexually active" and those who answered no are labeled as "not sexually active."

The survey also records the emotional health of teens. Students are asked how often, in
the past week, they “felt depressed.” They are provided with four possible answers to the
question: They felt depressed

(a) Never or rarely,
(b) Sometimes,
(c) A lot of the time, or
(d) Most of the time or all of the time.

For purposes of analysis, the classification of depressed is given to those teens who
answered yes to options “c” or “d”—that is, they said they felt depressed a lot, most, or
all of the time. Thus, throughout the paper, the terms “depressed” or “depression” refer to
this general state of continuing unhappiness rather than to a more specific sense of
clinical depression.

SEXUAL ACTIVITY AND DEPRESSION
The Ad-Health data reveal substantial differences in emotional health between those
teens who are sexually active and those who are not.

A full quarter (25.3 percent) of teenage girls who are sexually active
report that they are depressed all, most, or a lot of the time. By contrast,
only 7.7 percent of teenage girls who are not sexually active report that
they are depressed all, most, or a lot of the time. Thus, sexually active girls
are more than three times more likely to be depressed than are girls who
are not sexually active.

Some 8.3 percent of teenage boys who are sexually active report that they
are depressed all, most, or a lot of the time. By contrast, only 3.4 percent
of teenage boys who are not sexually active are depressed all, most, or a
lot of the time. Thus, boys who are sexually active are more than twice as
likely to be depressed as are those who are not sexually active.

Fully 60.2 percent of sexually inactive girls report that they “rarely or never” feel
depressed. For sexually active teen girls, the number is far lower: only 36.8 percent.
Overall, for either gender, teens who are not sexually active are markedly happier than
those who are sexually active.

The link between teen sexual activity and depression is supported by clinical experience.
Doctor of adolescent medicine Meg Meeker writes, “Teenage sexual activity routinely
leads to emotional turmoil and psychological distress…. [Sexual permissiveness leads] to
empty relationships, to feelings of self-contempt and worthlessness. All, of course, are
precursors to depression.”[5]

SEXUAL ACTIVITY AND ATTEMPTED SUICIDE
The Ad-Health survey also asks students whether they have attempted suicide during the
past year. As the data show, the link between sexual activity and attempted suicide is
clear.

A full 14.3 percent of girls who are sexually active report having attempted suicide. By
contrast, only 5.1 percent of sexually inactive girls have attempted suicide. Thus, sexually
active girls are nearly three times more likely to attempt suicide than are girls who are not
sexually active.

Among boys, 6.0 percent of those who are sexually active have attempted suicide. By
contrast, only 0.7 percent of boys who are not sexually active have attempted suicide. Thus, sexually active teenage boys are eight times more likely to attempt suicide than are boys who are not sexually active.

SOCIAL FACTORS
The differences in emotional health between sexually active and inactive teens are clear. However, it is possible that the differences in emotional well-being might be driven by social background factors rather than sexual activity itself. For example, if students of lower socioeconomic status are more likely to be sexually active, the greater frequency of depression among those teens might be caused by socioeconomic status rather than sexual activity.

To account for that possibility, additional analysis was performed in which each teen was compared to other teens who were identical in gender, age, race, and income. The introduction of these background variables had no effect on the correlations between sexual activity and depression and suicide. In simple terms, when teens were compared to other teens who were identical in gender, race, age and family income, those who were sexually active were significantly more likely to be depressed and to attempt suicide than were those who were not sexually active.

TEENS EXPRESS REGRETS OVER SEXUAL ACTIVITY
The significantly lower levels of happiness and higher levels of depression among sexually active teens suggest that sexual activity leads to a decrease in happiness and well-being among many, if not most, teenagers. This conclusion is corroborated by the fact that the majority of sexually active teens express reservations and concerns about their personal sexual activity.

For example, a recent poll by the National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy asked the question, “If you have had sexual intercourse, do you wish you had waited longer?”[6] Among those teens who reported that they had engaged in intercourse, nearly two-thirds stated that they wished they had waited longer before becoming sexually active. By contrast, only one-third of sexually active teens asserted that their commencement of sexual activity was appropriate and that they did not wish they had waited until they were older. Thus, among sexually active teens, those who regretted early sexual activity outnumbered those without such concerns by nearly two to one.

Concerns and regrets about sexual activity are strongest among teenage girls. Almost three-quarters of sexually active teen girls admit they wish they had delayed sexual activity until they were older. Among sexually active teenage girls, those with regrets concerning their initial sexual activity outnumbered those without regrets by nearly three to one.

The dissatisfaction and regrets expressed by teenagers concerning their own sexual activity is striking. Overall, a majority of sexually active boys and nearly three-quarters of sexually active girls regard their own initial sexual experience unfavorably—as an event they wish they had avoided.

DISCUSSION
While the association between teen sexual activity and depression is clear, that association may be subject to different theoretical interpretations. For example, it might be that depressed teenagers turn to sexual activity in an effort to escape their depression. In this interpretation, the link between sexual activity and depression might be caused by
a higher level of sexual activity among those who are already depressed before commencing sexual activity. Thus, depression might lead to greater sexual activity rather than sexual activity’s leading to depression.

In limited cases, this explanation may be correct; some depressed teens may experiment with sexual activity in an effort to escape their depression. However, as a general interpretation of the linkage between depression and teen sexual activity, this reasoning seems inadequate for two reasons. First, the differences in happiness and depression between sexually active and inactive teens are widespread and are not the result of a small number of depressed individuals. This is especially true for girls. Second, the fact that a majority of teens express regrets concerning their own initial sexual activity strongly suggests that such activity leads to distress and emotional turmoil among many, if not most, teens.

Hence, the most likely explanation of the overall link between teen sexual activity and depression is that early sexual activity leads to emotional stress and reduces teen happiness.

Moreover, theoretical questions about whether teen sexual activity leads to depression or, conversely, whether depression leads to teen sexual activity should not distract attention from the clear message that adult society should be sending to teens. Teens should be told that sexual activity in teen years is clearly linked to reduced personal happiness. Teens who are depressed should be informed that sexual activity is likely to exacerbate, rather than alleviate, their depression. Teens who are not depressed should be told that sexual activity in teen years is likely to substantially reduce their happiness and personal well-being.

CONCLUSION

Sexual activity among teenagers is the major driving factor behind the well-publicized problems of the high incidence of teenage STDs and teen pregnancy. The analysis presented in this paper also shows that sexual activity is directly connected to substantial problems among teens regarding emotional health.

Teenagers of both genders who are sexually active are substantially less likely to be happy and more likely to be depressed than are teenagers who are not sexually active. Teenagers of both genders who are sexually active are substantially more likely to attempt suicide than are teenagers who are not sexually active.

Until recently, society provided teenagers with classroom instruction in “safe sex” and “comprehensive sex education.”[7] In general, these programs fail to provide a strong message to delay sexual activity, fail to deal adequately with the long-term emotional and moral aspects of sexuality, and fail to provide students with the skills needed to develop intimate loving marital relationships as adults.

Over the past five years, there has been a growth in “abstinence education” programs that stand in sharp contrast to “safe sex” programs. The best abstinence education programs teach:

The primary importance of delaying sexual activity,

That human sexual relationships are predominantly emotional and moral rather than physical in character, and

That teen abstinence is an important step leading toward a loving marital relationship as an adult.
Such abstinence education programs are uniquely suited to meeting both the emotional and the physical needs of America’s youth.

Questions
1. Which problems associated with teenage sexuality does this research focus on?
   a. Sexually transmitted diseases among teenagers
   b. Teenage pregnancy and the resulting health problems
   c. Increased rates of depression and suicide among sexually active teenagers
   d. Out of wedlock childbearing and the probability of long-term poverty

2. Describe the subjects in this study.
   Number of subjects ________________________
   Age ________________________

3a. How was depression defined?
3b. How was depression measured?

   ______________________________________________________________
   ______________________________________________________________

4. What was the relationship between sexual activity and depression? Complete the table below with statistics from the text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotional State/ Sexual Activity</th>
<th>Sexually active</th>
<th>Not sexually active</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depressed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. According to the data in the table in question 4, what is the relationship between teenage sexual activity and happiness?

   ______________________________________________________________
   ______________________________________________________________

6a. Who is more likely to attempt suicide, a sexually active boy or a sexually active girl?

   ______________________________________________________________

6b. What data supports your answer?

   ______________________________________________________________
   ______________________________________________________________

7. What is the attitude of sexually active teenagers about the fact that they are sexually active?

   ______________________________________________________________
8. **Why** do the authors present the results of a second survey, the survey by the National Campaign to Prevent Teenage Pregnancy?

9. According to the authors, does sexual activity lead to depression or does depression cause teenagers to become sexually active?

10a. The authors comment on two kinds of sexuality education. Which is more similar to the message given to religious youth?

10b. Why? (Explain from your own knowledge).

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**Advanced II (Psychometric 120-133)**

**Article: Reading Aloud in Classrooms: From the Modal Toward a "Model"**

by James Hoffman, Nancy L. Roser & Jennifer Battle


**Part 1**

1. Reading to children is to literacy education as two aspirins and a little bed rest were to the family doctor in years gone by. Students have an impoverished vocabulary? Read to them. Students struggling with comprehension? Read to them. Students beset with negative attitudes or lacking in motivation? Read to them. Students have second language acquisition problems? Read to them. Reading to children has also been prescribed as a preventive measure: Want to ensure children's success in school? Want your children to read early? Read to them. *Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson,
Hieber, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985), the tendered blueprint for a literate society, drew the bold conclusion that reading to children is "the single most important activity for building the knowledge required for eventual success" in learning to read (p. 23).

2. Indeed, there is both research evidence and testimony to the value of reading to young children (Chomsky, 1972; Cochran-Smith, 1984; McCormick, 1977; Teale, 1984). Researchers have worked to describe the language interactions of storybook reading events toward the goal of further understanding children's meaning-making strategies, their personal responses, and the aspects of collaboration that are part of vital story discussions (e.g., Cochran-Smith, 1984; Cullinan, Harwood, & Galda, 1983; Green & Harker, 1982; Roser, Hoffman, & Farest, 1990; Teale, Martinez, & Glass, 1989).

3. But how knowledgeable are we about the pervasiveness of such a seemingly valuable practice? Is one form of story time as good as any other? If not, why not? What makes for a quality read-aloud time that contributes to children's language and literacy growth as well as to their literary understanding? In order to explore these issues, we examined reading aloud in the classroom from two perspectives - the first, a broadly sampled survey of current read-aloud practices, and the second, a distillation of story-time research literature to extract the crucial elements of read-aloud events. Specifically, this article is a report of the exploration of two questions: What are the current practices in story time across the U.S., and, based on research evidence, what are promising read-aloud practices within the classroom?

**Surveying read-aloud practices**

4. Austin and Morrison's (1963) mammoth survey of reading instruction reported that primary-grade teachers tended to plan a read-aloud time for their classrooms but did not consider this story time part of "reading instruction." Intermediate-grade teachers, by contrast, did not feel they had enough time during the school day for reading aloud. Neither frequency data nor book choices were reported.

5. Other investigations yielded similar findings. In 1971, Hall reported the extent and types of literature experiences provided by classroom teachers. These data were collected through questionnaires completed by 84 student teachers in the Washington-Baltimore area who reported on their cooperating teachers' classrooms. Hall found that fewer than half of the teachers read to children on a daily basis and 76% of the teachers did not seem to plan their literature program. Hall's frequency findings are similar to studies of other researchers in 1990.

6. Even young children may not be involved in daily story time. Morrow's (1982) investigation of literature activities in pre-kindergarten and kindergarten classrooms revealed that teachers, on average, read only 12 stories in a 4-week period and engaged the students in discussions an average of 6.5 times.
7. While informative, these studies do not present a very broad or current description of read-aloud practices. In an effort to further assess the characteristics of the read-aloud experience in the classroom, we developed a questionnaire that focused on several aspects of the story-time experience. We were interested in particular, in areas related to:

- the frequency or regularity of the read-aloud experience;
- the choice and organization of the literature being shared;
- the distribution of time (e.g., reading aloud versus discussion);
- the response opportunities and options offered to children.

8. The 17-item questionnaire was directed to preservice teachers who were assigned to classroom field experiences. The respondents were asked to report their observations related to their **most recent visit** to an elementary classroom. They were also asked to characterize the school setting in terms of factors such as the students served (e.g., ethnicity, class size, socioeconomic levels) and the availability of library resources. Finally, in an attempt to establish the representativeness of the observations, respondents were asked about the number of hours they observed in the classroom, the regularity of their visits to these classrooms, and whether the read-aloud experience they observed (if any) was typical.

9. Packets of questionnaires were sent to 54 major institutions with teacher education programs across the U.S. Professional colleagues were asked to distribute these questionnaires to students enrolled in preservice field experience courses in teacher education programs. A total of 537 classroom questionnaires were returned with responses from a cross-section of teaching institutions. The 537 classrooms were mixed in income level and diverse in student ethnicity. The respondents reported spending, on average, 6 hours in the classroom on the day they completed the survey. The findings from the survey are reported based on the four major foci of the questionnaire.

**The frequency of the read-aloud experience**

10. Overall, 74% of the observers reported that teachers read aloud to their classes on the day they observed. Although the likelihood of a read-aloud experience was somewhat higher in the kindergarten and primary grades (76%) versus the intermediate grades (69%), the pattern is more positive than previous studies have suggested. No discernible patterns were found in the frequency of the read-aloud time as a function of school size, community characteristics (i.e., high, middle, or low income), or ethnicity of the student population.

**The choice and organization of the literature read aloud**
11. A total of 127 different authors and 217 titles were reported across the entire sample. The most frequently mentioned authors and titles were identified. They included Bill Martin, Jr., Maurice Sendak, Roald Dahl, with Judy Blume the most frequently read. Overall, the selection of literature seemed carefully chosen and of high quality, reflecting highly recommended books for children.

12. We also asked the observers to report whether or not the book shared was correlated with a unit of study, and if the answer was "yes," to explain how it was related. The dominant pattern was for the read-aloud selection to be independent of a unit framework. Only 34% of the time across all grade levels were the books related to a study unity. The only clear exception to this pattern was at the kindergarten level, in which the majority of books read aloud were related to an on-going study. When the read-aloud book was drawn from a unit, those units were almost always based on a content area of investigation (e.g., a dinosaur book relating to a science study). Only in rare occurrences was the book tied to literature study, such as the discovery of genre characteristics, character study, or the uncovering of literary elements.

13. We examined the distribution of time devoted to story reading in two separate ways. First, we asked our observers to report the total amount of time teachers actually spent reading aloud. The most commonly reported pattern was for story time to take from 10 to 20 minutes. The next most common pattern was for story time to take between 5 and 10 minutes. Another way to think about these data is that reading took 20 minutes or less in 88% of the reported cases.

14. Second, we examined the amount of time the teacher spent with the class discussing the book both before and after reading. In all cases, the most frequently occurring response was that fewer than 5 minutes were devoted to discussion, either before or after the actual reading of the story. Only 3% of the teachers spent 20 minutes or more discussing the story after reading.

15. The survey respondents were also asked to describe the numbers and types of extension opportunities the teacher offered after the read-aloud time. These opportunities were classified as writing, drawing, dramatizing, or "other." Results indicated that response opportunities were provided in fewer than one-quarter of the observed read-alouds. When response
opportunities were offered, the two most common forms of response were writing (36%) and drawing (36%). Dramatization (10%) and "other" (13%) response options (such as cooking and construction) were less frequently observed.

16. One way to summarize the data from this study is to look at the modal, or most frequently occurring, features of story-time. Based on these data, if a visitor entered an elementary classroom tomorrow, the visitor would likely characterize the read-aloud experience in the following way: The classroom teacher reads to students from a book for a period between 10 and 20 minutes. The chosen literature is not connected to a unit of study in the classroom. The amount of discussion related to the book takes fewer than 5 minutes, including talk before and after the reading. Finally, no literature response activities are offered.

17. As mentioned, these data seem to suggest a greater prevalence of story-time than has been reported in previous survey studies. However, the quality of the prevailing read-aloud experience is still open to question. The purposes and values of story time cannot be directly derived from the survey sample, yet it is clear that reading aloud is not an integral part of the instructional day and may not be realizing its full potential.

18. However, a caution should be noted in interpreting these data. Although over 95% of the respondents reported that they visited their classes regularly and that their survey responses were based on a fairly typical day, the classrooms themselves may be atypical because these classrooms were identified as placements for prospective teachers. It is reasonable to assume, then, that they offer the best of what is available and current in terms of exemplary teaching practices. Therefore, these data are more likely representative of the best, as opposed to typical, teaching models.

Part 2: Toward a "model" of what read-aloud practices could be

19. The second phase of this project focused on an examination of research literature for notions that could contribute to the identification of model story-time features. We use the term model here to refer to a set of hypothesized characteristics supported by evidence, rather than "model" in the sense of an ideal. What might a "model" read-aloud program look like? What features has research tended to associate with a quality read-aloud experience? Although there are no definitive answers, there is at least an accruing set of characteristics suggested by researchers. A "model" read-aloud experience, then, may include such factors as the following:

Designating a legitimate time and place in the daily curriculum for reading aloud
20. When a regular time is planned and set aside in the school day for reading aloud to students, there is greater likelihood that the event will be expected, will occur, and will assume a place of importance in the school day. Research tends to support a daily 20-minute period (or longer) for reading aloud.

Selecting quality literature

21. When students are exposed to carefully selected pieces of quality text (e.g. stories with enduring themes and meaty plots, poems that touch and enlighten), students are more likely to develop a long-term relationship with literature. In addition, the benefits gained by children in language growth, critical thinking, and depth of response have been reported by researchers.

Sharing literature related to other literature

22. Drawing literature together that "leans on" other literature (Yolen, 1977) whether connected by genre or theme or topic - allows readers and listeners to explore interrelationships among books, to discover patterns, to think more deeply, and to respond more fully to text. Literature organized into these units of study has been shown to greatly enrich the read-aloud experience and add to the potential for student interest, independent reading, and personal connection.

Discussing literature in lively, invitational, thoughtprovoking ways

23. Opportunities for discussions that encourage personal responses, as well as the exploration of connections between and among related pieces of literature, provide the setting for the development of appreciative, critical, literate thinking among students.

Grouping children to maximize opportunities to respond

24. Attention to the appropriateness of group size helps to ensure that there is maximal opportunity for children to say what they are thinking and feeling about books. Smaller groups and settings in which students are seated in conversational arrangements have been found to increase participation. Although teachers may have difficulty organizing a classroom for small group story reading, organizing small groups for discussion and for response activities seems quite plausible.
Offering a variety of response and extension opportunities

25. Extensions of stories provide invitations to rethink and reflect. Galda, Cullinan, and Strickland (in press) have described response opportunities as a chance to linger a bit longer under the spell of a good story. Researchers report that opportunities to extend and deepen experiences with literature through writing, drama, and art involve students in expressing their insights and understandings of stories in new ways.

Rereading selected pieces

26. Rereading selected pieces of literature changes the character and quality of children's responses. Repeated readings encourage an increase in the quantity and complexity of children's comments and promotes a deeper understanding of the stories.

Challenges

27. First, there is the challenge of setting aside time for story-time. The instructional day is already crowded. In every case in which we have worked to implement a read-aloud program, we found that after implementation of literature experiences, teachers indicated that they spent less time with spelling, handwriting, and what they labeled simply as "work sheets." A second challenge relates to resources. The implementation of quality story time experience requires that resources be made readily available to teachers. The most critical resource is easy access to carefully selected children's literature organized into a unit structure. Finally, the success of this program depends on an intensive staff development effort using new strategies and techniques which must be learned by both teachers and administrators. Certainly, reading aloud to children is no simple solution to the challenge of teaching literacy. It is not like the aspirin we take and - poof! - the headache disappears. Working toward a planned and seriously constructed read-aloud time requires considerable investment in time, skill, knowledge and resources.


Questions

Multiple-Choice Questions - Circle the correct answer

1. The subject of this article is:

a) developing a successful reading program in which children read aloud.
b) developing a successful reading program in which teachers read aloud.

c) solving the basic literacy problems which face parents, teachers and children.

d) reading aloud to children will automatically increase their motivation to read.

2. Researchers are cited to prove that

a) reading is very significant to literacy in young children.

b) reading stories and discussions help understand children's comprehension.

c) reading stories and discussions help understand children's feelings.

d) all of the above.

3. This article is concerned with

a) researched classroom practices pertaining to read-aloud programs.

b) helpful ideas about read-aloud practices suggested by administrators.

c) suggestions made by teachers during in-service reading courses.

d) theoretical research on reading conducted at American universities.

4. According to paragraphs 4, 5, 6: The read-aloud program

a) is an unplanned experience followed by librarians.

b) has been an experience, unplanned and unrelated to the curriculum.

c) is a highly successful and productive program throughout the U.S.

d) has not been studied recently and further research is needed.

5. The questionnaire was

a) informative and filled in by teachers.

b) a survey of observations filled in by administrators.

c) an informative survey of student-teachers in elementary schools.

d) a statistical survey of parents' impressions of teachers.

6. According to paragraph 10, the results of the study indicate that

a) the statistics were identical to those of earlier
research.
b) the findings were more satisfactory than anticipated.
c) the findings were less satisfactory than expected.
d) neither students and nor teachers enjoy reading aloud.

7. The incidence of read aloud experiences

a) was unaffected by school size, ethnic, and socioeconomic background.
b) was influenced by school size, ethnic, and socioeconomic background.
c) was so insignificant that it was not evaluated by the students.
d) was similar to studies conducted in other western countries.

8. According to paragraphs 11 and 12, it is the opinion of the authors of this study that teachers choose read-aloud books

a) without considering the intellectual level of the children.
b) with little thought to critical evaluations of the books.
c) in consideration of subject relevancy at all times.
d) that integrate with ongoing topics in kindergarten classes.

9. When considering the amount of time devoted to reading aloud and discussion, the authors found

a) from the perspective of the time devoted to it, the read-aloud program was a dominant aspect of the curriculum
b) a significant amount of time was spent in discussion after the readings.
c) the read-aloud program was totally insignificant in all classrooms studied.
d) that read-aloud experiences 20 minutes or less in length were used in most classes.

10. Which of these statements may be inferred from reading paragraph 15

a) The use of varied follow-up activities by teachers after reading allowed for creative activities.
b) The use of few follow-up activities by teachers after reading aloud, limited the scope for creativity.
c) Dramatizations were used extensively by teachers after reading aloud.
d) Most teachers used follow-up activities after all reading aloud experiences.

e) Although teachers used few follow-up activities, these may have revealed some creativity.

11. Give paragraphs 16, 17 and 18 your own sub-title

12. From paragraph 18, we may conclude that if this is the situation in so-called best classrooms. In other more typical situations, what might occur?

13. Translate the following sentences into Hebrew:

Paragraph 10: Although the likelihood of a read-aloud experience was somewhat higher in the kindergarten and primary grades (76%) versus the intermediate grades (69%), the pattern is more positive than previous studies have suggested.

Paragraph 22: Drawing literature together that "leans on" other literature whether connected by genre or theme or topic - allows readers and listeners to explore interrelationships among books, to discover patterns, to think more deeply, and to respond more fully to text.