Teaching Hebrew as an additional language: a classroom-based case study

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Certificate of Original Authorship

I certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree except as fully acknowledged within the text.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

Signature of Student: ______________________________

Date: ______________________________

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Table of Contents

Certificate of Original Authorship ii
Acknowledgements iii
Table of Contents iv
List of Figures viii
List of Tables viii
List of Extracts ix
Abstract x
Chapter 1 Introduction 1
1.1 Overall challenges in the teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew as an additional language 1
1.2 Need for theorization 2
1.3 Decision to embrace the framework developed at the Rothberg International Schools for Overseas Students 4
1.4 Gaps in knowledge 6
1.5 Thesis focus and research questions 7
1.6 Contribution of this thesis 10
1.7 Thesis outline 11
Chapter 2 A Review of Literature: Theoretical Perspectives and Debates 13
2.1 Modern Hebrew instruction 13
2.2 Current debates about L2 teaching 23
2.2.1 Using the language to teach the language 24
2.2.2 The place of grammar in language teaching 25
2.2.3 Attitudes to student's language: feedback and feedforward 28
2.2.4 Balance of spoken vs. written modes 31
2.2.5 Relationship between language and culture 33
2.2.6 Affective factors and their impact on L2 learning 34
2.3 Theories and approaches underpinning a holistic understanding of classroom interactions 35
2.3.1 Sociocultural theory (SCT) 36
2.3.2 Ecological linguistics (EL) 38
2.3.3 Features associated with SCT-EL 40
Zone of Proximal Development 41
Scaffolding and handover 43
2.4 Conclusion to Chapter 2 47
Chapter 3 Research Design 48
3.1 Overall research design 48
3.1.1 Location and scope of the research 48
3.1.2 Ethical considerations 52
3.1.3 Research challenges 54
3.2 Research methodology 57
3.2.1 Classroom recordings 58
3.2.2 Interviews 60
3.3 Process of data analysis 62
3.3.1 Phase One 63

3.3.2 Phase Two 65
Classroom discourse analysis 65
Genres and macrogenres 66
3.3.3 Three levels of analysis 69
3.4 Conclusions to Chapter 3 70
Chapter 4 First Level of Analysis: Contextualizing the Case Study 71
4.1 Modern Hebrew at an Australian university 72
4.1.1 Background to the Australian Modern Hebrew Program 72
4.1.2 Introduction to the current Program 77
4.2 RIS curricula and pedagogy: Level 1 of analysis 79
4.2.1 Introduction to the RIS curricula 79
4.2.2 The RIS teacher-training resources 80
4.2.3 The RIS teacher-training course 86
4.2.4 The *New Hebrew from Scratch-Part A* Textbook 87
The Textbook's *Shi'ur 2* unit-of-work 91
The Guidebook 97
4.2.5 Key features and principles that inform RIS beginner-level program 99
Sequencing of grammatical features forms major organizing principle of curriculum 99
'What seems to work best' in the classroom 100
Major focus on oral language development 101
Emphasis on learning language through using language 101
Structured sequencing of activities: a shift from closed to open activities 102
Regular opportunities for students to practise new language 102
Emphasis on explicit rules of grammar, and on learning about language 102
Emphasis on importance of supportive classroom environment 103
4.3 Key features of Hebrew pertinent to beginner-level 103
4.3.1 Inflection 104
Nouns 104
Noun modifiers: adjectives and numerals 105
Pronouns and demonstratives 105
Verb system 108
Prepositions 110
Impersonal sentences 110
4.3.2 Writing conventions 111
4.4 Conclusion to Chapter 4 112
Chapter 5 Second Level of Analysis: Case Study 115
5.1 Introduction to the case study program 116
5.1.1 Case study participants 117
The students 117
The teacher's educational philosophy 118
5.1.2 Overall goals and curriculum content of the case study program 123
5.1.3 Resources used in case study program 124
5.1.4 Establishing the classroom learning environment: 125
5.1.5 Typical structure of lessons 127
Summary of Stages 128
5.1.6 Conclusion 132
5.2 Analysis of one lesson: structure and patterns of classroom interaction 133

5.2.1 Week 4 Lesson: Structure of Stages and Phases 133
5.2.2 Core Activities in Week 4 Lesson 137
Core Activity 1: Teaching a new grammatical structure 138
Core Activity 2: Creating dialogues 155
5.2.3 Conclusion 164
5.3 Conclusion to Chapter 5 165
Chapter 6 Third Level of Analysis: Focus Lessons 168
6.1 Overview of Focus Lessons 169
6.2 Key teaching & learning features in the Focus Lessons 173
6.2.1 Systematic and predictable structure of lessons and activities 174
6.2.2 Introduction of new language items 178
6.2.3 Using Hebrew to teach Hebrew 183
6.2.4 Code switching: the strategic use of English 191
Confirming students' understanding and clarifying meaning of Hebrew 191
Utilizing L1 to clarify students' knowledge of Hebrew culture / 'world knowledge' 196
Developing students' meta-linguistic understanding of Hebrew 200
Students' use of English to support L2 development 206
Utilizing L1 to manage classroom interaction and task instructions 211
6.2.5 The role of handover 215
Handover between lessons 216
Handover within lessons and within activities 225
6.2.6 Feedback and feedforward 230
Immediate responses to students' use of Hebrew during whole-cohort discussions 231
Personal and individual feedback during pair work activities 234
Whole cohort feedback sessions – provision of explicit information about Hebrew as a language system 239
Forward feeding-*TIFTOUF* 241
6.2.7 Affective and social classroom environment 259
Constructing a positive classroom environment 259
Episodes of humour 261
Classroom management 263
6.3 Conclusion to Chapter 6 267
Chapter 7 Conclusions and contributions of research 271
7.1 Review of purposes and design of research 271
7.2 Major findings from research 274
7.3 The value of close analysis of classroom based interaction 279
7.3.1 Better understanding of pedagogical practices 279
7.3.2 Theoretical contribution 282
7.3.3 Contribution to debates about language teaching 288
7.4 Implications of research 293
7.5 Limitations and directions for further research 294
7.5.1 Limitations 294
7.5.2 Suggestions for future research 295
Appendices 297
Appendix 1: Transcription Key 298

Appendix 2: Week 4 Lesson 299
Appendix 3: Interview Questions.. 316
Bibliography 321

List of Figures

Figure 5.1: Diagrammatic representation of Week 4 Lesson....................................... 135
Figure 6.1: Diagrammatic representation of Focus Lessons and their respective activities 175

List of Tables

Table 3.1: Summary of data sources and phases and levels of analysis 58
Table 4.1: Pronouns 107
Table 4.2: Verbs 109
Table 4.3: Preposition 110
Table 4.4: Impersonal sentences 110
Table 5.1: Data resources 125
Table 5.2: Summary of lesson structure 127
Table 6.1: Summary of four focus lessons 170
Table 6.2: Summary of code switching in the focus lessons 214

List of Extracts

Extract 5.1 Week 4 Lesson....139
Extract 5.2 Week 4 Lesson....142
Extract 5.3A Week 4 Lesson....146
Extract 5.3B Week 4 Lesson....148
Extract 5.4 Week 4 Lesson....150
Extract 5.5 Week 4 Lesson....153
Extract 5.6A Week 4 Lesson....156
Extract 5.6B Week 4 Lesson....159
Extract 5.7 Week 4 Lesson....162
Extract 6.1 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 1....179
Extract 6.2 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 1....181
Extract 6.3 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....184
Extract 6.4 Second Focus Lesson – Core Activity 4....187
Extract 6.5A First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....193
Extract 6.5B First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....195
Extract 6.6 Second Focus Lesson – Core Activity 3....197
Extract 6.7 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....201
Extract 6.8 Fourth Focus Lesson: Core Activity 1....205
Extract 6.9A First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....208
Extract 6.9B First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....210
Extract 6.10 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....212
Extract 6.11 Second Focus Lesson – Core Activity 4....212
Extract 6.12 Third Focus Lesson-Core Activity 4....213
Extract 6.13 Second Focus Lesson – Stage 1 Warm-up....218
Extract 6.14A Third Focus Lesson – Warm-up....220
Extract 6.14B Second Focus Lesson – Warm-up....223
Extract 6.15 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....227
Extract 6.16 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 1, Phase 2....233
Extract 6.17 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....236
Extract 6.18 Third Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....238
Extract 6.19 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2....240
Extract 6.20 Week 6....244
Extract 6.21 Week 6....246
Extract 6.22 Week 6....248
Extract 6.23 Week 6....250
Extract 6.24 Week 8....253
Extract 6.25A Week 9....256
Extract 6.25B Week 9....256
Extract 6.25C Week 9....257
Extract 6.25D Week 9....257
Extract 6.26 Second Focus Lesson – Warm-up....262
Extract 6.27A Third Focus Lesson – Warm-up....262
Extract 6.27B Third Focus Lesson – Warm-up....262
Extract 6.28 Week 12....264
Extract 6.29 Second Focus Lesson – Core Activity 3....266

Abstract

The teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew as an additional language has traditionally been a practice-driven discipline rather than a research-focused field of instruction, with the majority of practitioners in this field focused on teaching the language rather than researching pedagogical issues. However, the discipline is currently going through a transitional phase in which pedagogy and classroom practices are receiving increased academic attention. By providing a research-based 'thick description' of one successful Modern Hebrew beginners-level program, set within a large Australian university, this case study analyses and theorizes teaching and learning interactions and

> classroom behaviours that are so commonplace that they are assumed to be unimportant, or so fleeting and ephemeral that they sometimes operate below the threshold of teacher consciousness.
>
> Senior (1999, p. 3)

Through three levels of data analysis, this thesis contributes to closing a gap in knowledge about the teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew as an additional language: it provides clearer insights into beginner-level classroom-based teaching and learning interactions; and it offers some theorization to the concepts that underpin the practice-based beginner-level curriculum and pedagogy of the Rothberg International School for Overseas Students at the Hebrew University, Jerusalem. Thus this thesis contributes to theorizing the currently largely praxis-based discipline, and helps to develop a stronger theoretical understanding of how and why students can be assisted in their learning of Modern Hebrew as an additional language. Finally, it is hoped that the research carried out in this thesis will help to establish a stronger research-based agenda in this discipline and position it within the broader field of L2 research and scholarship; specifically in Australia, but with international applications as well.

Chapter 1
Introduction

1.1 Overall challenges in the teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew as an additional language

The teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew as a second / foreign / additional language (henceforth L2 / THAL[1]) has traditionally been a practice-driven discipline rather than a scholarly and research-focused field of instruction. The majority of practitioners involved in the L2 instruction of Modern Hebrew[2] are focused on teaching the language rather than researching issues related to L2 pedagogy and teaching. However, THAL is going through a transitional phase in which pedagogy and classroom practice are receiving increased academic attention, especially outside Israel where there is pressure for a more scholarly orientation for the discipline above and beyond the teaching and learning of the language.

These changes, which are relevant to the worldwide locations in which Modern Hebrew is taught, are also pertinent to the situation in Australia, where the language has been taught over the past 60 years. Yet to date, almost no research into THAL, either at school or university level, has, been carried out.

The overall purpose of the case study presented in the current thesis is to theorize teaching and learning interactions and to bring into focus

> classroom behaviours that are so commonplace that they are assumed to be unimportant, or so fleeting and ephemeral that they sometimes operate below the threshold of teacher consciousness.
>
> Senior (1999, p. 3)

By investigating and illuminating a case study of one successful Modern Hebrew beginners-level classroom-based program at a large Australian university, this thesis

[1] There is no currently accepted acronym for this area: for the sake of brevity, I have ventured to coin the term THAL, 'Teaching Hebrew as an Additional Language', to include both second and foreign language teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew.
[2] Henceforward in this thesis, 'Hebrew' will be taken to refer exclusively to 'Modern Hebrew' unless otherwise noted.

sets out to raise awareness of the instructional circumstances that contribute to the effective learning and language development of Hebrew as an L2. Moreover, as the local Australian Modern Hebrew Program is based on the Rothberg International School (RIS) curricula framework and pedagogical practices, a concomitant aim is to conceptualize the theory or theories of L2 teaching and learning that inform the RIS praxis-based curricula. Finally, this research project aims to help establish a stronger research-based agenda in and to position it within the broader field of L2 research and scholarship; specifically in Australia, but with international applications as well.

1.2 Need for theorization

Over time, THAL has developed largely as a praxis-based discipline. Consistent effort has gone into devising and publishing teaching and learning materials, both in and outside of Israel, for both school (primary and secondary) and college / university (tertiary) levels. This scholarly effort has focused on writing textbooks, accompanied at times by the production of teaching manuals, both in written and audio-visual forms. Additionally, a variety of teaching and learning resources and materials in various media have been developed, including audio, video, computer, and online programs.

In Israel, the major centres that produce and publish tertiary level Hebrew L2 instructional materials and textbooks include The Hebrew University's Rothberg International School for Overseas Students, Tel-Aviv University, Haifa University, and The Jewish Agency. Programs and textbooks are also developed and published by private institutes and individuals. Outside of Israel, a number of instructional programs have been developed in several North American universities (Krohn 2011; Raizen 2006; Ringvald et al. 2005). In addition, numerous booklets have been produced over the years in universities and other tertiary and educational institutions around the world.

Thus, while teaching of the language has flourished over the years in both Israel and abroad (as reviewed, for example, by Ofek 2004; Shai 2010; Sheniak 2000), the discipline remains considerably under-theorized and significantly under-researched. The need to address this shortfall was highlighted as early as the late 1970s and early 1980s, when Moshe' Nahir and Bernard Spolsky, respectively, called for Hebrew to reach the state of knowledge attained by other L2 teaching:

> The reflection of these [L2] trends, however, has been slow and partial, with the field of Hebrew ever trailing one stage behind the theoretical and methodological mainstream.
>
> Nahir (1979, p. 424)

> While there has been relatively little formal academic research into the teaching of Hebrew in the Diaspora… we need…to see that Hebrew language teaching becomes informed by the present state of knowledge about second language learning and teaching.
>
> Spolsky (1986, p. 11)

This is still the case 35 years on, with calls made more recently, to undertake research and professionalize the discipline (for example, Bolotzky 2009; Feuer 2009; Raizen 2002; Shohamy 1999). Particularly poignant are the appeals by Shohamy and Feuer, respectively:

> An important pedagogical factor that needs to be promoted is research and evaluation. Currently there is hardly any data available about different programs and their outcomes, a fact that makes it difficult to adopt language teaching policies and strategies. There is a need for professionalizing the field, mostly in cultivating local non-native teachers and at the same time training native teachers in updated methods for teaching Hebrew as a second language within the varied context of Jewish communities out of Israel.
>
> Shohamy (1999, p. 28)

> There is paucity of research on the realities of modern Hebrew language teaching and learning in North America. Though academics have previously discussed the state and future of Hebrew learning in North America, the absence of empirical research studies has left the field in a space between disciplines, perspectives, and definitions
>
> Feuer (2009, p. 1)

There is thus a need to set up both a strong scholarly and research agenda in this field, and to theorize its practices. Scholarly publications that have appeared to date mainly focus on the following topics: pedagogical practice (for example, Bolotzky 2009; Nahir 1979; Raz 2009; Rivers & Nahir 1989); testing (Shohamy 1992); grammar reference books (for example, Coffin-Amir & Bolotzky 2005; Freedman-Cohen & Shoval 2011); and the role and importance of the Hebrew language in Jewish education (for example, Brosh 1996; Morahg 2002; Ringvald 2004; Schiff 1996 Sheniak 2000; Shohamy 1999; Spolsky 1986, 2009; Zisenwine 1997).

Consequently, a major challenge for THAL is to investigate the classroom-based instruction of Hebrew in a systematic and methodical manner. This includes a need to theorize the teaching and learning practices of Hebrew as an L2; to articulate the educational philosophies and pedagogical rationales of L2 Hebrew curriculum writing; and to gain further insight into students' L2 learning process. This challenge is linked to a two-fold task: firstly, to establish a research agenda like the one that exists in the field of L2 studies so as to position THAL within this broader L2 field; secondly, to gain a better understanding of the impact of instruction on the learning process. It is only through a better understanding of classroom-based instruction, and the processes that L2 learners go through in their learning, that improvement in instructional practices can be implemented. These challenges for scholars and language teachers form part of a greater overarching mission, which is to ensure the continuity, and indeed the growth, of the field of THAL.

1.3 Decision to embrace the framework developed at the Rothberg International Schools for Overseas Students

Since 2000, the Modern Hebrew Program[3] at the Australian university in which I teach has gone through a major process of change and reorganization. A shift in the understanding of THAL has led to the implementation of the curricula and pedagogy developed at the Rothberg International School for Overseas Students (henceforth RIS/ School) at the Hebrew University, Jerusalem. The background of the Australian university's Modern Hebrew Program, and the reason for its adoption of the RIS curricula and programs, are discussed at length in Chapter 4. Suffice for now to briefly sketch the developments that led to this move, which in turn provided the impetus for carrying out the case study described in this thesis.

When I first joined the Australian university as a casual teacher in 1996, I had to teach Modern Hebrew as an L2 without any set programs or proper curriculum, nor were there any clearly defined instructional objectives, or transparent learning outcomes in place. This resulted in the predicament that on many occasions I had to resort to making *ad hoc* decisions regarding the topics offered and materials covered.

[3] Henceforward in this thesis, Program indicated by uppercase P refers to the entire Modern Hebrew Program at the Australian university.

After being appointed coordinator of the Modern Hebrew Program in 1997, I wished to change this situation and bring about improvements in language instruction, and so I embarked on a trajectory of implementing change. At first I sought to modify the existing programs and pedagogical practices, but in 2000, I was the main agent in initiating, facilitating, and in 2001-2002, implementing the adoption of the RIS curricula and pedagogy.

The RIS serves as the Hebrew University's School for Overseas Students, where compulsory classes in Modern Hebrew language, as well as a wide range of subject courses in English, are offered to international students. The School has for many years enjoyed the reputation of one of the leading institutions in THAL. Its large intake of foreign students, the teaching experience of its staff, as well as the teaching and learning materials and programs it has produced and continues to develop, are extremely well regarded worldwide. Thus, in taking the decision to adopt the RIS curricula and materials, I sought to position a small Australian Hebrew Program within a larger, well established, and highly regarded educational framework (Gilead 2006).

Thereafter, I spent several years introducing the RIS curricula, textbooks and pedagogy, and implementing changes in local instructional practices and program development. The process, of adapting the RIS curricula to local needs, necessitated substantial modifications of these materials. Subsequent to the adaptation and implementation of the RIS curricula and pedagogy in the local arena, a substantial body of anecdotal evidence had accumulated indicating that students' ability to use Hebrew and communicate in it, as well as their proficiency levels, had increased considerably; something reported by both the students themselves and the teaching staff (Gilead 2004). Over the years, students had also reported on their satisfaction with the Program's instruction and their enjoyment in studying the language in this way.

Yet this apparent success did not diminish the need to investigate the changes that had been implemented so as to better understand and rationalize them. Furthermore, despite a lengthy history of teaching Modern Hebrew at this university, including earlier endeavours to revitalize the subject prior to the adaption of the RIS curricula, no previous investigation into the teaching and learning of the language at the university had been carried out.

1.4 Gaps in knowledge

A further issue I became aware of during this time was that, despite the many achievements in developing and producing a large body of instructional materials, the RIS curricula and pedagogy lacked explicitly articulated theoretical underpinnings. It also became apparent that the development and publication of the RIS instructional materials had not involved formal research. It had rather been practice-based, drawn from the collective experience of the RIS teachers over many years, something which, over time, had given rise to an effective teaching program. It appeared furthermore that the RIS programs and pedagogy are informed, first and foremost, by the teachers' perspectives, with relatively little focus on evidence of student learning. Indeed, while the RIS teachers' perspectives on the principles and practices of L2 teaching and learning can be gleaned through their published textbooks, teaching manuals, and teacher-training video-kits, an understanding of the importance of the learners' perspectives is not addressed in any of their published materials. Thus, a three-fold gap in the RIS programming became apparent: firstly, a lack of publications regarding the theoretical basis underpinning the RIS curricula and pedagogy; secondly, a lack of research into the ways the RIS instructional program and practices are implemented in the classroom; and thirdly, a lack of students' own insights into their language learning trajectory. Thus, while I have been refining my implementation of the RIS curricula and pedagogy in the local arena, these gaps have sparked my interest in research that will provide a better understanding of the RIS materials and pedagogy and, in turn, help to gauge their impact on local Australian students' learning trajectory and development in Hebrew as an additional language (THAL).

As I became more familiar with the state of THAL worldwide, I became aware of the sparse theoretical basis underpinning the teaching and learning of the language more generally, the lack of research-based knowledge of THAL, and the scarcity of research projects in the wider field. Thus, I saw merit in carrying out a methodical investigation of my university's Hebrew Program, whilst systematically scrutinizing and documenting the interplay between classroom-based teaching and learning as perceived and experienced by both teacher and students. My investigation of the local Program's

prescribed curricula subsequently led me to address elements of the RIS instructional principles and practices.

To sum up, this thesis aims to contribute to a gap in the pedagogical theory and practice of Hebrew as an additional language by attaining a clearer understanding of beginner-level classroom-based teaching and learning, and by theorizing the concepts that underpin the RIS curricula and practice.

1.5 Thesis focus and research questions

I turn now to the main aims of the thesis: one is to shed light on an example of an effective beginner-level classroom-based program for the teaching and learning of L2 Hebrew at a large Australian university; the other is to investigate the manner in which the curriculum embedded in the textbook *The New Hebrew from Scratch - Part A* (Chayat, Israeli & Kobliner 2000/2007; henceforth Textbook) has been implemented within the Australian university's Hebrew program**.** My overall purpose here is to develop a stronger theoretical understanding of how the program is able to assist students in their learning of Hebrew.

The emergence of experienced-based evidence highlighting the effectiveness of the Australian beginner-level program has paved the way for the current research project. Yet, while acknowledging the program's success, the focus of this study is to investigate the complexity of factors that impact on L2 learning and development, and to consider how these factors contribute to the overall success of the program. Furthermore, the study shines a light on this 'community of practice' (Lave & Wenger 1991), and on the unfolding of its classroom-based teaching and learning interactions, practices, and activities.

This study focuses specifically on beginner-level classroom-based teaching and learning interactions and practices; activities that occur routinely and recursively, yet often lie beyond the awareness of teachers and fall beneath the radar of researchers (Senior 1999). Such 'classroom blind spots' result from our general inability as human beings to fully grasp and recall the full complexity of face-to-face interactions in which we participate; teaching being one of these activities (as pointed out, for example, by Barkhuizen 1998, p. 102; Christie 2002, p. 3; Edwards & Westgate 1994, p. 2; Erickson

1992, pp. 204-205; Goldman-Segall 1998, p. 34; Packer 2011 p. 242). Other scholars have pointed to 'the existence of a gap between the way teachers and learners "see" the classroom and all that occurs within it' (Block 1996, p. 168; inverted commas in the original), while others argue that

> [s]tudents – despite their obvious language learning credentials – seldom get the chance to enter the supposedly public discussion on language learning and to confirm or question the ideas and research contained within ELT literature.
>
> Rowland (2011, p. 255)

Thus, as part of this investigation, students' insights into the development of their own language learning are presented.

The above views on teachers' 'blind spots' pertain to the research questions of the current thesis and the issues it sets out to address. This thesis investigates in a systemic and methodological manner beginner-level classroom-based teaching and learning of Hebrew by posing the following research questions:

Research Question 1

What is the teaching and learning context, and the typical patterns of classroom interaction, which contribute to students' success in one particular Hebrew language program?

- *What is the context of teaching and learning?*
- *What are the typical patterns of classroom interaction?*

Research Question 2

What is the value of a close analysis of classroom interactions in under-standing students' L2 learning and development?

- *What is the value of making explicit the classroom-based interactions that routinely and recursively occur, yet are most often below teachers' conscious awareness?*

Research Question 3

What implications can be drawn from the analysis of a case study of one Hebrew language program?

- *What implications can be drawn for other Modern Hebrew programs, both locally and abroad?*
- *What implications can be more generally drawn for L2 teaching, learning and research?*

In order to answer these questions I opted to carry out an in-depth and systematic study of a beginners' cohort and spent considerable time looking closely at this cohort's teaching and learning experience. Such an investigation, I would argue, is best framed within a case study paradigm and best carried out using qualitative-interpretive approaches and methods for gathering and analysing data. More specifically, I employed ethnographic data collection methods to illuminate the classroom-based teaching and learning environment of this community of practice; followed by a sociocultural and ecological approach to understanding the complex interplay of factors and why and how they impact on learning (Section 2.3). These yield a 'thick description' (Geertz 1973).

To this end, the thesis draws on the following sources of data:

- key textbooks and other instructional materials from the RIS;
- observations and recordings of lessons;
- interviews with students and the teacher, both during and after lessons; and
- collection of relevant teaching and learning resources, such as teacher's worksheets and students' tasks

Analysis of these data has enabled a focus on:

- key principles within the RIS program;
- organizational and educational contexts of the current teaching and learning environment;
- the teacher's pedagogical philosophies and practices;
- students' aims and needs, both cognitive and affective;

- key features of classroom interaction between teacher and students.

1.6 Contribution of this thesis

This thesis makes a number of significant contributions to researching THAL. By providing a research-based 'thick description' of one specific classroom-based beginner-level cohort, the thesis contributes to theorizing the hitherto largely praxis-based field. More specifically, and through three levels of analysis of the data, the thesis provides a holistic framework to probe beyond the identification of specific approaches and methods in L2 instruction, and investigates in greater detail classroom-based interactions and their impact on learning.

Secondly, due to the fact that the local Hebrew beginner-level program implements the curriculum prescribed in the Textbook *The New Hebrew from Scratch - Part A* (Chayat et al. 2000/2007) and its embedded pedagogical practices, the thesis also provides a first step in theorizing this pedagogy. As discussed above, while a large and important corpus of programs, textbooks, and other instructional materials has been developed and produced by the RIS over the years, there has been no concomitant theorization of THAL, nor has there been much research into classroom-based teaching and learning of the language. Therefore, my study contributes to the theorization of the RIS curricula, specifically at the beginner-level stage.

Thirdly, the study contributes to the wider field of L2 teaching, learning and research, by theorizing both classroom practice and students' experience: it is the latter, Ortega predicts, that will be '[t]he final area of future theoretical development … the need to theorize [student] experience in explanations of SLA' (Ortega 2007, p. 247). The study's findings thus provide data on university-level classroom-based L2 teaching and learning, a site that has thus far received only modest attention. The study provides some theorization of students' L2 developmental processes and progression, alongside their own reflections and interpretations of these processes, hence contributing to an improved understanding of learners' experience. In doing so, the study responds to calls from L2 academics and practitioners to carry out further research into learners' experience of L2 learning (for example, Block 1996; Breen 2001a; Byram 2000; Cohen 1990; Lantolf & Appel 1994b; Mitchell & Myles 1998; Ortega 2007; Slimani 2001). As

well, the study contributes to the scholarly discussion on sociocultural theory (SCT) and ecological linguistics (EL) perspectives of the ways L2s are taught and learned (for example, Lantolf & Thorne 2006; van Lier 2000, 2004; Vygotsky 1986, 1987, 1978). Finally, the study contributes to the field of L2 scholarship by adding findings from Hebrew to the other languages that have been investigated.

1.7 Thesis outline

The thesis consists of seven chapters. The first three chapters present the background and context of this research project. Chapter 1 has outlined the challenges, context, and focus of this study, highlighting the gap in knowledge that the research project addresses and the research questions it poses; it also briefly introduces the study's potential contributions to the field of L2 pedagogy. Chapter 2 provides a succinct overview of major developments and debates in THAL and the broader field of L2 teaching, learning and research relevant to this thesis. It then focuses on the sociocultural and ecological understandings which shaped my approach to understanding the multitude of factors that impact on students' experience in the classroom. Chapter 3 summarizes the ways in which this research project was designed, the advantages of undertaking this kind of qualitative-interpretive investigation, the validity and reliability of both the collected data and its interpretation, and the challenges of managing and analysing it.

The next three chapters present the findings of the study, set out in three levels of analysis:

Chapter 4 provides a brief history of the Modern Hebrew Program at the Australian university, and outlines the reasons for taking up the RIS curricula and pedagogy, especially the particular instructional practices suited to beginner learners. It then presents the first level of analysis, which introduces the context to the Australian investigation. It provides an analysis of the RIS publications to identify the major features that inform and underpin the principles and practices of its beginner-level curriculum and pedagogy. The chapter ends by providing a brief overview of the linguistic system of Hebrew, so that readers can gain a better understanding of Hebrew as a language and the challenges faced by beginner L2 learners.

Chapter 5 presents the study's second level of analysis. It introduces the case study participants, and the teacher's pedagogical beliefs. It then provides an overview of the lessons' overarching and internal organization and the complex interplay between the lessons and their respective activities. The discussion then focuses on one lesson[4], the Week 4 Lesson, as a way of investigating how key principles of the RIS were implemented in this Lesson. The chapter ends with a discussion of the similarities and differences between the principles that inform the RIS beginner-level pedagogy and underpins the Textbook's program, and the way in which these were implemented in the case study.

Chapter 6 presents the study's third level of analysis. It focuses in detail on four lessons, referred to as the Focus Lessons, to show how the RIS-informed pedagogical features and practices already identified in Chapters 4 and 5 are implemented in the case study, how these practices unfold over time, and how they contribute to the opportunities available to the students. The analysis here draws on sociocultural (SCT) and ecological (EL) theories of learning, whilst utilizing classroom discourse analysis to show how these key pedagogical practices are shaped and fashioned and how they impact on, and contribute to, students' L2 Hebrew learning and development. The chapter presents the students', as well as the teacher's, perspectives on the unfolding teaching and learning interactions.

Finally, in Chapter 7, I present the conclusions arising from this study; the contributions and implications of the study both to THAL and L2 more generally; some of the study's limitations; and possible directions for further research.

[4] Henceforth in this thesis, lesson / lessons indicated by lowercase, refers to non-specific lesson/lessons; while Lesson / Lessons, indicated by uppercase L, refers to specific Lesson (as in Week 4 Lesson) / Lessons (as in Focus Lessons)

Chapter 2
A Review of Literature: Theoretical Perspectives and Debates

The purpose of Chapter 2 is twofold: firstly, it identifies developments and debates in the broader field of L2 teaching, learning and research, as well as specifically in THAL, and discusses their relevance to this thesis. Secondly, it focuses on sociocultural and ecological L2 theories and constructs, which provide a holistic framework to probe beyond the identification of specific approaches and methods in L2 instruction, and to investigate in greater detail the complex interplay of factors and how they impact on learning. I do this in three ways:

- by providing an overview of developments in THAL, and how these have intersected with broader developments in the field of L2 teaching;
- by identifying key debates in L2 teaching and learning, and research, and discussing their relevance to the thesis. These debates include: the use of language, both L2 and L1 to teach L2; the place of grammar in language teaching; attitudes to learners' language; feedback and feedforward; the balance of spoken versus written language; the relationship between language and culture; and the place of affect in the classroom;
- by investigating what the sociocultural and ecological linguistic literature posits about classroom teaching and learning, and the relevance of a number of its key constructs to our understanding of THAL. This section is organized around two key features espoused by the combined SCT and EL perspective of L2 instruction: the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD); scaffolding, handover; and the three-part sequence of classroom talk, initiation-response-feedback (IRF).

2.1 Modern Hebrew instruction

As I argued in Chapter 1, the THAL field is significantly under-theorized and under-researched. So far, it has not articulated its own theoretical and practical underpinnings and its relationship to the broader field of L2 theorization and practice, nor has it carried out systematic research. Identifying this gap in the field provides a research space within which this thesis investigation can be located.

Based on my understanding of the current state of knowledge in the field, and especially following Blum 1971; Haramati 1972, 1984, 2000; Kodesh 1971, 1975, 1982; Rabin 1971, I argue that the development of THAL is linked to developments in the wider arena of second/foreign language instruction. At times, THAL reflects direct interaction with theories, approaches, methods and programs in the wider L2 field, while at other times it only echoes the developments in that wider arena. I now turn to discuss these developments

One distinctive characteristic of Hebrew is that originally it was both a spoken and a written language, with the earliest manifestation of writing dating back to the second millennium BCE. In the last centuries BCE, with Aramaic replacing Hebrew as the people's *Lingua Franca,* Hebrew lost its native speakers.[5] Yet, the written language continued to flourish as a sacred, liturgical, and literary language; as well as having some spoken expression/manifestation. Due to these developments Hebrew is referred to by its various historical stages; namely Classical/Biblical Hebrew, Mishnaic/Rabbinic Hebrew, Medieval Hebrew and *Haskala* Hebrew (see for example, Kutscher 1982; Rabin, 1973; Sáenz-Badillos 1993).

The modern variety of the Hebrew language emerged in the late nineteenth century amongst members of the Zionist movement who had settled in Palestine with the aim of establishing a Jewish homeland (for example, Haramati 1972, 1984; Kuzar 2001, 2005; Myhill 2004; Parhi 2013; Safran 2005; Schwarzwald 2001; Shavit 2006; UNESCO 1955). The re-emergence of Hebrew as a spoken language and the appearance, for the first time since antiquity, of a cadre of native speakers, is intimately linked with the birth of Zionism. This variety of Hebrew has become known, in Hebrew, as *IVRIT* (*Hebrew*), *IVRIT ĤADASHA* (*new Hebrew*), and/or *IVRIT YISRA'ELIT* (*Israeli Hebrew*), and in English as Modern Hebrew, Modern Israeli Hebrew, or Contemporary Hebrew (on the scholarly debate pertaining to the foundations of the current variety of Hebrew, which is also reflected in the above names, see for example, W. Chomsky 1957; Kuzar 2001, 2005; Myhill 2004; Spolsky 1986; Wexler 1990; Zuckermann 2003). Significantly, this modern variety developed concurrently as a first and as an additional language. For the early Zionist immigrants Modern Hebrew was a second, third, or even

[5] The significant disagreement amongst scholars on the exact nature and scope of the spoken variety of Hebrew during these four millennia is beyond the scope of this thesis.

fourth language, as at home they had previously spoken Yiddish, and a range of European languages – Russian, German, Polish, French, Italian, etc. – with their non-Jewish neighbours. For their sons and daughters, who were born in what was the Ottoman Province and then the British Protectorate of Palestine and then became the modern State of Israel, Hebrew was one of their native-tongues, alongside other languages their parents spoke. Indeed, the common situation in the early years of the Zionist enterprise was that the children who learned Hebrew in kindergarten then taught it to their parents (for example, Myhill, 2004, p. 78, 91; Parhi, 2013, p. 50). These unique historical circumstances meant that Modern Hebrew, which was an additional/foreign language for first generation Zionists, established itself as the first language for their children.

With the revival of Hebrew as a spoken language in the late 1800s early 1900s, a need developed for instruction in the spoken form of the language. At first, teaching followed similar principles and practices as the instruction of the earlier Biblical, Mishnaic, and Medieval forms of Hebrew: that is, it mainly focused on translating culturally important Hebrew texts (mainly liturgical and philosophical texts), and learning Hebrew grammar, using a methodology very similar to the grammar-translation methods (on the latter, see, for example, Hawkins 1981; Howatt & Widdowson 2004; Lightbown & Spada 2006; Richards & Rodgers 2001). Hence, literacy remained the ultimate goal, as Epstein (in Haramati 1972) stated in 1898:

> Indeed, the truer and more natural basis of language learning is speech, but it is only a means; the purpose is the acquisition of the language in its totality… Never has it been considered that speaking the target language is sufficient understanding. No, never. True knowledge of a language is acquired via reading the best books it was written in.
>
> Epstein (in Haramati 1972, p. 23; translated from Hebrew)[6]

The development of Modern Hebrew and its teaching coincided with the development of the Direct Method in Europe and America. In the United States, the Direct Method developed at the end of the nineteenth century as a ‘reform’ approach to the earlier grammar-translation methods which had dominated the teaching of classical languages within the Western world since the early 1800s. As the name suggests, the Direct

[6] All translations from Hebrew to English are my own unless otherwise indicated.

Method offered a more direct, or natural, approach to language teaching. Its development is credited to two pairs of German and French teachers: Heness and Sauveur for German, and Berlitz and Joly for French. Both pairs opened intensive private, modern-language schools (French and German) and produced instruction books on how to teach these modern foreign languages (Howatt & Widdowson 2004). The two pairs also shared similar pedagogic principles, which included: speaking the foreign language in a natural manner while refraining from using students' native tongue; absolute avoidance of translation; teaching the language according to thematic topics; and no grammar learning until late in the learning process. In 1874, Sauveur described teaching and learning interaction in the Direct Method as follows:

> [W]hat is then, this lesson? it is a conversation during two hours *in the French language* with twenty persons who know nothing of this language. After five minutes only, I am carrying on a dialogue with them, and this dialogue does not cease. It continues the following days, and ends only the last day of the year. Not a word of English is pronounced, and everything is understood, and all talk. (I have never seen a single pupil who did not understand and talk from this first hour.)
>
> Sauveur (in Howatt & Widdowson 2004, p. 219, italics in original)

The Direct Method had a profound impact on the development of *IVRIT-BE-IVRIT* (*Hebrew-in-Hebrew*) method and on the way this modern strand of Hebrew was taught at the end of the nineteenth century. Shlomo Haramati has extensively researched the origins and evolution of the *Hebrew-in-Hebrew* method, which was developed by the 'pioneering teachers' who taught Hebrew to the early Zionist migrants (Haramati 1971, 1972, 1978, 1984, 2000). In explaining what this method entailed, Haramati drew on testimony from the pioneering Hebrew teachers themselves (all contemporaries of Eliezer Ben Yehuda, considered to be the leading reviver of Modern Hebrew); amongst them Yehuda Grasowsky [Gur] and Nisim Bachar, who testified that they taught Hebrew according to principles of the 'direct method'. Haramati cites Bachar's testimony (originally published in an article in the Hebrew newspaper *HADOAR* in 1931) that he (Bachar) became acquainted with the 'natural method' whilst teaching French in Constantinople in 1874 (Haramati 1972, pp. 34-35); and Grasowsky's testimony (originally published in an article in the Hebrew newspaper *HATZVI* in 1896) that he (Grasowsky) followed the Frenchman Carré, who taught French in Algiers

(Haramati 1972, p. 28). Based on their testimony, as well as those of other early teachers, Haramati suggests that *Hebrew-in-Hebrew* was seen as a practical and effective way to teach Hebrew as a living language and included the following characteristics:

- its main aim was to develop students' ability in spoken discourse (while reading and writing Hebrew never ceased);
- it integrated spoken language with written language;
- it supported avoidance of translation, but did not exclude it altogether;
- instruction included elements of revision, drilling, progression, and some visual aid support.

Nonetheless, Haramati emphasizes the fact that there was no single fixed method, rather a range of approaches:

> A number of the pioneering teachers that taught in the country according to "Hebrew-in-Hebrew", acquired this approach, or more precisely, acquired a number of its principles from the general methodology [Direct Method]. On the basis of these principles, [and] according to their interpretations, these teachers developed a number of methods for Hebrew instruction… As these teachers were geographically removed from each other and they lacked opportunities for exchange of views and experience, each teacher created a method suited to his teaching goals and his personal attributes (education, inclination, needs and personal teaching experience)… The common thread of all these methods was the centrality of speech as the teaching focus devoid of mother-tongue interjection…
>
> Haramati (1972, p. 54; translated from Hebrew; inverted commas in the original)

This two-fold approach, namely, the spoken language as the focus of instruction, and teachers' implementation of *Hebrew-in-Hebrew* determined individually, has largely remained as the norm in the instruction of Hebrew, both in and outside Israel.

Yet there was one feature particular to Modern Hebrew: the fact that the development of the language's instruction was part of, and linked to, the nationalistic endeavour of reviving the Hebrew language as the national language of the Jewish people:

> At the foci of the "direct method" in second language instruction, the main aim was the acquisition of the ability to speak in the target language for functional purposes, and didactic improvements were an effective way of reaching this goal. In contrast, at the foci

> of the “Hebrew-in-Hebrew” the main aim was the revival of Hebrew speech with didactic improvements as a secondary goal.
>
> Haramati (1972, p. 55; translated from Hebrew; inverted commas in the original)

Hebrew-in-Hebrew's nationalistic goal of reviving the Hebrew language and establishing a Jewish/Israeli culture, continued to underpin the instruction of Modern Hebrew, as Blum points out:

> In the instruction of Hebrew in Israel, much more than in the instruction of other languages, social and cultural content embedded. In that respect we are unlike any other nation and or country in the world. We teach a “second” language (or third or fourth) which is often more important to the learner than his first language… Full life in the language means usage of the language not just as a communicative tool in the narrow sense, but as a cultural tool in the widest meaning possible.
>
> Blum (1971, p. 61; translated from Hebrew; inverted commas in original)

With the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948 and the subsequent massive waves of immigration of Jews from Europe and North Africa, a twofold need became imperative: integrating the diverse population of different L1 speakers, and institutionalizing the instruction of Hebrew. This led to the opening of the first Ulpanim (institutes for the instruction of Hebrew), whose major goal was to equip the new migrants with language skills that would assist them to integrate quickly and become contributing members of the young state (Parhi 2013; Rosen 1971). Many of these immigrants came after World War II from displaced persons’ camps in Europe, or had fled from Arab countries, so that they arrived with very little money or possessions. As a result, the Ulpanim also functioned as absorption centres which provided a ‘first home’ for these migrants (Kodesh 1971). These circumstances meant that the new migrants, with different mother tongues and diverse social and cultural backgrounds, had to be equipped with a new language, and often, with a new set of social and cultural norms. Thus, *Hebrew-in-Hebrew* evolved into the approach, referred to as the Ulpan Method (*SHITAT HA-ULPAN*).

An official report by the Israeli Ministry of Education and Culture, presented to the Ceylon UNESCO Seminar in 1953, states the following about the Ulpan method:

> The foremost principle, which is the foundation of all adult language teaching, is the principle of the natural or direct method, i.e. the teaching of the fundamentals of the language without making use of methodical and regular translation into another language. From the very first day the teacher addresses his pupils in Hebrew, and gets acquainted with them by mentioning names, surnames, pronouns (I, you, he), mimicking, pointing and using gestures and actions and only in exceptional cases will he translate into another language. Despite the preliminary difficulties which the student has to overcome, he becomes acquainted with every word he hears from his teacher and learns to use it immediately without having to introduce another language between the sound of the word and its meaning.
>
> UNESCO (1955, p. 235)

The report also detailed the following points:

(i) Prospective learners were assigned to one of three levels: beginners, advanced, and qualifying students; classes numbered between 20-25 students;

(ii) A cadre of 'qualified and unqualified teachers, philologists and students' (p. 232) were drawn to meet the needs of the mass migration that had arrived in Israel following its independence in 1948;

(iii) Initially there was no fixed curriculum, but 'almost as many curricula as there were teachers' (p. 238). Only in 1952 was a draft of an official curriculum issued, which stated:

> An immigrant issuing from one of the educational institutions of the Department for the teaching of the Language will have acquired a satisfactory standard of knowledge of the Hebrew language and its culture. This knowledge will qualify him to become a good citizen of Israel.
>
> UNESCO (1955, p. 239)

Thus it can be inferred that from the earliest phases of the development of THAL, a number of fundamental principles were established:

- The focus of instruction is the spoken language;
- Hebrew is to be taught through the medium of Hebrew;
- Prospective learners have different levels of previous knowledge and therefore instruction should be graded;

- In an absence of a central curriculum, curricula are determined independently by institutions, and/or, individually by teachers; and
- The instruction of national and cultural topics is tied closely to the instruction of the language;

(For further reading on various aspects of the Ulpan method see, Ben Hayyim 1975; Blum 1971; Haramati 1972, 1984, 2000; Parhi 2013; A. Rosen 1971, 1975.)

Aharon Rosen, who began teaching Hebrew in 1950 to overseas students at the Hebrew University, Jerusalem, adhered to these overarching principles of the Ulpan method. His adaptation of the Ulpan method, which in itself followed the early *Hebrew-in-Hebrew* approaches, developed as a holistic philosophy devoid of strict guidelines, rather than a fixed method:

> Since he had not inherited an organized method from a teacher… he [Rosen] did what other pioneers did, he began to build his own method… From his vast experience of teaching the language to various types of learners, he developed his method. He did not articulate it theoretically, rather he presented it in a practical manner; wrote varied, graded textbooks that covered both vocabulary and grammar, which he wanted to instruct the learners with. His books enjoyed great success, and were translated or adapted into English, French, Spanish, German, and Russian.
>
> Ben Hayyim (1975, p. 13; translated from Hebrew)

In 1965, 'The Division of Hebrew Language Instruction' (now named the 'Rothberg International School for Overseas Students' (RIS)) was formally established at the Hebrew University, and was headed by Rosen until his death in 1972. The RIS curricula framework and pedagogy are discussed at length in Chapter 4. Here I provide an overview of some of the L2 methods and approaches which, under Rosen's direction, influenced this institute's educational philosophy in its founding years. Over the years, THAL has adapted pedagogical principles and practices developed in the field of (mainly English) L2 instruction, and subsequent developments in the RIS pedagogy have reflected advances in the wider L2 field.

In some reflections, published late in life, Rosen testified that while the *Hebrew-in-Hebrew* approach continued to dominate THAL, other L2 innovations were also gaining influence:

> Today the direct system [English terminology used] namely Hebrew-in-Hebrew is followed, and the emphasis is mostly on teaching living speech as a pathway to knowledge of the language, yet in addition to speech we certainly teach reading and writing. In our teaching methods we have been influenced by the achievements in English instruction during World War II and from the experience of the Americans in that field… In the meantime other innovations have entered our country such … as various audio-lingual methods; and it will be interesting to scrutinise their success and contribution to the teaching of Hebrew.
>
> It must be emphasised that in Israel almost no-one denies that speaking skills take top priority. Speech, which is achieved through repetitive listening (L) to the foreign language, represents the first layer in language learning. Only following this can reading with understanding be developed finally to arrive at adequate written expression.
>
> A. Rosen (1971, p. 186, 190, respectively; translated from Hebrew)

Rosen summarizes the following requirements for beginner-level instruction:

- The instruction will be limited in both duration and materials covered; it will be based on the most essential vocabulary and only this vocabulary will be learned;
- No speaking in students' mother tongue, but teaching Hebrew and speaking it;
- The language of instruction is Hebrew, but if required and in order to save time the teacher can at times use the students' mother tongue;
- In the first stage the lessons will be carried out through question and answer without resorting to the textbook;
- The student can use a transliteration in the Latin alphabet;
- Introduction of new words will be done by eliciting these from the students and/or by modelling the language;
- Students' should respond in full sentences;

A. Rosen (1975, pp. 19-20; translated from Hebrew)

Overall, Rosen's words reflect his knowledge of grammar-based teaching methods as well as approaches that flourished in both the UK and the US between the 1940s and 1960s under the influence of behaviourist psychology and its understanding of first language acquisition (for example, Lightbown & Spada 2006; Ortega 2009; VanPatten & Williams 2007). The many L2 textbooks Rosen wrote, and their subsequent translations into English, French, Spanish, German, Russian (Ben-Hayyim 1975; Melman 1975; B. Rosen 1975b), most closely reflect the UK-based structural-

situational approaches, which were based on the gradual and sequential presentation of L2 structures using content that was broadly organized around real life 'situations'. This included prescribed vocabulary (such as lists of 1000/2000 basic-words commonly used), as well as selection of grammatical structures. As well, the audio-lingual teaching and language laboratory materials developed in the US after 1945, which provided learners with repetitive drilling and practice of the target language, are strongly echoed in the language laboratory program *Ma Nishma* (Kobliner & Simons 1995) developed at RIS.

With the emergence of more socially oriented perspectives within the field of language teaching in the late 1960s-early 1970s, structural-situational approaches were combined with newer understandings of the functional and communicative role of language. This 'social turn' led to a plethora of approaches which collectively became identified as communicative language teaching (for example, Harmer 2007a, 2007b; Hedge 2000; Howatt & Widdowson 2004; Littlewood 1981; Richards & Rodgers 2001). Seen more as a movement including numerous eclectic approaches rather than being underpinned by a common linguistic or educational theory, communicative language teaching (henceforth CLT) is characterized by a speech-based approach that emphasizes the priority of communication over grammatical accuracy, and aims above all at communicative competence, defined by Richards & Rodgers as 'what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community' (2001, p. 159).

Carter & Nunan define CLT as:

> an approach to the teaching of language which emphasises the use of language by the learner in a range of contexts and for a range of purposes; CLT emphasises speaking and listening in real settings and does not only prioritize the development of reading and writing skills; methodologies for CLT tend to encourage active learner involvement in a wide range of activities and tasks and strategies for communication.
>
> Carter & Nunan (2001, p. 219)

Hedge claims that CLT methods and approaches share a core pedagogical principle:

> The communicative approach to language teaching is premised on the belief that, if the development of communicative language ability is the goal of classroom learning, then communicative practice must be part of the process.
>
> Hedge (2000, p. 57)

While Harmer reiterates the significance of CLT's principles by stating that:

> Communicative Language Teaching has had a thoroughly beneficial effect since it reminded teachers that people learn languages not so that they know *about* them, but so that they can communicate *with* them.
>
> Harmer (2007a, p. 50)

With the dominance of CLT in the L2 pedagogical arena from the 1980s onwards, we begin to find significant commonalities between practices widespread in CLT and those common in THAL. The inclusion of many communicative activities, typical in RIS pedagogy, attests to this influence; as is the similarity between Harmer's above statement (2007a) and one of the RIS key instructional mottos, which states: 'we don't learn *about* but rather *the* [language]'[7] (Israeli 1992, p. 12; translated from Hebrew; italics in the original). In other words, this dictum points to the fact that the active use of the language lies at the heart of its teaching and learning.

Thus although the teaching of Hebrew has been shaped by changes in the broader field of language teaching, it has to some extent developed independently. These developments however have tended to be of a practical kind, while overall, the THAL remains under-theorized and under-researched. Generally, it lacks the research-based knowledge and theoretical conceptualizations that underpin present-day debates in the wider L2 field. In the following section I turn to some of the current debates pertaining to L2 teaching and learning that are most relevant to the instruction of Hebrew.

2.2 Current debates about L2 teaching

In this section I discuss debates in the current literature on advances in the wider L2 field, and how the understanding of and research into L2 teaching and learning have shifted depending on different approaches and their underlying theories. Some of the most contested issues in the field of L2 teaching, learning, and research, include: the use

[7] This unusual emphasis is in the original Hebrew

of language to teach language; the place of grammar in language teaching; attitudes to learners' ungrammatical language; the balance of spoken vs. written modes; the relationship between language and culture; and the place of affect in the classroom. These debates are also the ones most relevant to the THAL.

2.2.1 Using the language to teach the language

The debate about the balance between using the target language L2 and learners' L1 in the classroom has been long running (for example, V. Cook 2001, 2002a, 2002b; Duff & Polio1990; Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005; Gass & Selinker 2008; Lightbown & Spada 2006; Ortega 2007, 2009; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie 2002; Saville-Troike 2006; Turnbull 2001; Turnbull & Arnett 2002; van Lier 1995, 2000, 2004; VanPatten & Williams 2007; Wells 1999). Proponents of the Direct Method argued for the avoidance of the learners' L1 and opposed all types of translation (Howatt & Widdowson 2004; G. Cook 2010). The emergence of modern language learning research, both L1 and L2, has profoundly impacted on theorizations of L2 teaching. As a result, the debate as to which language to use in the classroom – L1 or L2, or both – centres on the function and degree of L1 in L2 teaching and learning: if, when, and how the L1 should be used and if so, how it impacts on L2 development. While many teachers still support total avoidance of using the L1, many current researchers recognize the role students' L1 plays in their L2 development, a point highlighted by Turnbull & Arnett:

> Therefore, the question then becomes how and when teachers should use the first language in their pedagogy and what impact this has on the students' learning.
>
> Turnbull & Arnett (2002, p. 208)

Yet even amongst those who favour the inclusion of some L1 in the L2 classroom in both teacher and students talk, there is no consensus about the level, quantity, and frequency of L1 use (for example, V. Cook 1995, 2001 2002a, 2002c; Swain & Lapkin 2000; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie 2002; Turnbull 2001). Socially oriented perspectives that have highlighted the communicative role of language in language learning have also provided the impetus towards greater flexibility in using the L1, as van Lier argues:

> To sum up, from the cognitive, linguistic, or interactional perspective, banning the L1 from the classroom seems to be neither necessary nor beneficial for L2 learning.
>
> van Lier (1995, p. 42)

The issue of using students' L1 in the teaching and learning of L2 Hebrew is highly relevant to this research project, as the pedagogic approach to teaching Modern Hebrew shifted from the traditional line-by-line translation of classical Hebrew texts and knowledge of Hebrew grammar to an emphasis on speaking, reading and writing Hebrew. The initial ban on the use of L1 within the *Hebrew-in-Hebrew* method was modified to a partial acceptance of L1 in the Ulpan method (A. Rosen 1971; UNESCO 1955) something which subsequently gained a certain hold at RIS as well (Kobliner 1992; A. Rosen 1975). Nonetheless, the debate about using students' L1 remains one of the contested issues in Hebrew pedagogy. Part of the investigative agenda of this thesis includes the circumstances in which English is used in the classroom, both by teacher and students, the purposes it fulfils, the functions it serves and the impact it has.

2.2.2 The place of grammar in language teaching

As discussed above, shifts in the L2 field have also impacted on approaches to the role played by grammar in L2 teaching (for example, N. Ellis 2008; R. Ellis 1999; Larsen-Freeman 2009; Long 2009; Macaro & Masterman 2006). This complex topic pertains to a number of related issues: the utility of a grammar-based curriculum; the extent to which grammar should or should not be explicitly taught; and approaches to dealing with students' ungrammatical use of language.

As discussed above, the use of a sequence of grammatical structures as a way of organizing a curriculum was at the centre of the structural syllabi and grammar-based teaching approaches and methods. As pointed out by Richards & Rogers (2001), British applied linguists built scientific and systematic foundations to language teaching – which they saw as lacking in the Direct Method – for the gradual and sequential presentation of the L2. These developments also brought British and American applied linguists to engage in the formulation of L2 (again, mainly English) grammar-based textbooks and programs (Howatt & Widdowson 2004; Larsen-Freeman 2009; Ortega 2009). Newer developments from the 1980s again swung the grammar pendulum away

from the teaching of grammar. The advent of CLT saw the rejection of the teaching of grammar, as Littlewood stated:

> A communicative approach opens up a wider perspective on language. In particular, it makes us consider language not only in terms of structures (grammar and vocabulary), but also in terms of the communicative functions that it performs. We can therefore combine the newer *functional* view of language with the traditional *structural* view, in order to achieve a more *communicative* perspective.
>
> Littlewood (1981, p. x; italics in original)

Conversely, one strand, which emerged from the ‘focus on form’ approaches, argued that while there should not be a return to structural syllabi, grammar should be included within language teaching, as pointed out by R. Ellis:

- we include a grammar component in the language curriculum, to be used alongside a communicative task-based component
- we teach grammar only to learners who have already developed a substantial lexical base and are able to engage in message-focussed tasks, albeit with language that is grammatically inaccurate.

R. Ellis (1999, p. 17)

These understandings gave rise to fresh debates as to the degree of grammar instruction and whether grammar should be taught implicitly or explicitly (for example, N. Ellis 2008; R. Ellis 1999; Larsen-Freeman 2009; Long 2009; Macaro & Masterman 2006). Approaches such as ‘focus on form’ ascribed merit to explicit instruction in grammar, due to scholars’ increasing understanding that ungrammatical L2 utterances emerge from variations between different linguistic systems. Associated with the latter are the concepts of interlanguage and fossilization, as well as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (for example, de Bot et al. 2005; Selinker 1972). CLT approaches, however, which over the past four decades have been prominent in language learning classrooms, strongly rejected the teaching of grammar, as the goal of CLT approaches has been to produce competent L2 communicators.

Issues pertaining to grammar-based curricula and the degree to which grammar should be explicitly taught are highly relevant to this research project. As will be discussed at length in Chapter 4, there are strong legacies of the structural-situational, ‘focus on

form', and 'presentation, practice, production' (PPP) approaches in the RIS curricula and programs, which while being language and grammar-based, include many communicative activities, with the ability to speak Hebrew the ultimate instructional goal.

Alongside developments in approaches to language teaching, the advent of sociocultural-ecological approaches to L2 instruction has brought new insights into the longstanding debate on grammar teaching. In turn, these new insights have impacted on understandings of the ways learners use ungrammatical language. This change is based on an understanding that learners' speech is part of the 'unstable and dynamic nature of activity' (Lantolf & Genung 2002, p. 175). Thus, L2 speech, and grammaticality, fluctuates between 'correct' (grammatical / normative / native / target-like / standard) on the one hand, and 'incorrect' (ungrammatical {Vygotsky 1986} / non-normative {Ortega 2009} / nonnative[8]-like {Lyster & Ranta 1997} / nontargetlike[9] {Lyster 2004} / non-standard {Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005}) on the other hand. In other words, L2 learners' speech is *emergent*:

> "emergent" … suggests a perpetual process in which movement toward a complete structure of some kind is constant but completion is always deferred. Linguistic structure is intrinsically incomplete, a work in progress, a site under construction.
>
> Hopper (cited in Lantolf & Thorne 2007b, pp. 259-262)

Learners' emerging grammar goes along with their developing ability to communicate in the L2:

> From the perspective of emergent grammar, then, learning an additional language is about enhancing one's repertoire of fragments and patterns that enable participation in a wider array of communicative activities. It is not about building up a complete and perfect grammar in order to produce well-formed sentences. Speakers are able to regularly shape their communicative artefacts to fit their own meaning-making needs. Grammar is at their service and not the other way around.
>
> Lantolf & Thorne (2006, p. 17)

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[8] This is in the original, p. 46.
[9] This is in the original, p. 403.

Hence learners' grammaticality intensifies and fades in different communicative situations, and is impacted on by various affective circumstances:

> [A]t a given point in time, learners may use sentences typical of several different stages [of their L2 developmental sequence]. It is perhaps better to think of a stage as being characterized by the emergence and increasing frequency of new forms rather than by the complete disappearance of earlier ones. Even when a more advanced stage comes to dominate in a learner's speech, conditions of stress or complexity in a communicative interaction can cause the learner to 'slip back' to an earlier stage.
>
> Lightbown & Spada (2006, pp. 92-93)

Due to such insights, of learners' non-grammatical speech being part of their emerging and developing use of language, conceptualizations of 'erroneous use of L2' have been re-evaluated. This view of L2 speech as stages in a developing language continuum has two potential implications for L2 pedagogy: firstly, it provides fresh conceptualizations of the role of grammar in L2 instruction; secondly, it provides new viewpoints on L2 speech and writing as shifting between phases that ultimately result in varying grammatical competence. In relation to L2 Hebrew pedagogy and this investigation in particular, both these issues are very relevant. Firstly, Hebrew has traditionally been viewed prescriptively, with the language regulated by the Academy of the Hebrew Language (http://hebrew-academy.huji.ac.il/English/Pages/default.aspx; retrieved 19/12/2013). This goes some way to explain the centrality of grammar, understood as rules for the correct use of the language[10], in teaching Hebrew both as a first and a second language. Secondly, it appears that current debates on learners' emerging language and ways of approaching 'incorrect' speech and writing in the broader L2 field have not, as yet, entered into discussions on Hebrew pedagogy. As pointed out by Long, it may be the case that current instruction is 'uncannily like lessons those teachers themselves experienced as school-aged pupils' (2009, p. 374).

2.2.3 Attitudes to student's language: feedback and feedforward

These debates on the balance between explicit and implicit instruction of grammar, and the fresh conceptualization of L2 speech and writing as shifting phases within a developing language continuum, have implications for the ways scholars perceive

[10] Influenced also by the status of Biblical Hebrew as a religious language, the 'Word of God'.

learners' language. In the context of L2 instruction, the debates have implications for the purpose and manner of feedback teachers provide to students. In using the term feedback I refer to the wide range of reporting-back procedures and mechanisms offered by teachers and other educating agents; such as parents, instructors, coaches, etc. (for example, Duncan 2007; Hattie & Gan 2011; Hattie & Timperley 2007; Hattie & Yates 2014; Hounsell et al. 2008; Ohta 2001; Sadler 1983, 2010).

The pedagogic practices of feedback and, its lesser-used counterpart, feedforward, (Bjorkman 1972; Sadler 2010) referred initially in the wider field of education, to providing students with information about assessment tasks. According to Bjorkman:

> Feedforward and feedback have the same function namely to reduce uncertainty about the task. Both can be varied with respect to amount of information and have a compensatory relationship to each other.
>
> Bjorkman (1972, p. 156)

Sadler (1983, 1989, 2010) identifies feedback and feedforward practices with teachers' pedagogic responsibility to provide students with instructional specifications:

> Students need to know not only *that* they have achieved, but *how* and *why* as well.
>
> The overt aim is to shift the focus away from telling the students about the quality of their work (disclosure) and towards having them see and understand the reasons for quality (visibility), and in the process develop personal capability in making complex judgements. This includes judgements about their own works, both during production and on completion.
>
> Sadler (1983, pp. 63-64: italics in original; and 2010, p. 546)

> Feedforward and feedback share an important characteristic: as one-way messages from the teacher to the student, they are essentially about telling, or disclosure. …To start with, those parts of feedback that specifically deal with strengths, weaknesses and especially guidance for improving future works are more than mere conduits of information. For the most part, they are expository and didactic. The teacher wants the student to learn from the assessment event and the text of the feedback provides the instructional medium.
>
> Sadler (2010, p. 530)

This view is further supported by Hattie & Yates who state:

> [R]eceiving appropriate feedback is incredibly empowering. Why? Because it enables the individual to move forward, to plot, plan, adjust, rethink, and thus exercise self-regulation in realistic and balanced ways.
>
> Hattie & Yates (2014, p. 66)

Discussions about feedback and feedforward in the wider field of education have in the main focused on reporting back on written assessment tasks, on students' required level of knowledge, and on the need and ways of closing gaps in students' knowledge at a particular time of assessment (for example, Hattie & Timperley 2007; Sadler 1989, 2010). In contrast, within the area of L2 teaching, the concept of feedback has traditionally referred to the assessment of learners' oral performance, with discussions focusing on the impact of corrective feedback on students' L2 learning and development. Lyster & Ranta (1997) list six different types of feedback mechanisms:

> *1. Explicit correction* refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect
>
> *2. Recasts* involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error…Recasts are generally implicit in that they are not introduced by phrases such as "You mean"… However, some recasts are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word, whereas others incorporate the grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse.
>
> *3. Clarification requests…* indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformation is required.
>
> *4. Metalinguistic feedback* contains comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form… Metalinguistic information generally provides some grammatical metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error…or a word definition in the case of lexical errors.
>
> *5. Elicitation* refers to at least three techniques that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the students. First, teachers elicit completion of their own utterance… Second, teachers use questions to elicit correct forms… Third, teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance.…

> *6. Repetition* refers to teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error.
>
> Lyster & Ranta (1997, pp. 46-48; italics and inverted commas in original)

L2 scholars who deal with reporting-back procedures (Dilans 2010; Long 1999, 2009; Lyster 2004; Lyster & Ranta 1997) have highlighted the different aspects of feedback processes. However, there has been relatively little discussion of the counterpart aspect of feedforward, discussed by scholars in the wider field of education (Bjorkman 1972; Hattie & Yates 2014; Sadler 1983, 2010). Discussion of the role played by corrective feedback in feeding forward to future L2 learning and development has, thus far, been missing from the wider L2 field, nor is it covered in publications on THAL. The current investigation aims to bring together these two issues – corrective feedback and its impact on future L2 learning, as feedback also functions as feedforward to future learning.

A further way of providing preparation for future learning is the pedagogical practice of early sensitization to new and unknown language, language that will only be formally introduced at a later stage. This early sensitization, or forward feeding, is different from feedforward. It entails the pedagogical process of sensitizing learners to specific L2 language (mainly structures) well before its formal instruction. I refer to this early sensitization/forward feeding process as *TIFTOUT* (literally translated as *sprinkle* or *drizzle* of water).

In summary, making up the teaching and learning continuum is: early sensitization/*TIFTOUT*, followed by formal teaching (in which use of the language precedes learning about the language), which, in turn, is followed by feedback that also functions as feedforward to future use and learning.

2.2.4 Balance of spoken vs. written modes

A similar debate to that over the use of L1 in the teaching and learning of L2 has taken place over the balance between teaching spoken and written modes of the target language. This is a much longer-standing debate going back to the 19th century, when it was at the centre of the major shift in teaching from classical (written) languages to modern (spoken) languages. The methods used for teaching the classical languages in

Europe since the Middle Ages (primarily Latin, alongside classical Greek and Hebrew) focused almost exclusively on the written language and aimed to inculcate fluency in reading and writing. In the 19th century when spoken languages started to be taught, the method most familiar to the newly established teaching profession was achieved by using dictionaries and translations, and considerable emphasis was placed on the acquisition of grammar (G. Cook 2010; Howatt & Widdowson 2004). The emergence of the Direct Method's more natural approach to language instruction established a prominent role for the spoken mode, but with this approach, the balance between teaching written and spoken language became a point of contest. For example, in some programs developed under the Direct Method, where the key principle was speaking the foreign language in a natural manner, the teaching of the written language was delayed to a later stage (Howatt & Widdowson 2004, p. 225). A similar prioritizing of spoken language can be detected in both structural and communicative approaches. Currently, the balance between the teaching of spoken and written modes appears to be program-dependent, with programs centred on academic writing focusing on literacy, while programs promoting communication skills accentuate spoken fluency. The exact balance between the two modes appears to be left to the decisions of individual institutions and / or teachers (for example, Long 2009)

The question of the balance between the teaching and learning of spoken versus written Hebrew, similar to the situation in the broader L2 field, remains unclarified. The ambiguity present in Epstein's 1898 words 'the truer and more natural basis of language learning is speech…True knowledge of a language is acquired via reading the best books it was written in' (cited in full in Section 2.1), is still relevant nowadays, and is reflected in a description of foreign language instructional policy at a North American university in which Hebrew is one of many languages taught. As Angel reports, instruction is based on the 'immersion method from the first day'; yet, the ultimate aim is to 'provide students with the ability to read and enjoy literature in its original language' (Angel 2013, p. 158; translated from Hebrew). Specifically in relation to this thesis, we find that in the RIS pedagogy the spoken mode always precedes the written mode. Nonetheless, the balance between instruction in the two modes, as well as the variation in the focus on spoken and written language across the six instructional levels of the RIS curricula, is not clearly articulated.

2.2.5 Relationship between language and culture

Developments in social, political and economic circumstances since the 1960s have brought about significant shifts in the ways the connection between language and culture is perceived in L2 teaching and scholarship (for example, Brooks 1997; Byram & Feng 2004; Byram & Grundy 2002; Heusinkveld 1997; Kramsch 2009). At first, elements of the more traditional "high culture" components of L2 instruction were augmented to include dimensions of daily culture, as pointed out by Heusinkveld:

> [T]he profession eventually came to embrace both definitions of culture, generally referring to formal culture (art, literature, and philosophy) as "big C culture" and anthropological or "every-day" culture as "small c culture".
>
> Heusinkveld (1997, p. xxviii; inverted commas in original)

Later, cross-cultural and intercultural dimensions were integrated into L2 instruction and, more recently, critical and ethnographic perspectives are being included in L2 education (for example, Brooks 1997; Byram & Feng 2004; Byram & Grundy 2002; Byram & Morgan 1994; Halverson 1997; Heusinkveld 1997; Kramsch 2002, 2009; Lafayette 1997; Lantolf 1999).

Shifts in the broader L2 field on ways of teaching the target culture within the context of the target language appear to have had less impact on the teaching of L2 Hebrew. Rather, Hebrew teaching has continued to reflect the historically held belief in the close connection between knowledge of Hebrew and Jewish identity (Blum 1971; Brosh 1996; Morahg 1999, 2002; Parhi 2013; Schiff 1996; Shohamy 1999; Spolsky 1986; UNESCO 1955; Zisenwine 1997). This long-held belief has underpinned the extensive inclusion of national and cultural topics within Hebrew curriculum writing, as emphasized by Kodesh:

> [I]nstruction in Hebrew must be combined with activities that raise Jewish consciousness of students by enhancing their commitment to Jewish identity and their familiarity with Jewish culture. Instruction in Hebrew and consciousness-raising stand in a complementary relationship.
>
> Kodesh (1982, p. 5; translated from Hebrew)

Only in the present decade has a debate on the inclusion of Israeli/Jewish cultural topics in THAL textbooks begun to emerge (Shai 2010). The issue of the connection between

Hebrew teaching and Israeli/Jewish culture is important to this thesis, due to the strong integration between language and culture in the Textbook's curriculum which underpins the case study program.

2.2.6 Affective factors and their impact on L2 learning

The last topic relevant to this investigation, concerns how affect impacts on L2 learning. The role personal factors, such as self-confidence, emotional state (especially anxiety), attitude and motivation, play in language learning has been widely researched (for example, Dörnyei 2009, 2011; Hilleson 1996; Larsen-Freeman 2001b; Lightbown & Spada 2006; MacIntyre 1999, 2002; MacIntyre & Gardner 1994; Ortega 2009; Reid 1999). Moreover, there is a general agreement among scholars that the classroom environment impacts significantly on students' L2 learning, and that teachers play a significant role in shaping the social as well as educational conventions of the learning cohort (for example: Edwards & Westgate 1994; Lave & Wenger 1991; Ortega 2009; Senior, 1999, 2001, 2006). Dörnyei & Murphy argue that most often it is teachers who set the initial tone for the establishment of a cohort's social and interpersonal relations: 'teachers as group leaders embody 'group conscience', and the model they set in their personal group behaviour plays a powerful role in shaping the class' (2003, p. 41; inverted commas in the original).

Specifically relevant to this investigation is the place of affect in contributing to a supportive learning environment, and the impact this has on students' learning and L2 development. This includes the impact that 'reasons unrelated to teaching the linguistic content of the course' (Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie 2002, p. 422) have on teaching and learning and the overall classroom dynamics, including teachers' use of humour (for example, Medgyes, 2002; Nunan 1996; Senior 2001, 2006). As Bell points:

> Language teachers are often encouraged to use humour in the classroom. Humour is presented as socially and psychologically beneficial to learners, helping to relax them, to create a comfortable classroom atmosphere, to create bonds among classmates, to raise student interest, and simply to make learning more enjoyable.
>
> Bell (2009, p. 241)

The role Bell (2009) and Senior (2001, 2006) attribute to humour in the classroom, appears very similar to the classroom practice promoted by A. Rosen, who was one of the fore founders of RIS:

> Humour was always imbedded in his [Rosen's] teaching. The lesson began and ended with a smile. He adhered to the principle that learning must be accompanied by good will and flavoured with jokes and laughter. Especially adult second language learning… [Rosen] would say: when an adult needs to learn a new language he is embarrassed and frustrated. At times he tends to lose his self-esteem and become disheartened. Laughter releases the tension and drives away the embarrassment. Healthy laughter at little obstacles and difficulties relieves [tension].
>
> B. Rosen (1975a, p. 212; translated from Hebrew)

Thus humour, alongside other affective elements such as teachers' consideration and understanding in managing students (van Lier 2001a); as well as the interpersonal relationships among class members, are very relevant to this thesis.

2.3 Theories and approaches underpinning a holistic understanding of classroom interactions

In the above section I presented views from debates in the current literature relevant to L2 teaching and learning. In this third section, I address some of the theoretical constructs that have shaped my understanding of the classroom-based interactions examined in this thesis. Thus the focus here shifts from language teaching more generally to an emphasis on understanding what takes place in one classroom. At this point, I turn to sociocultural and ecological approaches to language and learning.

As indicated earlier, this thesis investigates a beginner-level classroom-based teaching and learning program at a large Australian university. It looks closely at the complexity of factors that contribute to the program's overall success, and considers how these factors impact on students' L2 learning and development. It uses sociocultural (SCT) and ecological linguistic (EL) perspectives to view the complexity of the case study's interactions and environment. These understandings provide insights into the pragmatic considerations that inform THAL and the multitude of factors that impact on students' experience in the classroom and beyond. My contention is that SCT and EL provide

holistic theoretical perspectives with which to view the complexity of the case study's interactions and environment; insights which are not available from other theoretical perspectives.

2.3.1 Sociocultural theory (SCT)

The theories and constructs which over time have become known under the banner of sociocultural theory (SCT) were developed in Russia in the 1930s and 1940s by a circle of psychologists consisting of Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) and his colleagues and students A.R. Luria (1902-1977), A.A. Leontiev (1903-1979), and P.J. Galperin (1902-1988). The circle's theories were originally developed as part of a cadre of comprehensive studies into children's psycholinguistic development and learning. Their findings emphasised the close and interlinked influences between children's cognitive development and their environment.

Vygotskian educational philosophy advocates three fundamental principles:

Firstly, human higher mental functions (speech, rational thought and learning) initially take place in the social domain (the interpersonal arena) external to the individual. Only following a gradual process of internalization, in which the individual moves from being dependent on outside assistance (other-regulated stage) to progressively gaining self-control, does the individual assume control of his/her higher mental processes (self-regulated stage). Probably Vygotsky's best-known principle is:

> *An interpersonal process is transformed into an intrapersonal one*. Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, *between people (interpsychological)*, and then *inside* the child (*intrapsychological*). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relations between human individuals.
>
> Vygotsky (1978, p. 57; italics in the original; see slightly different translations in Vygotsky 1981a p. 163)

Secondly, Vygotsky saw language, above and beyond its communicative function, as a mean of organizing and externalizing mental functions. In this context, language is understood to have two applications: on the one hand, language functions as a

communicative device when it enables social interaction in the public (interpersonal) arena; on the other hand, language is used when private mental functions are organized and internalized in the transition from this interpersonal arena to the intrapersonal one:

> Language arises initially as a means of communication between the child and the people in his environment. Only subsequently, upon conversion to internal speech, does it come to organize the child's thought, that is, become an internal mental function.
>
> Vygotsky (1978, pp. 88-89)

Thirdly, Vygotsky stressed the importance of the *process* of language development, over and above its final outcome:

> [W]e need to concentrate not on the *product* of development but on the very *process* by which higher forms are established.
>
> Vygotsky (1978, p. 64; italics in original)

> The relation of thought to word is not a thing but a process, a continual movement back and forth from thought to word and from word to thought. In that process, the relation of thought to word undergoes changes that themselves may be regarded as development in the functional sense. Thought is not merely expressed in words; it comes into existence through them. Every thought tends to connect something with something else, to establish a relation between things. Every thought moves, grows and develops, fulfils a function, solves a problem.
>
> Vygotsky (1986, p. 218; slightly different translation in 1987, vol. 1, p. 250)

The rediscovery by western scholars in the late 1970s of the writings of Vygotsky, his colleagues and contemporaries (for example, Bakhurst 2007; Cole 2004; Daniels 2005; Daniels et al. 2007; Wertsch 1981), as well as the further development and expansion of these theories in subsequent scholarship (for example, Lantolf 2000b; Lantolf & Appel 1994b; Lantolf & Thorne 2006, 2007a, 2007b) has had the result that the SCT paradigm:

> [N]ow influences a wide range of disciplines and professions. His [Vygotsky's] nondeterministic, nonreductionist account of the formation of mind provides current theoretical developments with a broadly drawn, yet very powerful sketch of the ways in which humans shape and are shaped by social, cultural, and historical conditions.
>
> Daniels et al. (2007, p. 1)

The influence of the SCT paradigm has come through in the works of many scholars, all loosely grouped as neo-Vygotskian. In addition to those scholars mentioned above, whose writings are most relevant to this investigation are: Aljaafreh & Lantolf 1994; Hammond & Gibbons 2005; Lantolf 2000a; Mercer 1994, 2002; Michell & Sharpe, 2005; Ohta 2000a; Swain 2006; Swain & Lapkin 1995; Tocalli-Beller & Swain 2007; van Lier 2004; Washburn 1994).

2.3.2 Ecological linguistics (EL)

van Lier's ecological linguistics expands on Vygotskian theories of learning and development by relating them to language learning and development. van Lier extended Vygotskian thinking and the STC legacy by building on from the fields of biological ecology (following Haeckel 1886) and psychology (following Gibson 1979), to view education 'from within an ecological worldview' (van Lier 2008, p. 53):

> In particular I will suggest that the work of Vygotsky and Bakhtin, dating from the early decades of the twentieth century, illustrate an ecological approach to cognition, learning, and language.… I will argue that ecology is a fruitful way to understand and build on the legacy that Vygotsky, Bakhtin, and also their American contemporaries Peirce, Mead, and Dewey, left for us.
>
> van Lier (2000, p. 245)

An ecological worldview, van Lier posits, affords a holistic approach to language conceptualization, learning, and research:

> I want to present some arguments for an ecological way of researching, practicing, and conceptualizing language learning (first, second and foreign). … However, I wish to suggest that an ecological approach can unite a number of well-established views on language learning, especially when this ecological approach is anchored in an ecological worldview.

> Learning languages, whether first or subsequent, in the classroom or in the wider community, is a complex process (or project, if we look at it from the learner's perspective), influenced by a multitude of factors. These factors cannot be reduced to single linear relationships, i.e., a *cause* (such as method, a task, an example, a drill) and subsequent *effect* (a memorized word or structure, spontaneous use of a targeted item in discourse, a correct answer on a test, etc.).
>
> van Lier (2000, p. 245, and 2004, p. 197, respectively; italics in original)

Ecological linguistics' holistic theoretical perspective is highly relevant to understanding the complexity of the case study's classroom-based environment and interactions. van Lier views language through an ecological prism, as a manifestation of the reciprocal relationships between people and their environment, and sees language learning as consisting of 'relationships among learners and between learners and the environment' (2000, p. 258). He further points out that 'The ecological approach looks at the entire situation and asks, what it is in this environment that makes things happen the way they do? How does learning come about?' (van Lier 2004, p. 11). Answering his own question, van Lier states that 'Ecology wants to find a way to look deeper and further; it will address the notion of the quality of educational experience, as different from the documentation of educational standards' (van Lier 2004, p. 12; see also 2000, p. 255).

Hence, from the perspective of this thesis, van Lier's ecological linguistic worldview enables us 'to look deeper and further' into the issues relevant to this study by providing a lens through which to view the multi-layered teaching and learning interactions and the range of factors that both emerge from and impact on classroom dynamics. Moreover, due to EL's ability to integrate a range of understandings on the nature of language with various prominent approaches to language learning, it provides a foundation for the theorization of L2 instruction to move beyond any one method or approach. Moreover, EL's holistic worldview on the contexts which provide opportunities for learning encompasses endless possibilities for analysing the reciprocal relationships between people and their environment.

One of EL's major contributions to the L2 field lies in its focus on the process of learning rather than on the outcomes of learning. Particularly useful for understanding the reciprocal interaction between learners and their environment which facilitate

learning are the constructs of 'affordance' and 'emergence', defined by van Lier as follows:

> An affordance is a particular property of the environment that is relevant – for good or for ill – to an active, perceiving organism in the environment. An affordance affords further action (but does not cause or trigger it). What becomes an affordance depends on what the organism does, what it wants, and what is useful for it… If the language learner is active and engaged, she will perceive linguistic affordance and use them for linguistic action.
>
> EL regards language learning not as gradual, linear acquisition, but as emergence. Emergence happens when relatively simple elements combine together to form a higher-order system. The whole is not only more than the sum of its parts, it is of a different nature than the parts… In language, grammar emerges from lexis (Bates & Goodman, 1999), symbols emerge from tools (Vygotsky, 1978), learning emerges from participation (Lave & Wenger, 1999). Language proficiency emerges from all those transformations.
>
> van Lier (2000, p. 252 and 2004, p. 5, respectively)

Moreover, van Lier suggests that the concept of affordance should replace the concept of 'input', as affordance better reflects the reciprocal interaction between learners and their environment:

> [T]he notion of input can be replaced by the ecological notion of affordance, which refers to the relationship between properties of the environment and the active learner.
>
> van Lier (2000, p. 257)

Extending further on van Lier (2000, 2004, 2008) and Gibbons (2003), I suggest that the combined ecological metaphors of affordance and emergence should replace the earlier hypotheses of input (Krashen 1982, 1985) and output (Long 1996; Swain 1993; Swain & Lapkin, 1995, 2000) as EL's affordance-emergence conceptualization provides more effective insights into the reciprocal relationship between learners, teacher and the classroom environment as examined in the current case study.

2.3.3 Features associated with SCT-EL

Within what I refer to as the sociocultural-ecological paradigm there are a number of constructs that are especially relevant to my case study analysis. These include: the

Zone of Proximal Development; and Scaffolding and Handover. Although these constructs are, for clarity of presentation, discussed separately here, in the reality of the classroom they are interlinked and embedded in one another, and it is their combined and dynamic nature that impacts on teaching and learning.

Zone of Proximal Development

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is one of the key constructs in the sociocultural-ecological understanding of learning and development. It originally emerged through Vygotsky's work with mentally disadvantaged and physically handicapped children in The Soviet Republic of Uzbekistan in the 1920s. Vygotsky hypothesized that children's learning-trajectory entailed a progression from depending on others' assistance to being self-reliant (Vygotsky 1986, 1978, 2004). In conceptualizing the nature of such assistance, namely the distance that children cover when moving from being other-regulated to being self-regulated, Vygotsky developed the concept of the ZPD as the zone through which, with assistance, learning and development take place:

> *It [ZPD] is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.*
>
> *…human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them.*
>
> Thus, the notion of a zone of proximal development enables us to propound a new formula, namely that the only "good learning" is that which is in advance of development.
>
> Vygotsky (1978, pp. 86, 88, 89, respectively; italics in original)

This innovative conceptualisation of the developmental nature of learning, has resonated with many educators and researchers interested in classroom teaching and learning. In turn, a number of scholars have expanded on this concept; especially relevant to the current study are contributions to the understanding of the ZPD made by Mercer (1994), Donato (1994), van Lier (2000, 2004), Wei (1999) and Poehner (2009).

Mercer highlighted the bounded relationship between a pedagogical event and the development of the ZPD:

> That is, the ZPD is not an attribute of a child (in the sense that, say, IQ is considered to be) but rather the attribute of an *event*. It is the product of a particular, situated, pedagogical relationship.
>
> Mercer (1994, p. 102; italics in original)

Donato expanded Vygotsky's understanding of the potential support provided in the ZPD under 'adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers' (Vygotsky 1978, p. 86), to include assisted performance between equal bearers of knowledge, namely between peers:

> Learners are capable of providing guided support to their peers during collaborative L2 interactions in ways analogous to expert scaffolding documented in the developmental psychological literature.
>
> Donato (1994, p. 51)

Furthermore, Donato argued that in the process of assisting others, learners also expand their own L2 knowledge (p. 52), thus extending the earlier Vygotskian theorization of the master-apprentice/teacher-learner assisted performance, to include peer support.

van Lier (following Donato 1994; Swain & Lapkin 2000) conceptualizes the ZPD as a 'multidimensional activity space within which a variety of proximal processes can emerge' (2004, p. 158). In this expanded zone, the additional 'proximal processes' includes interactions with equal and less able peers, and self-access resources such as prior knowledge, recall ability, and even post-activity upon subsequent reflection:

> [Vygotsky's ZPD] must be expanded to include not only an expert-novice relationship, but also an equal peer one, a peer to lower-level peer one, and self-access, self-regulated on. Thus, I suggest, proximal contexts are peopled with interlocutors of different kinds.
>
> van Lier (2004, p. 162)

Wei proposed the conceptualization of a 'moving ZPD', a changing and developing – zone of engagement, which links learners' developing ability and increasing independence to teachers' decreasing support:

> The amount of scaffolding needed and provided decreases as the skill level of the learner increases. The teacher thus follows a moving ZPD. Ultimately, the scaffolding structure becomes internalized, enabling independent accomplishment of the skill by the learner.
>
> Wei (1999, p. 198)

Finally, Poehner argues that students, as a group, can operate in a collective ZPD, whereby they all benefit, although to different degrees, from shared activities. As the group-as-whole develops, so do the individuals comprising it:

> [I]t is the sharing of knowledge and abilities that moves the group forward in its ZPD while also benefiting individuals (Petrovsky 1985, p. 183). The changing nature of social relations and goals, then, implies that development of the group and development of the individual are increasingly interconnected.
>
> Poehner (2009, p. 476)

The relevance of these understandings of the ZPD to L2 learning is that they provide a holistic theoretical perspective from which to view the complexity of the environment and interactions in contexts such as the current case study. Hence, in viewing teaching and learning as an evolving process, the ZPD is seen as the space in which learners' potential developmental ability is guided and supported by interaction with the teacher (Vygotsky, Mercer), more capable peers (Donato), and less capable peers and other self-access resources (van Lier). As students' usage and knowledge of the target language increases, they require less support (Wei); lastly, learners develop both as individuals and as part of a group (Poehner).

Scaffolding and handover

Closely linked with the Vygotskian understanding of assisted performance within the ZPD are the constructs of 'scaffolding' and 'handover'. These terms, which have become so closely associated with Vygotskian thinking, were actually coined much later by Jerome Bruner and his colleagues (Bruner & Watson 1983; Bruner, Wood & Ross 2006), who used the term 'scaffolding' to capture the process of adults' assisted accompaniment of a child in his/her endeavours to work out an unfamiliar task:

> … scaffolding" [is a] process that enables a child or a novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted effort. This scaffolding

> consists essentially of the adult “controlling” those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner’s capacity, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only these elements that are within his range of competence. The task thus proceeds to a successful conclusion. We assume, however, that the process can potentially achieve much more for the learner than an assisted completion of the task. It may result, in development of task competence by the learner at a pace that would far outstrip his unassisted efforts.
>
> Bruner, Wood & Ross (2006, p. 199; inverted commas in the original)

They used the term ‘handover’ to describe the process by which a mother progressively channels control from herself to her young child:

> … [the] mother would introduce new procedures and gradually “hand it over” to the child as his skills for executing it developed… If the “teacher” in such a system were to have a motto, it would surely be “where before there was a spectator, let there now be a participant”. One sets the game, provides a scaffold to assure that the child’s ineptitudes can be rescued or rectified by appropriate intervention, and then can remove the scaffold part by part as the reciprocal structure can stand on its own… This “handover principle” is so ubiquitous that we hardly notice its presence.
>
> Bruner & Watson (1983, p. 60; inverted commas in original)

Bruner and his colleagues’ notions of ‘scaffolding’ and ‘handover’ are highly congruent with the conceptualization of the ZPD. With the ZPD perceived as the ‘space’ where learning and development takes place, scaffolding and handover are the mechanisms that provide support and guidance for learning to develop within this space.

Specifically with regards to the concept of scaffolding, it has been widely embraced by both teachers and researchers in the L2 field as referring to all acts of teaching; without clear articulation of the specific pedagogical practices that scaffolding entails, or their degree of effectiveness (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005, p. 7; Mercer & Fisher 1998, p. 114; Michell & Sharpe 2005, p. 31; van Lier 2004, p. 148).

In an attempt to investigate ‘what scaffolding looks like in the enacted curriculum’ Hammond and colleagues undertook an analysis of ways in which a number of Australian classroom teachers supported their students’ learning of English as an additional language (Hammond et al. 2001-2003; Hammond & Gibbons 2005; Michell

& Sharpe 2005). In their investigation they first teased out the differences between scaffolding and good teaching:

> [i]n our view, scaffolding, unlike good teaching generally, is specific help that provides the intellectual 'push' to enable students to work at 'the outer limits of the ZPD'.
>
> Hammond & Gibbons (2005, p. 25; inverted commas in original)

They went on to elaborate what effective scaffolding looks like:

> We therefore argued, as do others, that for classroom learning to be most effective, teaching and learning tasks should be ahead of students' abilities to complete alone, but within their ability to complete when scaffolding is provided (Mercer, 1994). Effective scaffolding should result in 'handover', with students being able to transfer understandings and skills to new tasks in new learning contexts, thereby becoming increasingly independent learners. This emphasis on students' learning potential, and not simply on their current abilities, and the consequent raising of expectations about what is possible, seemed to us to be especially significant for students learning through the medium of their second language, where cognitive and conceptual understanding may outstrip English language development or, conversely, where abilities in English may constrain subject-specific learning.
>
> Hammond & Gibbons (2005, p. 8; inverted commas in original)

They also argued that in order to understand how teachers were able to implement scaffolding and handover in their classrooms, they needed to distinguish between pre-lesson planning, or the designed-in scaffolding (macro and meso scaffolding according to van Lier 2004); and contingent scaffolding (micro scaffolding according to van Lier 2004). That is, they argued, between the conscious and planned decisions that teachers make in planning their programs and lessons, and the spontaneous-as-required support teachers provide in the moment by moment unfolding of classroom interactions. The designed-in (van Lier's macro-meso processes) decision-level include: identification of instructional goals; analysis of students' prior knowledge; and the selection and sequencing of instructional tasks to ensure their contribution to the broader learning objectives and to ensure that earlier activities serve as foundations for future activities, both in developing students' knowledge of curriculum content, and in developing their understandings of language and literacy. The contingent (van Lier's micro level) support, is when teachers make 'the most of the teachable moment' (Hammond &

Gibbons 2005, p. 11), and it includes, at least: linking past experiences with current classroom tasks; pointing forward to future learning; recapping key learning; appropriating and recasting students' contributions to classroom interactions; and providing 'intellectual push' by strategic use of question and answer sequences. Both van Lier and Hammond & Gibbons argued that without prior planning (macro-meso, 'design-in') of learning purposes, the spontaneous (micro level, contingent) scaffolding can be a 'hit and miss affair' (2005, p. 20).

While Hammond & Gibbons highlighted the significance of different levels of decisions made by teachers in program planning and implementation, their colleagues Michell & Sharpe (2005) focused on the construct of handover. Their findings led them to argue as follows:

> The progression of scaffolding is characterised by a transfer of task role, responsibility and authority *from* the teacher *towards* the student. As the task unfolds, this shift is typically evidenced by diminishing teacher participation and increasing student involvement. This teacher *'fade-out'* (Brown and Ferrara 1985) or *'handover'* (Bruner 1978) is accompanied by increasing student mastery, *'uptake'* or *'take over'* of the task. There is, moreover, a fundamental interdependence between these two movements. Students cannot begin to take over an activity until the teacher first moves to relinquish his or her control over it. At the same time, teacher fade-out provides the 'press' students need in order to take over and control the task. In this way, teacher fade-out sustains challenge and a 'moving ZPD' for novice participants as they grow more agentive and accomplished in the task. The 'handover/takeover' transition is the 'chrysalis' in which the novice participants appropriate the knowledge and skills of the task experts and themselves become 'task masters'.
>
> Michell & Sharpe (2005, pp. 49-50; italics and inverted commas in original)

The work of van Lier (2004), Hammond & Gibbons (2005) and Michell & Sharp (2005) has been significant in shaping my approach to analysis of data in this thesis. The distinction between pre-planned and classroom-based levels of scaffolding provides a constructive way of thinking about the kind of support that is needed by students. In addition, Michell & Sharpe's articulation of the teachers' role, in gradually handing-over responsibility for learning to their students, highlights aspects of reciprocal interactions in teaching and learning.

One of the ways in which teachers provide contingent/micro scaffolding and manage handover processes is through the initiation-response-feedback/follow-up/evaluation (IRF) exchange. As many scholars have pointed out, this three-part pedagogic sequence underpins most classroom discursive interactions (see Bellack et al. 1966; Ellis 2012; Lemke 1990; Mehan 1979; Mercer 2002, 2008; Newman, Griffin & Cole, 1989; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; van Lier 1996, 2001a; Wells 1993, 1999). The relative merits of the IRF exchange have been extensively debated with some pointing out its controlling and limiting qualities, and others arguing there is a legitimate place for the IRF exchange in classroom interactions (for example, Lemke 1990; Newman, Griffin & Cole 1989; van Lier 1996, 2000; Wells 1993; Wood 1992)

2.4 Conclusion to Chapter 2

In this chapter I have discussed the development of THAL, highlighting its explicit and implicit connections with the wider L2 field, which have ensured that, over the years, THAL has followed a similar trajectory to that of the general L2 arena. I have presented an overview of the major shifts and key debates that have underpinned the major developments in the wider L2 field, while focusing on the issues that are most relevant to THAL and, in particular, to this thesis. While teachers of Hebrew have been exposed to many of the instructional innovations and theoretical developments in the wider L2 field over the years, to date, no clear written documentation of these developments in THAL has been provided.

In this thesis I endeavour to fill some of these gaps through an analysis of one beginner-level L2 Modern Hebrew cohort. By drawing on theoretical constructs from sociocultural and ecological linguistic theory, I attempt to go beyond the identification of specific approaches and / or methods to show in more detail the ways the beginner-level Hebrew program investigated in the case study contributed to students' learning.

I now turn to present the design and implementation of the thesis research project in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3
Research Design

In this chapter I outline the design and implementation of the case study that forms the core of this thesis. In the first section (3.1) I discuss the overall research design, including the location and scope of the study; the approach to research; ethical considerations that impacted on the research design; and the challenges posed by the research. In the second section (3.2) I summarize the research methodology, including the methods employed in collecting data; as well as my reasoning for deciding to focus on the beginner-level cohort and limit the investigation to the classroom-based teaching and learning interactions. In the final section (3.3) I outline the approaches I adopted in analysing the data thus collected, including the three levels of analysis, and the nature and purpose of the analytical approaches.

3.1 Overall research design

3.1.1 Location and scope of the research

As discussed previously, the overall purpose of this research project has been to investigate and illuminate one successful beginners-level classroom-based tertiary program in Hebrew in order to theorize teaching and learning practices in L2 Hebrew. Adopting sociocultural-ecological approaches to research and data collection, I followed guidelines suggested respectively by Lantolf (2000b) and van Lier (2004). Lantolf presents the general aims of sociocultural investigation, following Luria, as follows:

> Because sociocultural research seeks to study mediated mind in the various sites where people engage in the normal activities affiliated with living, it undertakes to maintain the richness and complexity of 'living reality' rather than distilling it 'into its elementary components' for the purpose of constructing 'abstract models that lose the properties of the phenomena themselves' (Luria 1997:174). On this account, explanation of human activities is about observation, description, and interpretation guided by the theory that is careful not to compromise 'the manifold richness of the subject' (*ibid*: 178).
>
> Lantolf (2000b, p. 18; italics in original)

van Lier presents the ecological approach to contexts that afford learning thus:

> Ecology therefore involves the study of context… So, ecology is also the study of movement, process, and action… Classrooms and schools are contexts designed to afford opportunities for learning, and they may be more or less successful at doing this… The results of education that falls within purview of standards, evaluations, performance reviews, accountability, and standardized tests are nothing but the shells that we find on the beach… Ecology wants to find a way to look deeper and further; it will address the notion of the quality of educational experience, as different from the documentation of educational standards.
>
> van Lier (2004, pp. 11-12)

Adhering to both these views, I collected data from two major sources, using different methodologies. One source (discussed in more detail below) encompassed all available information on the RIS curricula, programs and pedagogy, especially the elements relevant to beginner-level instruction. In this phase of the investigation I utilized content analysis methods in order to scrutinize the RIS key educational features and the ways in which these features were embedded in the resources adopted at the Australian university.

Alongside this scrutiny of the RIS pedagogy, I conducted an ethnographic case study investigation of the beginner-level L2 Hebrew program within my university. My decision to focus on beginners emerged from the fact that when I first began to collect the data, I had observed and recorded another four higher-level cohorts, in addition to the beginner-level cohort. These observations provided generic 'snapshots' of the different classes and their respective teachers; delivered research-based data (rather than anecdotal information) regarding informants' subjective perspectives (Cohen et al. 2004; LeCompte & Preissle 1993; Packer 2011); gave me the opportunity to fine-tune the recording techniques to achieve adequate video and audio results (DuFon 2002; Erickson 1992; Goldman-Segall 1998; Markee 2000; Ohta 2000a); and clarified what to look at and look for in the beginner-level class, as well as when to conduct the mid-class interviews. Moreover, collecting data from the other four cohorts provided me with fresh insights into a situation familiar to me; especially clarifying the synergy between teaching and learning while highlighting the leading role played by teachers (as pointed out by Christie 2002, p. 36; Dörnyei & Murphy 2003, p. 107). Finally, these earlier

observations accentuated my perception that at the earliest stage of L2 instruction, the links between teaching and learning are amplified and clearly transparent. Thus, in deciding to focus on the beginner-level cohort in order to present a vivid reconstruction (LeCompte & Preissle 1993, p. 235) of this cohort's classroom teaching and learning environment, I relied on the data gathered from observations of all five classes; on my own 'insider knowledge' (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995, p. 130); and on previous studies of classroom teaching and learning (for example, Cotterall 2005, p. 10; Gascoigne & Robinson 2001, p.115; Ohta 2000b, p. 54; 2001, p. 23; Slimani 2001, p. 290).

In deciding to observe and record the beginner-level cohort over the major part of an academic semester (Section 3.1.3), I followed van Lier's suggestion that '[e]cological research should aim to determine the natural time spans of the phenomena under investigation' (2004, p. 194). This decision was further supported by other scholars who stress the importance of prolonged data collection (for example, Cohen et al. 2004; Christie 2002; Wells 1999). The classroom observation phase covered a span of ten instruction weeks, starting in Week 4 of semester and concluding in Week 13 (final week of teaching) and yielding 40 hours of classroom recordings. This extended data collection period allowed the generation of longitudinal findings that shed light on the developmental processes of L2 teaching and learning, and provided considerable insights into the dynamics of L2 Hebrew teaching and learning. Finally, the need to restrict the scope of the research to a manageable size contributed to my decision to focus on the classroom-based environment, leaving to the periphery other learning domains such as prescribed self-study and/or exposure to the L2 outside of class (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995, p. 26; van Lier 2004, p.194).

This phase of the investigation I utilized qualitative, interpretive and naturalistic research methods (see for example, Allwright 1984; Block 1998; Breen 2001a; Denzin & Lincoln 2003; Miles & Huberman 1994; Packer 2011;). More specifically, I drew on ethnographic approaches, which are located within the qualitative-interpretive paradigm. According to LeCompte & Preissle:

> Ethnographic approaches are concerned more with description rather than prediction, induction rather than deduction, generation rather than verification of theory, construction rather than enumeration, and subjective rather than objective knowledge.

LeCompte & Preissle (1993, pp. 39-44)

> The intention of the [ethnographic] research is to create as vivid a reconstruction as possible of the culture or groups being studied.
>
> LeCompte & Preissle (1993, p. 235)

Mackey & Gass attribute ethnographic inquiry with the following hallmarks:

> Ethnography can be viewed as a qualitative research method that generally focuses on the group rather than the individual, stresses the importance of situating the study within the larger sociocultural context, and strives to present an emic perspective of the phenomena under investigation, with the categories and codes for analysis being derived from the data themselves rather than being imposed from the outside.
>
> Mackey & Gass (2005, p. 186)

Moreover, ethnographic principles of collecting and analysing large amounts of data also fit within a case study approach to collecting and analysing data. As highlighted by Adelman, Jenkins & Kemmis, case-studies are open to a range of research methods and strategies, which allow the use of a plethora of data collecting techniques:

> Case study methodologies are eclectic, although techniques and procedures in common use include observation (participant and nonparticipant), interview (conducted with varying degrees of structure), audio-visual recording, field note taking, document collection, and the negotiation of products (e.g. discussing the accuracy of an account with those observed).
>
> Adelman et al. (1984, p. 94)

Additionally, both approaches allow detailed investigation of a particular case to shed light on a broader range of situations and phenomena, as pointed out by Cohen et al.:

> Case studies strive to portray 'what it is like' to be in a particular situation, to catch the close-up reality and 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973) of participants' lived experiences of, thoughts about and feelings for, a situation.
>
> Cohen et al. (2004, p. 182; inverted commas in original)

Other useful characteristics of case studies are provided, respectively, by Hitchcock & Hughes (1995) and Duff (2008). Thus, Hitchcock & Hughes highlight the following characteristics:

- A concern with the rich and vivid description of events within a case.
- A chronological narrative of events within the case.
- An internal debate between the description of events and the analysis of events.
- A focus upon particular individual actors or groups of actors and their perceptions.
- A focus upon particular events within the case.
- The integral involvement of the researcher in the case.
- A way of presenting the case which is able to capture the richness of the situation.

Hitchcock & Hughes (1995, p. 317)

And Duff states that:

> Most definitions of case study highlight the "bounded", singular nature of the case, the importance of context, the availability of multiple sources of information or perspectives on observations, and the in-depth nature of analysis.
>
> Duff (2008, p. 22; inverted commas in original)

Thus, whilst the case study phase of this investigation was not ethnographic inquiry in its purest form (as, for example, conceptualized by Atkinson, Okada & Talmy 2011; Cohen et al. 2004; Watson-Gegeo 1988) it entailed ethnographic orientations.

These above hallmarks of qualitative-interpretive research, which include an appreciation of the specific elements and components of a particular case, whilst recognizing its potential for wider generalization to other similar cases; and employment of a range of varied research methods and tools, suited the type of investigation I was about to conduct.

3.1.2 Ethical considerations

The nature of the research resulted in the need to address a number of specific ethical issues. In line with university requirements, I obtained ethics approvals from both the university in which I teach and was to conduct the study, and the university in which I am a doctoral candidate.

My dual role as the researcher and the local Program Coordinator raised specific issues in regard to power relations. Thus, in designing this research project, I took extensive steps to ensure that participants were not coerced into participating in the study but willingly consented to take part. Once both ethics' approvals were granted, my doctoral supervisor (who was not known to the case study participants) contacted the Hebrew teachers involved. This initial approach was made via email, briefly describing the proposed research and seeking the teachers' in-principle response. This was done in order to assure these teachers that their decision, either to agree or disagree to participate in the study, would not prejudice their future employment security, or affect their relationship with the me and the university, during the duration of the study or in future.

Once the teachers had given their in-principle agreement to participate in the study, I met with each of them individually and provided further details on the study's main aims and data collection methods. I emphasized the fact that the investigation would not scrutinize teachers' individual practices, but rather would focus on the classroom-based teaching and learning interactions, and its subsequent impact on students' learning and language development. As well, I provided further assurances to those teachers that should they choose not to take part in the study, or withdraw at any stage, it would not impact in any way on their employment status, and furthermore, should they agree to participate, any views they expressed would be presented correctly and adequately. Finally, the teachers were given an information statement, and a consent form which they were asked to sign.

I followed a similar process of recruitment with the students, although in this case the initial approach came from me. I sent an email to students in the five Hebrew cohorts advising them of the proposed research project. This was followed by a series of brief meetings with each prospective group in which I explained and discussed the project's purpose and methodology, and provided an introductory letter and a consent form. I assured the students of the voluntary and anonymous nature of their participation, that their decision either to agree or disagree to participate in the study would not prejudice their future academic progress, or affect their relationship with me or the university, now or in future. Students were advised that they were free to opt not to participate, or if they did not wish to be video/audio recorded they were given the option of sitting

outside of the camera/recorder zone. (No student chose this option). Additionally, students were guaranteed that their views would be presented accurately and that their identity be protected. Thus, throughout the data analysis and the writing up of the findings, pseudonyms have been used to protect the anonymity of the study's participants, including the students, the teachers, and tertiary institution itself.

3.1.3 Research challenges

As discussed above, my dual role as the researcher as well as the coordinator of the local Hebrew Program at my university complicated the nature of this investigation, above and beyond the challenges posed by the close association between researcher and participants inherent in case study research. These challenges concern issues of credibility and trustworthiness of both the collected data and its interpretation, which, in turn, determines the validity and reliability of the investigation itself.

With regard to the collection of data, I was aware of the 'halo effect', the possibility of participants providing testimonies that they perceive will 'please' the researcher:

> Participants may also try to please the researcher by giving answers or responses they think are expected. This is known as the halo effect.
>
> Mackey & Gass (2005, p. 114)

Nevertheless, informants' views are central to this type of investigation, and asking the teacher to articulate his educational philosophies and asking the students to elaborate on their own learning processes is a vital method of gaining understanding of classroom-based instruction (for example, Goldman-Segall 1998; Nunan 1996). Indeed Chamot points out that:

> [A]t the present time the only way to gain any insight at all into the unobservable mental learning strategies of learners is by asking them to reveal their thinking processes.
>
> Chamot (2001, p. 26)

In the first week of semester 1 attended classes in my role as Program Co-ordinator to introduce the teacher, to brief the students about the unit of study's objectives and requirements, to introduce the eLearning site; and generally ensure a smooth 'first year experience'. Upon completing these co-ordination responsibilities, and once my presence no longer was needed, I stopped attending, allowing the teacher to take sole

control of the teaching. With the commencement of the data collection phase in Week 4, I recommenced attending classes, yet remained as unobtrusive as possible, trying to distance myself from the classroom proceedings (DuFon 2002, p. 53). A number of times, especially in the early weeks while the students were engaged in pair-work, I was approached to provide particular examples of Hebrew lexis. On a number of occasions I did somewhat reluctantly provide the assistance needed, yet I kept my participation to a minimum. In adopting such tactics, I adhered to established qualitative-naturalistic guidelines: on the one hand to refrain from partaking in, and so altering, the naturalistic situation being investigated (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995, pp. 52-55). On the other hand, as Packer (2011) and MacIntyre (2002, p. 65) point out, it is important for researchers to maintain positive relations with the informants and approachability at all times:

> The fieldworker must continuously renegotiate not *entry* but the fragile *access* they have to the phenomena of interest.
>
> Packer (2011, p. 235, italicised in original)

A further challenge to this type of investigation rises from the potential impact the research project, and researcher, can have on the situation being investigated (for example, Edwards & Westgate 1994; Mackey & Gass 2005; Packer 2011). This may result in a positive effect where participants perform better or a negative effect where they perform worse. A negative effect is referred to as the 'Hawthorne Effect' (Mackey & Gass 2005, p. 114, 187-188), or the 'observer's paradox' (Edwards & Westgate 1994, p. 77). The fact that the data-collection phase covered a ten-week span allowed the participants to become familiar with the investigative proceedings and with my presence, and, to a degree, lessened their impact. In their, respective, final interviews both the students and the teacher stated that the research project had no significant impact on their classroom conduct (for other cases in which researchers assert that they or their recording devices had had no impact on the investigation, see Goldman-Segall 1998, p. 109; Iino 1999, p. 75; Slimani 2001, p. 292).

Turning to the processes involved in the interpretation of the collected data, I acknowledge that investigators bring a range of preconceived ideas and understandings to their study, and that their data-collection and analysis are carried out through their own lens. This is a point emphasized by Miles & Huberman and Edwards & Westgate:

> Interpretivists [sic] of all types also insist that researchers are no more "detached" from their objects of study than are their informants. Researchers, they argue, have their own understandings, their own convictions, their own conceptual orientations; they too are members of a particular culture at a specific historical moment. Also they will be undeniably affected by what they hear and observe in the field, often in unnoticed ways.
>
> Miles & Huberman (1994, p. 8)

> [N]o research is atheoretical, in the sense of being committed 'simply' to following the 'facts' wherever they lead without preconceptions about the kinds of facts relevant to the enquiry and how they are to be collected and analysed.
>
> Edwards & Westgate (1994, p. 57)

LeCompte & Preissle (1993, p. 45) point out that data is both 'emic', namely emerging from participants' subjective perspectives, and 'etic', emerging from the investigators' reading and understanding of the situation. Researchers' dual position as concurrently inside and outside the investigation poses a challenge as they endeavour to portray both perspectives:

> As an insider, the fieldworker learns what behaviour means for the people themselves. As an outsider, the fieldworker observes, experiences, and makes comparisons in ways that insiders can or would not (Sluka & Robinson, 2007, p. 2)… The ethnographer is a visitor, a stranger, a newcomer, who writes about a form of life to offer a way of making sense of it, a way seeing it. Ethnography is an activity in which one culture takes account of another to learn just as much, surely, about itself as about the other.
>
> Packer (2011, pp. 241-242)

The common solution to these challenges offered by researchers and scholars who engaged in qualitative-interpretive investigation is to collect data from a variety of sources and triangulate or 'crystallize' them in order to validate their findings and hypotheses. Crystallization is the metaphor that Richardson (2003) suggests as a replacement for triangulation (for example, Sevingny 1981). Crystallization pertains to the process of capturing and portraying the multilayered relations, interactions, and environments that impact on an investigated case:

> I propose that the central imaginary for "validity" for postmodernist texts is not the triangle-rigid, fixed, two-dimensional object. Rather, the central imaginary is the crystal, which combines symmetry and substance with an infinite variety of shapes, substances,

> transmutations, multidimensionalities, and angles of approaches. Crystals grow, change, alter, but are not amorphous. Crystals are prisms that reflect externalities *and* refract within themselves … crystallization provides us with deepened, complex, thoroughly partial, understanding of the topic.
>
> Richardson (2003, pp. 517-518)

As Richardson points out, the process of crystallization recognizes 'that there are far more than "three sides" from which to approach the world' (p. 517; italics in original). In this study, I have followed this approach by collecting data from a variety of sources. At the same time, I have had to make realistic and practical decisions regarding the scope of the data and the degree of detail of its description.

3.2 Research methodology

In this section I present the methods employed in the data collection, and explain why these particular data were selected with a view to address the challenges outlined above. The design of the research project included the following data:

Table 3.1: Summary of data sources and phases and levels of analysis

Phases of analysis	Data sources	Levels of analysis
Phase 1 Analysis: RIS curricula framework and pedagogy	**RIS resources:** *The New Hebrew from Scratch – Part A* and accompanying CD *A Teacher's Guidebook to The New Hebrew from Scratch Part A* *Dagesh ba-Text* and *Dagesh Mashlim*-teacher-training video-kit RIS' website *List of Morphological and Syntactic Items* *Ma Nishma* – Australian university's digitized version	**First analysis level:** RIS sources Interview with Textbook's writer Textbook
Phase 2 Analysis: Case study	**Case study resources:** 40 hours of classroom observations and recording Three sets of interviews: Initial interview; students only Mid-lesson interviews; students only Final interviews; students, teacher Informal discussions with teacher Additional teacher resources: games, activities, worksheets	**Second analysis level:** Students' initial interview Recordings of Week 4 Lesson Teacher's interview and informal discussions Teacher's resources: games, activities, worksheets **Third analysis level:** Recordings of Focus Lessons and additional lessons Teacher's interview and informal discussions Teacher's resources: games, activities, worksheets Students' mid-lesson interviews

3.2.1 Classroom recordings

In deciding to utilize video recordings, as well as audio recording, in the ethnographic case study phase I was heavily influenced by Margaret DuFon's arguments regarding the advantages provided by visual ethnography, which captures the full density and context of a case:

> In second language studies, not only does video recording enable us to accurately identify who is speaking, but also it provides information about posture, gestures, clothing, and proxemics… Gestures, facial expressions, and other visual interactional cues also provide important information both on the negotiation of meaning and the negotiation of affect. Non-native speakers, especially those whose linguistic means are limited, may rely extensively on extralinguistic means, as well as linguistic and paralinguistic means, to convey both their referential message and their relational message (Gass & Houck, 1999).
>
> DuFon (2002, p. 44)

Moreover, visual ethnography allows for repeated viewing, which provides 'more time to contemplate, deliberate, and ponder the data before drawing conclusions, and hence serves to ward off premature interpretation of the data' (DuFon 2002, p. 44; see also Erickson 1992; Goldman-Segall 1998). Thus, video-recordings provide a luxury absent from real time observation; and while DuFon's study focused on naturalistic L2 Indonesian in-country learning experience, her approaches to data collection, and experience with videotaping techniques, have been most valuable in assisting me in designing this study.

The case study's beginner-level cohort was observed over a ten-week period. The classroom 'events', which, following Bloom refer to 'bounded series of actions and reactions that people make in response to each other at the level of face-to-face interaction' (Bloom 2005, p. 5), were both audio and video recorded, both achieving good voice and imaging quality. In video-recording the classroom, I operated two cameras, both placed on tripods, to capture the unfolding classroom interactions (DuFon 2002, pp. 46-50). One camera was placed at the front of the room to record the students; it captured most of the students most of the time, allowing for retrospective viewing of their speech, gestures and social interaction (DuFon 2002, p. 44). The one modification I requested, was that students sit in one area so that the whole cohort could be filmed (Erickson 1992, p. 215; DuFon 2002, p. 48). A second camera was placed at the back of the classroom to capture the teacher and whiteboard. In instances when the cohort was engaged in pair-work, I zoomed-in both cameras on specific pairs, capturing close-up visual and audible testimony of their interaction. Importantly, as the cameras were stationary, students were not aware when the zooming-in and zooming-out took place. Lastly, an audio-recorder was placed in the centre of the room, nearest to the students.

These three recording apparatus captured most of the cohort's discursive interactions, both verbal and nonverbal communications. Even so, some speech was not clearly captured, as it was either too quietly uttered, part of students' 'private speech' (Vygotsky 1978), comments intended only for a peer, or took place during heightened discussions when overlapping turn-taking occurred. Having to manage the three recording devices, with the tapes in the cameras needing to be replaced after one hour, meant that at times my attention was diverted from the scene in front of me.

Nevertheless, I was able to actively observe, and adequately note the unfolding events and interactions.

3.2.2 Interviews

In my decision to interview the participants – the teacher about his educational philosophy, and the students about their perceptions of learning – I was influenced by previous classroom-based studies (Allwright 1984; Block 1996, 1998; Breen 2001a; Chamot 2001; Cotterall 2005; de Guerrero 1994; Gass & Mackey 2007; Gascoigne & Robinson 2001; Lyster & Ranta 1997; McCafferty 1994; Norton & Toohey 2001; Ohta 2000a, 2000b; Slimani 2001; Washburn 1994). The semi-structured interviews I designed are congruent with Packer's guidelines:

> In a semistructured interview, the researcher has a general plan for the topic to be discussed but does not follow a fixed order of questions or word these questions in a specific order. Interviewees are allowed a great deal of latitude in the way they answer, the length of their responses, and even the topic that they discuss. The aim of such an interview is to encourage the person to speak "in their own words" to obtain a first-person account.
>
> Packer (2011, p. 43)

In order to gain access to the perspectives of the participants, both teacher and students, I adhered to the following principles: firstly, I conducted the interviews in the participants' L1 (I used English in interviewing the students as it was the only common language), and Hebrew in interviewing the teacher – so that they could adequately articulate their thoughts; secondly, I conducted the interviews orally rather than in writing, as a way of facilitating a free and flexible conversation (Block 1996); and thirdly, I conducted the mid-lesson interviews as close as possible to the event inquired about (Chamot 2001; Mackey & Gass 2005).

The first point of data collection involved a 'pre-observation questionnaire', which included a request for information on the students' biographical details and their previous experience of L2 learning. The students were provided with a range of

questions aimed at assisting them to reflect on their idiosyncratic language-learning experiences[11].

In designing the mid-lesson interviews, which were addressed only to the students, I synthesized elements of 'stimulated recall interviews' (Chamot 2001, p. 27; Gass & Mackey 2000) and 'introspective verbal reporting' (Mackey & Gass 2005). These entailed a pause in lessons' proceedings whereby I informed the students of the teaching and learning processes I had observed. Keeping lines of inquiry as non-specific as possible so as not to influence their responses (Block 1996, p. 170), I asked them to report on their perspectives and internal thought processes (DuFon 2002, p. 45). I repeatedly reminded them that the focus of the study was on the learning and teaching events, activities, and interactions in the classroom, rather than on the personalities of the teacher and / or their peers. I stressed the fact that there were no 'right' or 'expected' answers to any line of inquiry (Mackey & Gass 2005) as I was genuinely interested in finding out about their perspectives. I asked them about their thought processes, about any associations that came to mind, about questions that had occurred to them– whether raised or not, about what made them say or do the things they had said and done, about the impact communications with their peer or the teacher had on them or affected their learning, about any positive or critical comments they had, and, finally, if there was anything else they would like to add.

Whilst these mid-lesson interviews were conducted, I asked the teacher to refrain from participating in the discussion. At times, especially when I intended to ask both him and the students the same question, I requested him to step outside the room momentarily so as not to impact on or be influenced by the forthcoming discussion (Block 1996, p. 172). This assured that both groups of informants were not influenced by each other's responses.

At the end of the data collection period, I requested the students to participate in a 'semi-structured group discussion'. I used the collected data – the classroom recordings, students' responses to the mid-lesson interviews and my observational notes – to identify and highlight recurring teaching and learning events and practices. In the group interview, I stressed that they could choose if and when to respond to the questions

[11] I ended up only using students' biographical details, which are presented in Section 5.1.1.

posed, and encouraged them to expand and further reflect on insights and opinions expressed on previous occasions, and, generally, to provide information they deemed significant.

Whilst the teacher and I often spoke informally, I only conducted a formal interview with him at the end of the semester (henceforth Teacher Interview). In it, I asked him to discuss his pedagogical philosophies and teaching practices, his aims and goals in teaching L2 Hebrew, and his perspective on specific teaching and learning events.

Finally, I stress that I was very careful at all times not to invade participants' privacy, as well as remaining open to the possibility of encountering situations that developed in ways different to the one I had hypothesized (see for example, Cohen et al. 2004, pp. 137-141; Edwards & Westgate 1994; Hitchcock & Hughes 1995, p. 121); or which portrayed a reality different from the one I had previously encountered in my own teaching.

3.3 Process of data analysis

In this section I discuss the procedures that I employed in managing and analysing the extensive amount of data gathered over the ten-week period of classroom observation and recording. These procedures, in turn, resulted in establishing three levels of analysis. I begin by discussing the early consideration of data (3.3.1), and then present the approaches to discourse analysis I employed (3.3.2). I conclude by discussing the analytic procedures that characterize each of the three levels of analysis, the reasons for choosing these procedures, and their appropriateness for the research purposes (3.3.3).

As shown in Table 3.1, data was concurrently collected from two major sources, using two different methodologies: The first major source was all the materials available about the RIS curricula and pedagogy. The second major source was the data gathered throughout the ten-week observation of the beginner-level cohort, including all classroom recordings, both audio and video, and the various participants' interviews. Moving on to the data analysis process, this consisted of numerous cycles, which broadly fitted into two major phases: in Phase One all the resources related to RIS were scrutinized, by following content analysis methods (Krippendorff 2004): this process yielded the first analysis level. In Phase Two all the resources relating to the case study

investigation were analysed in increasing degrees of detail: this cyclical process yielded the second and third levels of analysis. I now turn to discuss the relationship between the two major data sources that were analysed over the various stages of the two phases, which, in turn, generated the thesis' three levels of analysis.

3.3.1 Phase One

The first phase of data analysis consisted of two stages: an earlier stage which took place during the data-collection period, and a second stage which took place once the semester ended. Already during classroom observations I had noticed a number of recurring themes and habitual classroom interactions which appeared to parallel some of the RIS pedagogical practices. Thus, I began to formulate hypotheses which led me to pay closer attention to these phenomena, and as the observation period lengthened, I continued engaging in cyclical collection and analysis of data. Mackey & Gass describe this as a:

> process of data collection, followed by data analysis, and hypotheses-formation stage based on the first round of data collection, followed by a second and more focused round of data collection in which hypotheses are tested and further refined, with the process continuing until a rich and full picture of the data is obtained.
>
> Mackey & Gass (2005, p. 178)

This cyclical process enabled me to determine the aspects of the classroom situation about which I wanted to interview the students during lessons. In addition, as I prepared for the final Interviews (with both students and teacher), I further examined the data, looking for 'big themes' or 'meanings', which provide 'an accessible overview of major patterns and features of sequences of lessons' (Hammond 2011, p. 12). Once the classroom observation stage was over, I embarked on the second stage of analysis, now addressing the entire body of data collected. Given the scope of the data, it became apparent that transcribing all footage captured by the two cameras and the one audio-recorder, as well as all the interviews, was an impossible task. Hence, I spent time viewing the entire footage, and listening to the interviews in order to achieve a broad overview of these findings. Re-viewing the videoed classroom interactions and listening to participants' views after the passage of time enabled me to re-interpret the teaching

and learning events and interactions (Packer 2011; see also Cohen et al. 2004, pp. 147-153; Erickson 1992; Gee 2011, p. 19).

By the time I had completed this task, I had acquired further familiarity with the phenomena and was able to note more clearly the recursive nature of the teaching and learning interactions. This allowed me to categorize the findings into 'big themes', a process Mackey & Gass refer to as 'open coding':

> [T]he schemes for qualitative coding generally emerge from the data rather than being decided on and preimposed [sic] prior to the data being collected and coded. This process, in which initial categories are based on a first pass through the data, is sometimes known as open coding. Qualitative researchers explore the shape and scope of the emerging categories and investigate potential connections among categories. As more data are coded, researchers also consider aspects such as the range of variations within individual categories.
>
> Mackey & Gass (2005, p. 241)

Examining the emerging 'big themes', searching for other significant characteristics as well as examining the connection between them, then focusing on specific segments which typify these themes and characteristics (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 222) and transcribing, studying, and analysing them, enabled me to begin dealing with the large amounts of collected data. In doing so I paid attention to warnings issued by a number of scholars concerning the potential risks of misinterpreting the data and therefore misrepresenting the phenomena (for example, Caffarella & Barnett 2000, p. 47; Christie 2002, p. 22, pp. 98-99; Edwards & Westgate 1994, p. 17; Hammond 2011; as well as Packer 2011, p. 94 for a different perspective). I believe that following such a methodological approach has enabled me to make claims concerning the project's findings, as well as having substantial material to validate these claims' typicality, as Watson-Gegeo and Christie, respectively, point out:

> When illustrative examples are presented in an ethnographic report, they should be the result of a systematic selection of *representative* examples, in which both variations and central tendency or typicality in the data are reflected.
>
> Watson-Gegeo (1988, p. 585; italics in original)

> Even where … one cannot reproduce a complete classroom text, one must collect and analyse the whole text (or as much of that as is feasible), so that what one says of those passages selected for presentation and discussions informed by an analysis and interpretation of the whole text.
>
> Christie (2002, p. 23)

During that time I continued to scrutinize all available RIS materials and progressively develop my knowledge and understanding of the principles that appear to underpin the RIS programs and instructional practices. This led me to hypothesize about RIS' practice-based pedagogy and, in turn, to begin the process of theorizing the key features that underpin its beginner-level instruction.

3.3.2 Phase Two

As indicated, the first analysis phase, which culminated in viewing the classroom recordings in their entirety, alongside transcribing and analysing selected data extracts, assisted me in gaining a clear overview of the data. Moreover, by that time I had established a clearer understanding of the key L2 principles that underpin the curriculum embedded in the RIS beginner-level pedagogy and the Textbook *The New Hebrew from Scratch - Part A* (Chayat et al. 2000/2007).

The second phase of analysis required both broadening the scope of the data selected for analysis, and at the same time more precise transcriptions of the selected segments, the latter included pauses, fillers, and para-linguistic modes of communication. As has been pointed out by many scholars carrying out qualitative research, a major challenge of this type of investigation is to manage, organize, transcribe, and analyse large amounts of accumulated data (Christie 2002; Cohen et al. 2004, p. 147; Halliday 2004; Hammond 2011; Packer 2011). The fact that the data collected included curriculum materials, interviews, and classroom recordings, the latter covering more than 40 hours, required me to utilize several methods of analysis. I now turn to these.

Classroom discourse analysis

Having gained a solid overview and understanding of the collected data, I needed tools to analyse it. I utilized content analysis (Krippendorff 2004) to scrutinize the RIS

materials, and classroom discourse analysis for the case study cohort's interactions. Classroom discourse analysis, which is especially oriented towards analysing classroom text, is not confined to one approach but entails a variety of potential methods to suit different investigations, as Hammond points out:

> [T]here are similarities and differences in approaches to classroom discourse analysis… Debates within the field therefore tend to reflect broad theoretical and ideological differences regarding the purpose of research and the place of classroom discourse analysis in that research. Debates also reflect differences in approaches to discourse analysis. … Despite differences and debates … researchers involved in classroom discourse analysis often work across traditions, theories and methodologies to address specific research questions.
>
> Hammond (2011, p. 7)

As well, as Christie points out, there is an interpretative aspect to the act of selecting the discursive events to be scrutinized, and the manner of their transcription:

> How one selects classroom activity and on what basis decisions are made about identifying sequences of activity – and perhaps not others – is of course always a sensitive issue, and one that reflects a great deal of the predilections and assumptions of the researcher. Discourse itself is never natural, and discourse analysis is also not natural, for it necessarily involves the imposition of some interpretation upon events. Indeed, the very transcript of the classroom talk (and the video record from which that is drawn), is already removed from the reality, and itself an interpretation of it.
>
> Christie (2002, p. 22)

This interpretation involves the concepts of 'genres and macrogenres'.

Genres and macrogenres

A significant aspect of Christie's (2002) conceptualization of classroom discourse analysis, is her theorization of the larger discourse patterns that typify schooling, which she calls 'curriculum genres and macrogenres'. These concepts had a formative influence on the way I conducted the second phase of analysis, which as discussed above, required both broadening the scope of the text extracts selected for analysis, and, in turn, transcribing these more precisely.

Drawing on previous scholars' work, Christie (2002) argued that classroom discursive activities are typified by large chunks of regular and recursive patterns of talk. These she termed 'curriculum genres and macrogenres' and suggested they form a structured experience for both teachers and students:

> I shall suggest that pedagogic discourse can be thought of as creating *curriculum genres* and sometimes larger units referred to as *curriculum macrogenres*.
>
> Curriculum genres and macrogenres are staged, goal-driven activities, devoted to the accomplishment of significant educational ends.
>
> Christie (2002, p. 3 and p. 22, respectively; italics in original)

While genres are the ways in which texts unfold within specific contexts, which include recurring elements, structures, and phases that typify discursive activities (Christie 2002, pp. 21-23), macrogenres are extensive segments of classroom interactions:

> For the purpose of undertaking analysis of classroom talk I find the notion of curriculum macrogenres a useful one. It provides a means to trace the developments and changes within larger tracts of classroom talk and activity over very long periods of time… It provides a principled basis upon which to collect very long sequences of classroom text and, correspondingly, a basis upon which to select those passages one does choose for close text analysis.
>
> Christie (2002, pp. 98-99)

Christie identified two major types of curriculum macrogenres: the 'linear macrogenre' and the 'orbital' or 'satellite macrogenre'. Both are typified by an overarching three stage pattern of initiation, exemplification, and closure. Both types of macrogenre open with a teacher-directed initiation, then move to a middle phase of collaboration and negotiation between teacher and students, and then close with some summation activity. It is in the middle and closing phases that the two macrogenres vary. As the name suggests, the middle phase of the linear macrogenre entails a series of genres or elements that follow one another in an incremental order, with each new activity progressing one level above the previous activity in terms of knowledge and skills, after which it ends with a closing phase that provides a clear closure which, most commonly, requires students to complete some culminating task (pp. 100-101, 126-127). The middle phase of the 'orbital' / 'satellite' macrogenre entails sets of interrelated elements

and / or activities which are equally important in expanding students' understanding of prescribed new knowledge and / or skills:

> [It] involves expansion of understanding by the phasing of the new knowledge and skills at selected points, when other knowledge and skills are still in development, and when other tasks are still to be completed; the effect is that learning is enlarged in interconnected and overlapping ways, creating a conceptually unified body of knowledge. In such a process, the students are engaged in working on activities, often in parallel, where engagement with the one can enhance and enrich engagement with the other.
>
> Christie (2002, p. 126)

The closure phase of the 'orbital / satellite macrogenre' is often less visible than that of the 'linear macrogenre', as it does 'not have a clearly defined culminating genre and / or task, though [it] will of course have a closure of some kind' (p. 126). Finally, Christie claims that 'the orbital structure provides a much richer interpretation of the activity, illuminating in particular the manner in which the pedagogy works and how pedagogic subject position is constructed' (2002, p. 126).

Christie's linear and orbital macrogenres are very relevant to understanding the sequencing of the case study's lessons and their respective activities. I have adapted her orbital configuration of 'a Year 9 [geography] class in an inner-city coeducational state high school' (p. 130) to that of a university-level L2 Hebrew class. In Christie's orbital configuration activities relate to a specific core but not to each other:

> Each of the Curriculum Exemplifications has statue and significance primarily because of its relation to the Curriculum Orientation, and not because of their relationships to each other.
>
> Christie (2002, p. 132)

In this case study, all activities related to the Textbook's prescribed curriculum (Chayat et al. 2000/2007), with some activities building on each other, and other activities not directly connecting to one another. I expand on this issue in the subsequent chapters.

To sum up, the two phase process of firstly reviewing the entire collected data, alongside transcribing and analysing selected segments, followed by a more comprehensive classroom discourse analysis of larger data segments, including several lessons in their entirety, informed my decision to follow a three level process of

analysis. I now turn to discuss the analytic procedures that characterized each of the three analysis-levels; the reasons for choosing these procedures; and their appropriateness for my research purposes.

3.3.3 Three levels of analysis

As indicated, the multi-layered process of collecting data from two major sources, which were analysed over two major phases through various cyclical stages, yielded three levels of analysis.

The first level of analysis provides an overview of the Australian university Modern Hebrew Program and of the RIS curriculum and pedagogy. The analysis then focuses on the beginner-level Textbook *The New Hebrew from Scratch - Part A* (Chayat et al. 2000/2007), which underpins the case study program. This first level of analysis (presented in Chapter 4) scrutinizes the RIS beginner-level prescribed materials and practices, in order to identify the implicit and explicit assumptions and approaches that underpin its L2 instruction. This analysis provides the context for the thesis.

The second level of analysis, presented in Chapter 5, focuses on the nature of the case study program and the typicality of lessons and their structures. The analysis here utilizes classroom discourse analysis, relying heavily on Christie's (2002) work on curriculum genres and macrogenres. I investigate how key RIS principles, alongside pedagogical features distinctive to the case study context, are implemented, and discuss their impact on the overall success of the case study program. The analysis then focuses on the first lesson observed (Week 4 Lesson), to provide insights into the selection and sequencing of classroom activities and the patterns of interaction, which subsequently emerged as being typical of other lessons.

The third level of analysis, presented in Chapter 6, extends the inquiry via a more detailed examination of the four Focus Lessons from the later stages of the program. This third level of analysis covers a sequence of core activities across these four Lessons; it illuminates the key features identified in the second level of analysis, and shows the complex interplay between and within L2 affordance and emergence (van Lier 2000, 2004), and how teaching scaffolds L2 learning and development. The analysis here, which again utilizes methods of classroom discourse analysis, moves

from the thesis findings to their theorization, demonstrating that classroom-based teaching and learning is rich and diversified, and shows a complexity which is above and beyond any one specific approach.

3.4 Conclusions to Chapter 3

Chapter 3 has presented the design and implementation of this research project. It began with the overall research design, clarifying the project's physical location and scope, the ethical concerns that impacted on the investigation, and the challenges posed by adopting qualitative-interpretive research methods. The discussion then focused on the methods of data-collection and the processes of data-analysis. The data included the RIS materials, visual ethnography of selected classroom lessons and interviews with the participants. The discussion of data analysis included details of the examination and analysis of the large amount of gathered data. This multifaceted methodological approach provides an effective way to illuminate the many-layered and multi-faceted aspects of classroom-based teaching and learning. The data gathered provides a 'thick description' of the investigated case. All these in turn provide a solid base for theorization.

Chapter 4
First Level of Analysis: Contextualizing the Case Study

The major purpose of chapter 4 is to contextualize the case study that forms the central focus of this thesis. I do this in three ways:

- by providing a brief account of the history of THAL within the university in which the case study was situated;
- by introducing the rationale and teaching materials of the Hebrew program that underpins the case study;
- by providing a brief introduction to Modern Hebrew as a language, highlighting issues in Hebrew that are especially relevant to beginner-level learners;

The chapter begins with a discussion of the history of the Hebrew Program at the Australian university. This section (4.1) begins with a short historical overview, covering the first offering of Hebrew in the mid-1940s through the increase in courses offered during the 1980s and 1990s, and culminates with the introduction in 2001 of the curriculum framework developed at the Rothberg International School (RIS). The reason for presenting this overview is to contextualize the changes that gave impetus to this case study investigation. Hence, in this section I describe the earlier, pre 2001 local Hebrew programming; I then go on to explore the circumstances for seeking changes, and the reasons for the specific decision to adopt the RIS curricula and pedagogy. I conclude this section by discussing the processes that followed the local adaptation of the RIS framework; and address the evidence which points to its successful implementation in the local arena.

The second and largest section of the chapter (4.2) introduces the curriculum and pedagogy developed by RIS which underpins the Modern Hebrew Program within the Australian university. The discussion then focuses on the RIS beginner-level curriculum, and on other related resources that underpin the case study program. Due to its prominence in this program, the RIS developed Textbook, *The New Hebrew from Scratch* (Chayat, Kobliner & Israeli 2000/2007), is introduced in some detail. Over all, this section looks closely at the prescribed language, skills and knowledge, and instructional methods, so as to identify the implicit and explicit assumptions and

approaches to THAL that underpin this program. This scrutiny serves as the first level of analysis of the Australian case study.

In this first level of analysis, I utilize a number of analytical tools: I examine the Textbook *The New Hebrew from Scratch* itself (henceforth Textbook), its accompanying *A Teacher's Guidebook to The New Hebrew from Scratch Part A* (Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally 2001; henceforth Guidebook), as well as other relevant RIS publications. I draw on an interview held with one of the Textbook writers (henceforth Textbook Writer); as well as with a number of other RIS practitioners who have used the Textbook in their own teaching, both at RIS itself and at other institutions worldwide. Finally, I draw on my own 'insider-knowledge' and 'professional understanding' (Edwards & Westgate 1994, p. 58), which come out of my personal classroom experience, to identify the mainly implicit principles of second language pedagogy that inform and characterize the RIS program.

The third section of the chapter (4.3) presents an overview of Modern Hebrew in order to give the reader who may not be familiar with the language an understanding of the type and scope of the issues facing beginner-level learners, especially those who are native speakers of English. The section begins with a brief overview of the history of Modern Hebrew, and then focuses on language elements that are especially pertinent to beginner learners.

4.1 Modern Hebrew at an Australian university

4.1.1 Background to the Australian Modern Hebrew Program

Hebrew was first available at the Australian university in which this case study is located in the 1940s, with only courses in Classical Hebrew on offer. In 1961, options in Modern Hebrew were added, although Classical Hebrew remained compulsory for the first year of study. In 1977, a single course in Modern Hebrew was offered for the first time as an optional strand, but it was not until 1994 that a full three-year Modern Hebrew intermediate-advanced strand was established, and not until 2000 that a full three-year beginners' strand was established. Despite these developments, enrolment numbers remained low, averaging between five and fifteen students in the entire

Modern Hebrew Program. Whilst no curricular documentation from this period is available, it appears that the instructional methods utilized in teaching Classical Hebrew were also used in teaching Modern Hebrew. These included the separate teaching of language, grammar, and literature, with much of the instructional process of the latter two conducted in English.

Moreover, prior to 2000, there were no permanent full time lecturers in Modern Hebrew. Rather, Modern Hebrew was taught by a number of different people; often employed on a part-time and/or casual basis; some were qualified teachers of Hebrew as a first language, while others were appointed on the basis of being native Hebrew speakers (Gilead 2004). This episodic and impermanent state of affairs meant there were neither set curricula, nor clear instructional guidelines, and hence most educational and administrative decisions were taken and executed on an *ad hoc* basis. Thus, while units of study in Modern Hebrew were added over a 40-year period (1961-2000), it appears that no parallel curricula development took place; or if such developments did taken place, they were not documented. In addition, no postgraduate options were on offer, and no research in the field of Modern Hebrew, either in language or literature, was carried out. To sum up, from every aspect of teaching, learning, and research, the local Modern Hebrew Program was inadequate.

My own involvement with the Modern Hebrew Program at the Australian university now becomes relevant. In 1996, I joined the university as one of two casual teachers employed to teach Modern Hebrew. Prior to commencing teaching, I had only met twice with the veteran casual lecturer and received from her only a brief overview of how Modern Hebrew was taught. The only instructional materials made available to me, besides a small number worksheets used in previous years, were a number of textbooks, some designed for THAL, others intended for native Modern Hebrew secondary-school students. However, there were no set programs, nor any guidelines on how to teach the language.

Based on the few remaining instructional materials used prior to 1996, I surmised that the program followed was a locally self-designed one, utilizing eclectic pedagogical practices. I began my first year of university teaching following this vague and loose framework. Drawing on my previous experience of THAL at secondary-school level, I

organized the programming to cover separately topics of discussions, which included a range of texts and literature, and grammar. The grammar topics included mainly verb morphology and tenses, and I drew on the Hebrew textbooks that were available at the time. For the discussion topics, I chose a range of texts, including Hebrew songs and short stories. The former were selected from textbooks available at the university, and the latter from secondary-school textbooks designed for native speakers, all written in Hebrew and published in Israel.

In 1997, a fulltime lectureship in Modern Hebrew was established, although no lecturer was appointed that year to fill this permanent position. That year, I was made responsible for teaching the majority (four out of five) of the Modern Hebrew units on offer; and it was then that I began the process of gathering instructional materials and compiling them into a structured framework. In doing so I adhered to the established local custom of following locally developed programs, which, in the main, were based on readings from literature and also on the systematic teaching of grammar. The following year, 1998, I was appointed as fulltime lecturer in Modern Hebrew and Program Coordinator; and by 2000, I had restructured the Modern Hebrew Program to offer two full, yet separate, three-year strands for beginners and advanced students.

As Program Coordinator, I set out to establish a more robust and permanent program, and to put in place an overarching curriculum covering all the Modern Hebrew units of study. Initially I continued to follow the practices I had inherited, namely, adhering to the local norm of teaching according to the locally self-designed programs. Yet, wishing to update and improve this practice and to introduce more coherent and systematic programming, as well as improve on my first two years of teaching at the university, I introduced a topic-based syllabus based on a thematic topic-axis (for example, Littlewood 1981; Savignon 2000), combining units on vocabulary, grammar with the central thematic axis. I began to gather materials from the resources available to me – Hebrew textbooks and grammar books designed for both native speakers and L2 learners – and collate these into course-readers for the various units of study. In deciding on the themes that were to serve as the central topic-axis for each course-reader, I based my selections on my knowledge and understanding of areas and issues that were potentially relevant and interesting to local students, covering such issues as interpersonal relationships, personal experiences, the Israeli experience, the Israeli-Arab

conflict, the Holocaust, etc. In each topic a number of literary texts, usually Hebrew poems and short stories, were studied. Incorporated into each of these topics, were language items such as vocabulary and grammar. These language items were most often chosen due to their semantic connections to the topic, making no clear distinction between materials suitable for native speakers of Hebrew and those suited to L2 learners. The approach overall could be described as broadly 'communicative' in orientation (Hedge 2000; Harmer 2007a, 2007b; Howatt & Widdowson 2004; Littlewood 1981; Savignon 2000; Richards & Rodgers 2001).

With regard to the specific teaching methods, these, too, broadly adhered to communicative approaches to language teaching, although they included an eclectic mixture of the ways I had previously been expected to teach the language at secondary-school level, and the ways I deduced were customary at the university. Lessons focusing on topics (conversation and texts) were conducted mainly in Hebrew and although I was the one who introduced, directed and raised many of the discussion-points, as is often the case with most teaching, lessons did involve considerable student-participation. Additionally, although classroom discussions were, in the main, carried out in Hebrew, students could and did resort to English on the occasions where they were unable to express and articulate their arguments in the target language.

In teaching the grammar topics, the dynamics changed significantly. Here I drew on more traditional and systematic instructional methods, which are more in tune with the instruction of classical languages. While well aware that the two broad areas of conversation and grammar 'were not coherently linked, and the grammar studied did not translate into improved functional usage in students' oral and written discourse' (Gilead 2004, p. 11), I adhered to this way of teaching as it was the local practice. This process of creating and gathering instructional materials and collating them into a series of course readers continued between 1998 and 1999. While it was based primarily on a trial and error process of what seemed to work best, I was confident that the readers offered an effective instructional framework, and that the Modern Hebrew Program was entering into a new phase of growth and renewal.

Nevertheless, a further, and in retrospect a much greater, change was about to take place. In 2000, a visiting scholar from Tel-Aviv University was engaged to teach the

second-year cohort. From her first encounter with the local program, she was highly critical of the fact that we followed locally-designed curricula and created our own course-readers, rather than adhering to a 'properly designed language-base spiral-curriculum' developed in Israeli universities (Gilead 2004). Deciding not to teach according to the locally designed program, she followed a 'merged curriculum' (her words) which combining the 1990 edition of the textbook *Hebrew from Scratch* (Chayat et al. 1990) with *Hebrew from Alef to Tav – Part A* (Brosh et al. 1999). As well, during her year-long deployment at the Australian university, she spent many hours instilling in me the recognition that for true improvement to take place, the local Hebrew Program must adhere to the dual principles of adopting a 'proper language-base spiral curriculum', and employing strategies and methodologies 'appropriate for L2 teaching and learning'. Her understanding of gaining 'proper' and 'appropriate' knowledge of L2 instruction, referred to an apprenticeship type of induction, emerging from praxis rather than theory, which, she believed, I would best acquire through sitting-in and observing her lessons, and later discussing them with her.

My observations of her instructional practice, which appeared to be more effective than the pedagogy I had thus far been exposed to, led me to realize the degree to which her students developed their Hebrew through learning the language and learning about the language. This realization convinced me to reconsider our local curricula and pedagogic practices despite the fact that at the time (1998-2000) students reported that they were highly satisfied with the program and the teaching, and I myself was convinced that genuine learning was taking place (Gilead 2004, pp. 10-11).

As a result of being introduced to ways in which THAL is implemented in Israeli universities, I realized that even though the locally designed programs and course-readers were well planned and thought-out – having spent countless hours preparing them – they were not effective enough. Moreover, I became aware, that in devising these readers I had paid too much attention to the themes and topics that were to serve as the central axis of each course-reader, and too little attention to the language itself and the sequential and cyclical ways of introducing it. This realization led me, at the end of 2000, to re-evaluate the programs and reconsider the pedagogic approaches I had followed until then. In turn, this led me to abandon the course-readers I had spent so much time and effort developing and in their place I adopted the RIS curricula and

pedagogy, a move which was intended to bring about improvements in 'pedagogical materials, approaches and values' (Markee 2001, p. 120).

4.1.2 Introduction to the current Program

The decision to embrace the RIS curricula was taken in late 2000. This decision was primarily based on the following reasons:

Firstly, The Hebrew University has for many years enjoyed a reputation as a worldwide leading academic institution, especially in disciplines that fall under the purview of Jewish Studies. In turn, RIS, which is the Hebrew University's specialist division for THAL, has gained a reputation as a leader in this area. As discussed in Chapter 2, since its establishment in 1965, the RIS has been instrumental in developing a solid curricula and publishing instructional materials that are now used worldwide.

Secondly, the RIS resources were extensive, easily available, and both teacher- and student-friendly. Moreover, though not widely or systematically used, some of the RIS textbooks and instructional materials were followed, to a certain degree, in the Australian university. By 2000, having become better acquainted with the RIS curricula, and I realised that it could serve as the basis for the local Program.

Thirdly, the publication of the updated and extended edition of *The New Hebrew from Scratch – Part A* (Chayat et al. 2000), offered a very attractive beginner-level curriculum that could serve as the basis for the local program. Whilst some adaptations were necessary, the Textbook's prescribed curriculum was successfully implemented. The implementation received further impetus in 2001 with a visit of another scholar who came as part of an official academic exchange between the Hebrew University and the Australian university. This exchange resulted in very close and collaborative teamwork, and gave considerable momentum to the implementation of the RIS framework in the Australian university.

My discussion below of the RIS curricula generally, and the curriculum prescribed in the Textbook *The New Hebrew from Scratch – Part A* (Chayat et al. 2000) more specifically, might suggest that in some ways embracing the RIS curricula could be seen as reverting to the grammar-based teaching approaches popular between the 1940s and 1960s. As discussed (Section 2.2.2), this may seem to be the case given that the RIS

curricula is organized around sequences of grammar with 'topics' and vocabulary introduced primarily to illustrate these grammatical features. On the other hand, the local pre-2000 topic-based curricula may appear more in line with the tenets of CLT, generally regarded by L2 educators as representing a more advanced approach to L2 instruction (Cajkler & Addelman 2000/2012; Harmer 2007a, 2007b; Hedge 2000; Howatt & Widdowson 2004; Littlewood 1981; Richards & Rodgers 2001; Savignon 2000).

Yet, experienced-based evidence from both teachers and students at my university, the outcomes from students' assessment tasks, and the increase in enrolled students, all indicated that the RIS programs were more effective than the earlier topic-based approach. It was these indications that set me on the path of investigating the local Program, and eventually on the path to this thesis. I sought to find out what were the key factors contributing to the overall success of the program. If we can look beyond the label of this or that approach, how can we understand the complexities of classroom-based teaching and learning? What can we learn from such analysis? And, how can potential findings inform other programs and teachers? These are some of the questions addressed in this study that the adoption of the RIS curricula sparked.

In sum, looking back at the process of change discussed above, I would describe the chain of events as being serendipitous rather than fully planned. Moreover, even though the RIS curricula and pedagogy are not new in themselves, they were newly adopted in the Australian context; and as such they fall into the category of 'innovation', as Rogers defines it:

> An *innovation* is an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption. It matters little, so far as human behaviour is concerned, whether or not an idea is "objectively" new as measured by the lapse of time since its first use or discovery. The perceived newness of the idea for the individual determines his or her reaction to it. If the idea seems new to the individual, it is an innovation.
>
> Rogers (2003, p. 12; italics in original)

4.2 RIS curricula and pedagogy: Level 1 of analysis

This section of the chapter provides the case study's first level of analysis. It introduces the RIS' curricula and pedagogy which have been adapted for the Australian university. The RIS-developed textbooks provide the blueprint for each of the units of study, ranging from complete beginner through to advanced levels. *The New Hebrew from Scratch –Part A* (Chayat et al. 2000/2007) Textbook underpins the beginner-level prescribed curriculum, and many of the RIS' pedagogical practices are followed. Due to the role played by the RIS instructional materials and classroom practices in the local Hebrew Program, an understanding of these is highly relevant to the understanding of this case study. Analyses of the rationale of and approaches to THAL at RIS, therefore, provide a key starting point for further analyses of the case study.

4.2.1 Introduction to the RIS curricula

Since its establishment, the first major enterprise of RIS was the development of a framework for THAL, which subsequently introduced a sequence of six instructional levels from beginners to advance.

As indicated on the website (https://overseas.huji.ac.il/hebrewlevels; retrieved 11/1/2014), the RIS curricula is built on linguistic foundations in which the four language skills are presented in a spiral progression, with the development of conversational ability as important as that of literacy.

The principle of organizing curricula around a spiral linguistic progression is reinforced in the RIS produced *List of Morphological and Syntactical Items* (Kuzar 1991, henceforth *List*). This publication, which draws on the experience of many RIS teachers, is the culmination of a project aimed to formalize and sequence key syntactic and morphological items in Hebrew. These items now form the basis of the grammatical elements that RIS teachers consider should be included at each of the six instructional levels. Kuzar explain the purpose of this *List* as follows:

> The **List of Morphological and Syntactical** [sic] **Items** was born in the early 1980s out of a feeling, shared by many teachers in the Division of Hebrew Language Instruction at the School for Overseas Students, that there was a need to formulate more accurately what should be the material taught and required at each level of Hebrew instruction. The

division of instruction into six levels in the [D]ivision of Hebrew Teaching was already a well-established fact, and its efficiency had been proven over the years, but a consensus had not been reached among teachers with regard to the specific items to be covered at each level.

The **List of Morphological and Syntactical Items** includes all the items of morphology and syntax which are taught in the course of instruction from level Aleph [beginners] to Vav [high-advanced]. It does not include matters of semantics, vocabulary, pragmatic functions, spelling, collocations, idiomatics [sic] and oral comprehension. The teacher or the coordinator using this material will have to incorporate items from all these domains into the curriculum in addition to the material from the **List** in order to have a complete, well balanced program. It must be emphasized that **in the List there is no information about the way or the order in which these items should be taught in class, and it does not by itself constitute a teaching program or schedule.**

Kuzar (1991, English Introduction; bold in original)

In the 30 years, since this *List* and its sequence of grammatical features was drawn up and formalized, its linguistic ordering has become the basis of the grammatical knowledge required in all RIS textbooks. In addition to the textbooks, some of which have accompanying teachers' guidebooks (for example, Daniel et al. 1996; Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally 2001), other resources have been developed whose main purpose is to supplement the curriculum at each level. These resources provide insights into RIS' overall principles and pedagogy, which I now turn to, focusing specifically on the tenets and instructional procedures relating to beginner level.

4.2.2 The RIS teacher-training resources

Virtually all the RIS instructional materials provide guidelines on what to teach, with approaches and strategies on how to teach almost non-existent. The one exception is the two teacher-training video-kits, *Dagesh Ba-text* (Preisler & Yishai 1992) and *Dagesh Mashlim* (Preisler & Susser 1995). These video-kits include 21 videoed 'real time' lessons, which are accompanied by written instructions on how to plan and implement these sample lessons. The video-kits have been complied with the dual goal of modelling a wide range of the RIS instructional practices, and sharing the experience and knowledge developed in the RIS with other Hebrew teachers. As the respective 21

sample lessons have been intended for 'distance training' (allowing teachers all over the world to access them anywhere and anytime) they provide solid information on the principles and practices that informs the RIS pedagogy. Thus, the explicit information and guidelines these sample lesson provide sheds significant light on the RIS THAL pedagogic practice and rationale.

- Use of Hebrew to teach and learn Hebrew (Israeli 1992; Maman 1992; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995)
- Drawing the language from the students (Bliboim 1992; Dahan 1995; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995)
- Conjecture/Guessing (Farstei 1995; Kobliner 1992; Tishler 1995; Weyl 1992)
- Connecting new to known (Dahan 1995)
- Speech/Discursive ability always precedes literacy (Dahan 1995; Susser 1995)
- Some allowance for translation (Kobliner 1992)
- Progression from easier to complex (Baras 1995; Weyl 1992); from closed to open activities (Israeli 1992); from the word level to the text level (Bliboim 1992)
- Working in pairs/small groups (Farstei 1995; Israeli 1992; Rot 1995)
- Giving out homework (Farstei1995; Garson 1992; Israeli 1992; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995; Weyl 1992)
- Positive and supportive classroom environment (Dahan 1995; Israeli 1992; Meshler 1995)

One of the key principles explicitly articulated in both the *Dagesh* video-kits (1992 and 1995), and also (as discussed shortly) implicitly evident in the Textbook, is that learning a language primarily requires the ability to use it. This is emphasized in the *Hakdama* (*foreword*) paragraph in the manual accompanying the first kit:

> The Divisions' teachers, both novice and veteran, continue to learn and acquaint themselves with innovations in the area of second language learning. Yet 27 years of combined experience in the Division have shaped specific teaching methods that

emphasis the internalization of the language and [the ability] to function in it rather than the drilling of vocabulary and rules of grammar.

Maman (*Hakdama* to *Dagesh Ba-text,* Preisler & Yishai 1992, p. 9; translated from Hebrew)

This principle of using Hebrew, rather than learning about it, is further emphasised by Sara Israeli in the written instructions to her beginner-level sample lesson. In it, Israeli demonstrates the ways she uses Hebrew to introduce the Hebrew names of various fruits and vegetables by bringing 'samples' of these to class. She states:

In order to create an atmosphere of openness and to prove that what's learned is taken from a natural and real situation, I try to emphasize to the students from the beginning of the lesson that we don't learn *about* but *the*.

In that way I conduct other lessons, and the students know that in their Hebrew lessons they 'walk' from the street to the supermarket, to the clothing shop etc., and in each situation [they] speak and act in Hebrew in accordance with the place that they are seemingly at.

Israeli (1992, p. 12; translated from Hebrew; italics in original)

Hanna Meshler, in another beginner-level sample lesson, stresses the need to conduct lessons in Hebrew:

The learning is only carried out in Hebrew from the moment of meeting with the students:

- The students need Hebrew and the earlier they get used to its sounds and to using it, the smoother will be their integration into Israeli society.
- Getting the students to be active in Hebrew creates 'healthy tension' and improves the learning process.
- Commonly, students come from different countries and they lack a common language.

Meshler (1995, p. 6; translated from Hebrew)

In a third beginner-level sample lesson, Leah Skiva describes the requirement for oral communication as follows:

the pedagogic principle of learning via oral communication… is not an additional mean of developing oral communication as part of other classroom activities, rather it is

> entirely based on speaking during the lessons, with all the other skills acquired via speaking. The premise is that as students' communicative abilities improve, they are able to incorporate linguistic elements into their speech in a more natural way and concurrently their written ability improves.
>
> Skiva (1995, p. 83; translated from Hebrew)

In addition to the very strong emphasis on using the language to teach and learn the language, Hila Kobliner in her sample lesson of advanced learners (Level Hey), allows a limited use of translation:

> The use of translation is a short cut that can be used in the following conditions:
>
> The translated word is verbatim
>
> The entire cohort knows the language used in the translation
>
> The translation is correct and exact
> Following the translation there is a return to using Hebrew in a variety of ways
> The assumption is that the process of translation fast tracks learning in the initial introduction stage only.
>
> Kobliner (1992, p. 44; translated from Hebrew)

This overarching principle of *Hebrew-in-Hebrew* means there is an emphasis on speaking the language, with reading and writing seen as adjuncts to the oral mode. The order of instruction is, thus, speech followed by reading and writing: 'The initial practice is carried out orally' (Susser 1995, p. 34; translated from Hebrew); 'The first stage of learning is done orally' (Dahan 1995, p. 42; translated from Hebrew); and Bliboim's emphasis that writing aids memorization: 'I write all that I teach in order to further stimulate memorization' (Bliboim 1992, p. 113; translated from Hebrew).

There is strong emphasis in the *Dagesh* video-kits on the practice of drawing the language from the learners rather than providing it to them outright, as Rivka Bliboim and Ĥiya Dahan, respectively, state:

> The introduction of words is done through drawing [*SHE'IVA*]. In this process I create for the student the need for the word by providing him with a number of contexts in which the word is used, and I don't provide the word itself.
>
> Bliboim (1992, p.105; translated from Hebrew)

> It is not advisable to teach the students the rules in advance, but rather to lead them to discover the rules and ways of conjugating verbs on their own, and that is in order to develop their grammatical conceptualization and encourage them to be active throughout the lesson… As well, it is likely that when the student discovers the rules by himself, he internalizes them better than when these are dictated by the teacher.
>
> Dahan (1995, p. 45; translated from Hebrew)

One way of doing so is by encouraging the learners to provide logical and intelligent guesses/conjectures. This method was already practiced in the 1970s as attested by Blum 'this skill, which due to a lack of a better name, can be referred to as "intelligent guess" [*NIĤOUSH NAVON*]…' (1971, p. 58; translated from Hebrew; inverted commas in the original). In the *Dagesh* video-kit, this practice is referred to as 'the guessing method [*SHITAT HA-NIĤOUSH*]' (Farstei 1995, p. 24; translated from Hebrew); and is articulated thus: 'The new words need to be almost guessed in the prepared context (Kobliner 1992, p. 27; translated from Hebrew).

Other principles, which have been practiced since the 1970s (as attested by Blum 1971) are evident in the *Dagesh* video-kits (these are also evident in the Textbook and Guidebook, to be discussed shortly). The progression of instruction from easier to complex is stressed: '…a detailed progression from easy to complex and from the specific to the general (Weyl 1992, p. 61; translated from Hebrew); 'Every language structure is learned progressively from easy to complex' (Baras 1995, p. 72; translated from Hebrew). In addition, the shift from *closed* to *open* activities in a three-phase instructional process, is detailed by Israeli:

> In the teaching of any new topic the acquired material ought to be practiced in three main phases:
>
> a. closed exercise – the phase in which the students repeat exactly, orally or in writing, the new materials
>
> b. semi open exercise – students themselves need to construct the word or expression, with the teacher's assistance
>
> c. open exercise – in this phase the teacher is 'dispensable'. Based on previous knowledge, students construct their own sentences and expressions, and the teacher is 'out of the picture'. Already from the first lesson this phase should be reached in order to give the students the feeling they are able to express themselves freely.

> *In the first closed phase* the students repeat in various ways after the teacher. For example I say [the word] and the students need to repeat it either in a chorus or individually.
>
> *In the second phase* I carry out a dialogue with one, or more, of the students. For example, I show a picture of [an item] and the students need to say its name.
>
> *In the third phase* the students speak among themselves and I – don't intervene. The direction is always from close to open but it is important to emphasise that the students are always actively participating.
>
> Israeli (1992, pp. 8-9; translated from Hebrew)

Opportunities for students to practice new language, is stressed by Israeli: for example:

> In a beginners' class each new word should be repeated many times. To avoid boredom I employ various techniques: I repeat the word a number of times in different speeds and intonations, and try to pronounce it naturally as the students hear [it] in the street. Then I ask the students to repeat it in a chorus, in groups, or individually, until I am certain they have pronounced it correctly/properly. In this clip I pretend not to hear, and this 'wink' [tactic] is clear to the students, so I get them to repeat the word once more.
>
> Israeli (1992, p. 8; translated from Hebrew)

As well, this is highlighted by Bliboim:

> In advanced levels three to four repetitions of each word is needed so that it is internalized by the learner. In lower instructional levels a greater number of reputations are needed.
>
> Bliboim (1992, p. 107; translated from Hebrew)

Additionally, the practice of pair/group work is highlighted (Farstei 1995; Israeli 1992; Rot 1995), and the requirement for giving homework (Farstei 1995; Garson 1992; Israeli 1992; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995; Weyl 1992).

Finally, the importance of creating a positive and supportive learning environment is highlighted:

> It is important to create a relaxed and pleasant classroom atmosphere. A situation of real familiarity enables learning in a free and comfortable environment and makes it easier for the students to practice the new expressions and use them to get to know each other.
>
> Meshler (1995, p. 6; translated from Hebrew)

> … in a colourful and happy atmosphere it is easier to remove boundaries [and] to learn openly.
>
> Israeli (1992, p. 5; translated from Hebrew)

As is the use of humour: 'The use of humour contributes to interest in the lesson.'

(Dahan 1995, p. 45; translated from Hebrew)

To sum up, despite the overall praxis-based orientation of RIS' programs, coupled with the rarity of overt theorising of language and learning theory, it is beyond doubt that there is a consistency in the principles that either implicitly or explicitly inform pedagogical practices within RIS. I highlight these principles in the following section.

4.2.3 The RIS teacher-training course

As discussed above, there are no RIS publications that provide explicit information on its pedagogical principles and practices. A similar absence of theoretical orientation is also evident in the RIS Teacher Training Course. RIS offers a five month teacher-training program that, according to its website, includes both theory and classroom practice. The website states:

> The Centre for Training Teachers offers a half-year program of 120 academic hours designed to train teachers of Hebrew as a second language, mainly for institutions of higher education. Candidates must have completed at least one year of studies at an institution of higher education and have an excellent command of the Hebrew language. The coordinator of the Center interviews all candidates. The curriculum includes:
>
> - Lectures on the theory of language
> - Hebrew language and didactic principles: syntax, morphology, vocabulary, history of the Hebrew language, and more
> - Classroom observations
> - Weekly tutorial
> - Practice teaching in Hebrew classes within the framework of the Division of Hebrew Language Instruction
>
> http://overseas.huji.ac.il/hebrewteacher (retrieved 23/01/2014)

Despite the claim to teach 'theory of language', it seems relevant that I have not been able to ascertain which specific theories are addressed, despite a series of private correspondence with a number of senior RIS teachers including one teacher who previously coordinated the course. Rather, based on these private correspondence, it appears that the theoretical attention is centred on the linguistic system of the 'Hebrew language', while the major mode of teacher-development involves a kind of apprentice-model of passing down of practical knowledge via practicing teaching in the RIS classes.

Thus, it appears that an apprentice-model of training is followed, whereby accumulated expertise in and knowledge of THAL are passed down from senior teachers to novice teachers. This accumulation and transformation of knowledge, which is not fixed or static but in a continuous state of change and growth, is achieved through the following repeated process: senior teachers hone their teaching practices over many years, while amassing a cadre of praxis-based pedagogic expertise and knowledge; this praxis-based know-how is used daily at RIS' various instructional levels, and shared among RIS' practitioners and passed down to new generations of teachers; this same praxis-based know-how underpins RIS' teachers' combined enterprise of writing textbooks and producing multimedia, online and other instructional materials.

4.2.4 The *New Hebrew from Scratch-Part A* Textbook

Having discussed the praxis-based orientation of the RIS pedagogy, and deduced that in RIS knowledge and expertise are passed down orally from senior teachers to novice teachers, as well as serving as the foundations for textbook-development; I now turn to outline the main features of *The New Hebrew from Scratch – Part A* (Chayat et al. 2000/2007).

The Textbook has a lengthy developmental history. Its first edition, *Hebrew from Scratch* (Chayat, Kobliner & Israeli 1990), was based on an earlier, somewhat informal, in-house publication titled *A Student's Booklet* (Blum & Ashuri 1970). In the late 1980s, Chayat, Kobliner & Israeli adapted and modified the *Student's Booklet* in accordance with their accumulated teaching experience.

In 2000-2001, a significantly revised version of the 1990 edition came out, entitled *The New Hebrew from Scratch –Part A* and *Part B* (Chayat, Kobliner & Israeli 2000, and 2001, respectively; a further edition of *Part A* came out in 2007). These new publications adhered to the separation of the beginner and the lower-intermediate levels at the RIS, with each textbook containing its own prescribed language and curriculum.

In their Introduction to the Textbook's 2000 edition, Chayat, Kobliner & Israeli describe their underpinning approach to instruction as follows:

> Our basic assumption is that linguistic ability entails mastery of all components of the language: grammatical patterns, syntactic structures, vocabulary, and expressions. The progressive and integrated presentation of those four elements forms the backbone of this textbook.
>
> **The grammatical patterns and syntactic structures** are the vertical threads in the early stage of the learning and are limited in number. Command of these allows the use of many expressions. The textbook does not deal with the analysis of the patterns and structures from a linguistic perspective, as its aim is teaching the language and not analysing its grammar…
>
> **The vocabulary** comprises the horizontal threads woven into the grammar and syntax. The words were chosen due to their prevalence in the language and as basic words in Hebrew. At times there are less prevalent words that are not practiced further; yet they have been included in order to bring a certain text to life and increase its interest. Each Part has about 800 words that appear in the dictionaries at the end of each curriculum-unit and in the alphabetic dictionary at the end of the textbook.
>
> **The expressions** in the textbook are mostly of a cultural nature anchored in varied linguistic registers. …
>
> Chayat et al. (2000/2007, pp. i-ii; translated from Hebrew; bold in original)

Moreover, the writers explain that in addition to the 'threads' of grammar and vocabulary, students are introduced to three different text-types:

> **1. Conversations** on daily communicative topics.
>
> **2. Reading texts** relating to the linguistic topics are simplified [linguistically]. We have chosen texts of an intellectual nature, aimed to provoke thought with regard to both Jewish and Israeli and universal topics. Specific emphasis has been given to reading comprehension, and we offer in the textbook varied exercises to strengthen this skill. So

> as to improve students' abilities for independent learning, we have created a separate section in the textbook – use of dictionary. The vocabulary in this section is not included in the curriculum-units' active vocabulary.
>
> **3. Verses and sayings** from [historical] sources, **poetry**, **songs**, **and expressions**, are all simplified. The consideration for their inclusion was their suitability for the vocabulary and linguistic content or structures already learned. These passages are optional in nature, and the new words they contain are neither [further] practiced nor included in the dictionary. …
>
> Progression in the curriculum is not dependent on these [voluntary passages], yet we have enjoyed presenting their richness to the learners, and he [sic] via a bold conjecture [*NIĤOUSH AMITZ*], can understand, even with a limited vocabulary.
>
> Chayat et al. (2000/2007, pp. i-ii; translated from Hebrew)

As well, a key feature of the program is its gradual move 'from closed to open exercises'. The writers explain this as follows:

> The principle that guides all practices in this book is the gradual move from closed exercise to open exercises. In other words, from exercises where the students need to copy, choose, or insert, to exercises where the student draws, creates and expresses his [/her] opinion.
>
> Chayat et al. (2000/2007, pp. i-ii; translated from Hebrew)

These key principles were further confirmed by one of the Textbook's writers who visited the Australian university. As well as testifying to the centrality of grammar in underpinning the curriculum, she also attested to the rather haphazard process of the diffusion of knowledge whereby senior teachers, drawing on their extensive teaching experience, gradually formalize their practice into textbooks and other instructional materials:

> In RIS we were raised on the notion that the foundation for writing instructional programs is a grammatical-syntactical basis; grammar encompasses phonetics, morphology, syntax, and semantics. And this is the most important element. Grammar and syntax belong to finite, therefore limited, categories. A grammatical-syntactic basis provides usage of many expression/utterances, in contrast to vocabulary which is open and limitless; and [vocabulary] is "poured" into the grammatical and syntactic structures and into topics.

> The idea that a grammatical-syntactical basis as the only axis on which an instructional program is based (as the previous, 1990, edition of the textbook) did not measure up to the reality of teaching the language. Therefore another axis, vocabulary, was added as a third element to the grammar and syntax. These three elements together with and alongside the practice of the four language skills, whilst using the vocabulary from the various topics, are the foundations of the textbook's 2000 edition.
>
> There is a framework for a grammatical and syntactical program and there is an order of learning Hebrew. Some language structures precede others and at times they function as the foundation for the teaching of the other structures. This axis is no less important than the semantic context and broadening of the vocabulary. Communicative situations dictate vocabulary, and the vocabulary [chosen] was according to its appearance and frequency in the communicative situation. Frequency and context dictate vocabulary.
>
> In the textbook, less frequent vocabulary was at times included due to the demands of the situation but this was passive vocabulary. It is included in the dictionary, yet negligible in the instructional process… Such vocabulary will not be tested.
>
> Textbook Writer (translated from Hebrew)

This evidence supports, while elaborating and making more explicit, the supposition that the Textbook' curriculum is organized around the sequencing of grammar features. Moreover, it confirms that the Textbook's writers drew either implicitly or explicitly on teaching methods derived from the grammar-based and / or focus-on-form approaches. As discussed in Chapter 2, grammar-based approaches to L2 instruction were popular in the area of English language teaching (ELT) as early the 1940s, while the more theoretical focus-on-form approach gained prominence some thirty years later and remained in vogue even as communicative language teaching (CLT) became prevalent in the 1980s and onwards. Finally, this evidence confirms the rather haphazard process of diffusion of teaching expertise and knowledge among RIS teachers:

> Our teachers were Shosh Blum and Mira Owen, and they learned from Aharon Rosen, who founded the Division for Hebrew Instruction in the 1960s. Shosh Blum was the coordinator of the Summer Ulpan. And (to my recollection) the foundations of the know-how for developing the Division's teaching and learning programs were derived from accumulated practice and knowledge rather than from books. Every new teacher in the Summer Ulpan throughout the 1970s was instructed by the coordinator of the respective level in which she taught, and she team-taught with the coordinator herself.

> Additionally, [I] cannot recall if the same six levels of Hebrew instruction, as are in place currently, were already in existence then, but there were five or six levels; and Shosh Blum coordinated the coordinators.
>
> Textbook Writer (translated from Hebrew)

In summing up, we note, firstly, that the Textbook's curriculum is primarily based on its teachers-writers' (Chayat, Israeli & Kobliner) accumulated pedagogical experience and know-how, rather than on theoretical knowledge and understanding. Secondly, the trajectory of these teachers-writers own developing know-how and pedagogical expertise is reflected in the modification and evolution of the Textbook from its 1990 edition to its current 2000/2007 editions.

The Textbook's *Shi'ur 2* unit-of-work

Having discussed both the Textbook's history and the foundational principles of its 2000 edition, I now turn to present a detailed account of the prescribed language, skills and knowledge of one unit-of-work. The classroom implementation of this unit (*Shi'ur 2*) is the focus of the third level of analysis (presented in Chapter 6). Here I draw on information from the Textbook and its accompanying Guidebook (Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally 2001).

The major teaching point of this *Shi'ur 2* unit-of-work, which forms the basis of the Focus Lessons' language instruction (to be discussed in Chapter 6), is the introduction of: nouns relating to homes/dwellings; common adjectives; and noun-adjective word-order and agreement conventions. Classroom activities are designed around the 'topic' of homes/dwellings. The unit is organized into clusters of activities that focus first at word level, then at sentence level, and finally at text level.

The first cluster (Exercises 1 – 3) serves to introduce and consolidate language relevant to the topic. Exercise 1 is based around an advertisement for an apartment (shown below), and introduces the following new vocabulary: *DIRA* {f.s} (*apartment*), *GADOL* {m.s} (*large*), *ĤEDER* {m.s} (*room*), *MITBAĤ* {m.s} (*kitchen), MIKLAĤAT* {f.s} (*shower),* and *SHEROUTIM* {m.pl} *(toilet/bathroom*).

1. דירה ברחוב בן גוריון

דירה ברחוב בן גוריון 3 בתל אביב
חֶדֶר גָּדוֹל, מִטְבָּח, מקלחת ושירותים.
טל. 03-5889412

יעקב או מירה

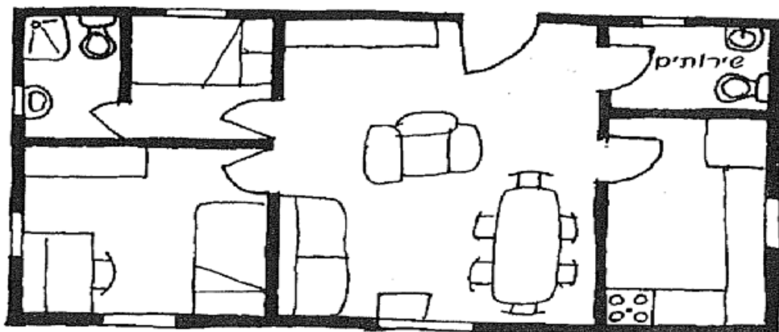
Chayat et al. (2007, p. 124, Exercise 1)

Exercise 2, entitled: *'Apartment 5, 9 Ben Yehuda St., Tel Aviv',* contains a sketch, or plan, of another apartment. Students are required to 'Write the names of the different rooms on the apartment plan'. The Textbook's provided exemplar states: '*there [are] toilets in the apartment*.'

2. כתבו בשרטוט ואמרו מה יש בדירה.

Write the names of the different rooms on the apartment plan.

דירה 5, רחוב בן יהודה 9, תל אביב



דוגמה: בדירה יש שירותים.

Chayat et al. (2007, p. 124, Exercise 2)

Exercise 3 involves a dialogue entitled '*yes or no?*' It contains a phone conversation between an owner of an apartment and a prospective tenant in which the apartment is discussed. This dialogue contains the adjectives: *METZOUYAN* (*excellent*)*, ĤADASH* (*new*)*, YASHAN* (*old*)*, MEYOUĤAD* (*special*)*,* and *NEĤMAD* (*nice*); the noun-adjective phrase *ĤEDER KATAN* {m.s} (*small room*); the phrases: *BEKESHER LE'…* (*in connection to*); *BETAĤ* (*certainly*); and the borrowed greeting *HALO* (*hello*). Students are required to 'Write an ad for the apartment according to the dialogue above.'

The second cluster of activities (Exercises 4 and 5) focuses more directly on the dual principles of inflection and word-order that are fundamental to Hebrew. These pose significant difficulties for native English speakers due to the variations between the two language systems; I return to this point later in this discussion (Section 4.3.2). In this cluster, new adjectives: *GADOL* (*big*), *YASHAN* (*old*), *KATAN* (*small*), *YAFE'* (*pretty/beautiful*), are combined with nominal expressions utilizing familiar nouns: *ĤAVERIM MEYOUĤADIM* {m.pl} (*special friends*), *ANASHIM TOVIM* {m.pl} (*good people*), *YELED TOV* {m.s} (*good boy*); as well as titles of well-known books and movies such as *NASHIM KTANOT* {f.pl} (*little women*), and *ISHA YAFA* {f.pl} (*pretty woman*). Next, common greetings (introduced in *Lesson 1*, the previous unit-of-work): *BOKER TOV* (*good morning*), *EREV TOV* (*good evening*), and *LAYLA TOV* (*good night*) (all {m.s}), and *TZAHARAYIM TOVIM* {m.pl} (*good afternoon*), are practiced. Here they are presented as noun-adjective expressions, and their noun-adjective structure is emphasized.

This is followed by further practice of noun-adjective agreement, now at a sentence level. For example, students are asked to select the correct morphological form of the adjectives *KATAN* (*small*) and *ATIQ* (*ancient*) in order to complete sentences such as:

2. *'ANI LO ROTZE' SANDVICH* ____________ *VE-GAM LO OUGA*____________.
   (KATAN, KTANA, KTANIM, KTANOT)

(*i don't want a sandwich* {m.s} _________*, nor a cake* {f.s}) _____________.

[the four forms of the adjective *small* are included]

5. '*BA-ĤANOUT YESH SFARIM* ___________*, VE-GAM ĤANOUKIYOT* ________.
   (ATIQ, ATIQA, ATIQIM, ATIQOT)

(*in the shop there are books* {m.pl} _______ *and also candelabras* {f.pl} _______.

[the four forms of the adjective *ancient* are included]

Chayat et al. (2007, p. 128, Exercise 5C; translated from Hebrew)

Significantly, this exercise includes new language: the noun *ĤANOUKIYA* {f.s} *candelabra*, and the adjectives *MODERNI modern* and *ATIQ ancient/antique*. Below the Exercise are pictures of three *ĤANOUKIYOT* (*candelabras*), one modern, one old, and one antique.

To sum up, the sequencing of these two clusters is built around a spiral progression, which serves to provide learners with revision of 'known' language items; further

practice of most recently acquired language items; and the introduction of new language items, which then forms part of the subsequent cluster. As well, the sequencing of the exercises and activities in these clusters builds-in extensive opportunities for repetition.

In the third cluster (Exercises 6A-6C), the key language feature of noun-adjective word order and agreement, and the above new language items, are both consolidated and extended. These are embedded in a text entitled *Tikho House,* together with further new language: *TZIYOURIM* {m.pl} (*drawings/paintings*), *ETZIM* {m.pl} (*trees*), *LIFA'AMIM* (*sometimes*)*, NEĤMAD* (*nice/pleasant*)*,* and *KLASI* (*classical*). The text *Tikho House* tells the history of a popular Jerusalem landmark. This is the first time that an information text-type is presented in the Textbook (up to now the curriculum has included only short dialogues and sentence length exercises). *Tikho House* requires learners to read and comprehend more complex information, and includes knowledge related specifically to Israeli/Jewish cultural topics. Thus, here the new language and linguistic skills also serve as a tool for the acquisition of new knowledge about both Israel and Judaism, interweaving the two elements, language and culture.

A series of learning activities are prescribed for this text. First, students read and understand the 'story' in the text; then they are required to identify the adjectives that modify the nouns in the text. For example:

> *2. 'TZIYOURIM* {m.pl} *(drawings*) ___________ .
> [Select *YAFIM* {m.pl} *beautiful* from the text]
> *3.* __________________ *GADOL* {m.s} (*big*).
> [Select *SALON* {m.s} (*living-room)* from the text]
>
> Chayat et al. (2007, p. 130, Exercise 6B; translated from Hebrew)

Students are then asked to write about another house-museum that they know with the expectation they use the new language and text organization provided in *Tikho House*.

As can be seen, these linked activities progress from close to open as learners move from reading and comprehending the informative text, to extracting the noun-adjective phrases embedded in it, to writing a different individual informative text about another house-museum. The shift from close to more open within this cluster of activities reflects the broader progression across the unit-of-work from the word-level activities of

the first cluster (Exercises 1-3); to the sentence level activities of the second cluster (Exercises 4-5); to the paragraph level activity in the third cluster (Exercise 6).

In the fourth cluster (Exercises 7-8) there is a shift in instructional purpose. Here activities focus on developing more formal and explicit knowledge of noun-adjective inflection conventions; with the rules now explicitly presented:

- לשמות עצם רבים בזכר יש בצורת הרבים סיומת של נקבה- □ות:
- Many masculine nouns in their plural form receive a feminine suffix □ות

  For example: למשל:

  מָלוֹן - מְלוֹנוֹת, רְחוֹב - רְחוֹבוֹת, אַרְמוֹן - אַרְמוֹנוֹת, שׁוּלְחָן - שׁוּלְחָנוֹת.

- למספר שמות עצם בנקבה יש בצורת הרבים סיומת של זכר - □ִים.
- Some feminine nouns in their plural form receive a masculine suffix □ִים.

  For example: **אִישָׁה - נָשִׁים, עִיר - עָרִים** למשל:

- שם התואר מותאם למינו של העצם בלי להתחשב בסיומת.
- The adjective fits the noun's gender and the suffix is not taken into consideration.

  For example: **מלונות גדולים, נשים יפות** למשל:

Chayat et al. (2007, pp. 130-131, Exercise 7)

Following these explanations, a series of exercises provide opportunities for further practice of noun-adjective agreement, building from the grammatically simple task of writing the singular form of a given sentence, through the more challenging task of adding appropriate forms of adjectives to regular nouns, to finally, the adding of appropriate adjectives to irregular nouns.

The fifth cluster of activities (Exercise 9) introduces a new grammatical structure – interrogative utterances (these are linguistically related to demonstrative pronouns,

which were introduced in earlier units-of-work). In this activity, students need to create questions to given answers whilst using the three Hebrew counterpart interrogatives to English's 'which' (*EIZE'* {m.s}, *EIZO* {f.s}, and *EILU* {pl, m. & f.}). Here learners are required to use the correct interrogative form to compose questions to given answers.

The sixth, and final, cluster (Exercise 10A-B) further extends learners' world knowledge. It contains another informative text about the town of Caesarea, which is located on the Mediterranean coast. The text integrates new vocabulary, *MPHEETE'ATRON* {m.s} (*amphitheatre*), *KEISAR/KEISARIT* (*emperor/empress*), *BALET* {m} (*ballet*), *AL SHEM* (*named after*), *KMO* (*as/like*), and the Hebrew pronunciation of the words *AUGOOSTOOS* (*Augustus*) and *HORDOOS* (*Herod*), with general knowledge of Caesarea's ancient origins and the newly built, modern town. Related exercises provide opportunities for vocabulary consolidation, and identifying and manipulating the noun-adjective phrases embedded in the text.

Shi'ur 2 unit-of-work ends with a summary, in both Hebrew and English, which includes three sections: a listing of the newly introduced vocabulary and grammatical items; a listing of the grammatical topics; and a brief English explanation of the newly introduced grammatical items (Chayat et al. 2000/2007, pp. 137-138).

To sum up, this account of *Shi'ur 2* unit-of-work is structured around the key teaching points of word order and gender agreement in noun-adjective phrases. This grammatical teaching point is brought to life through a focus on the 'topic' of houses/dwellings, so that familiar and new language is thematically linked. The systematic and careful organization of clusters of activities illustrates the principle of working from close to open activities and from smaller to larger segments of language and text. As the unit progresses, opportunities are provided for extension of language through engagement with larger texts. The unit as a whole includes multiple opportunities to use and practice language; as well as some focus on development of knowledge about language, through emphasis on more formal and explicit knowledge of the rules and functions of Hebrew's noun-adjective agreement. The grammatical summary enables learners to revise and reflect on their learning in this unit. As this unit-of work is typical of other units of-work, it provides insight into the Textbook as a whole.

The Guidebook

Accompanying the Textbook is *A Teacher's Guidebook to The New Hebrew from Scratch-Part A* (Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally 2001), written by a different team of teachers-writers. While the Textbook clearly sets out the prescribed language, the ways of teaching it are not explicitly articulated. This apparent gap and the need to provide more pedagogical guidelines probably became noticeable within the RIS circle, resulting in the development of the Guidebook. The latter was developed with 'the help of the 2000 level-Aleph Summer Ulpan teachers who trialled the guide's first edition and commented and contributed to its current edition' (Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally 2000, Introduction; translated from Hebrew).

The Guidebook, which is written only in Hebrew, provides linguistic explanations, cultural and/or historical information, and further suggestions for different classroom activities to support the implementation of the Textbook's prescribed curriculum. Organized differently from the Textbook, the Guidebook, under the heading '*what's new?*', summarizes in point form the new language features to be introduced in each of the Textbook's units-of-work, as well as providing additional relevant linguistic explanations; the latter, presumably, intended to assist teachers in affording explicit meta-linguistic explanation. For example in the guidelines to *Shi'ur 2*, Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally specify that the Textbook itself contain 'linguistic annotations [both] in exercise 7 and at the end of the curriculum-unit' (p. 27). In addition, they provide the additional information:

> It is important to clarify to the students that a noun's [grammatical] gender is identified by its singular [morphological] form, even if its plural [morphological] form is irregular. Thus, the adjective of a noun's irregular plural form is determined in accordance with its singular form: *REĤOV ATIQ* > *REĤOVOT ATIQIM* (ancient street > ancient streets); *SHANA TOVA* > *SHANIM TOVOT* (new year > new years).
>
> Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally (2001, p. 27; translated from Hebrew)

Under the heading '*Suggestions for implementation*', the Guidebook provides suggestions regarding the order in which the Textbook's prescribed language items should be implemented, as well as numerous suggestions for different teaching and learning activities. For example: the guidelines to *Shi'ur 2* suggest commencing the

instruction with exercises 4, 7, and 8, which focus on the new adjectives and their modifying function. They then recommend that exercise 5 should precede exercise 3; that exercises 8 should precede exercise 6; and that the former sections should be used to prepare for the latter sections. The Guidebook authors also provide numerous suggestions for different teaching and learning activities. For example, they recommend introducing 'apartment-related vocabulary' via the Textbook illustrations [ex. 2, 5], or via newspaper ads. They suggest that each student should plan an ideal house/apartment for themselves, students, a family with children, a couple with a pet, a painter, a musician, a sportsperson, etc. Another suggestion is for pair work, with one student describing his/her house, and the other sketching it (p. 28). For the *'yes or no?'* dialogue [ex. 3], the Guidebook lists a number of key questions, for example: '*Ori works in a bank?; [he is a] student?; [he] works in high-tech?; which apartment does Ori want {near the university; a new apartment; with a kitchen}?*'. This is followed by post-reading activities such as further suggestions for phone conversations concerning different shared-living situations (p. 27).

Lastly, if a unit-of-work contains texts that contain cultural and/or historical information, the Guidebook provides further relevant information intended, presumably, to support teachers who might lack such knowledge. For example, in *Shi'ur 2* they point out that many of the people referred to in the text *Tikho House* are historical figures and students should be informed who they are. They suggest that *Tikho House*, which they emphasize is the first extensive text students are presented with, should be divided into readable portions rather than read all at once; and they provide examples of some general comprehension questions such as: '*what is Tikho House? a museum, library, restaurant, concert hall…? what is special about Tikho House?*'. Finally, they include topics for oral discussions such as: '*You are organizing a party for your daughter in Tikho house and you want to speak to the manager… you are an architect…and you need to speak with the manager…'* (Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally 2001, p. 28; translated from Hebrew).

From the Guidebook's writers own acknowledgment of contributions made by the '2000 level-Aleph Summer Ulpan teachers', it emerges that the Guidebook's pedagogy was inferred from existing practice, rather than from theories of teaching. In turn, the Guidebook's suggestions for teaching and learning activities, as well as its articulation

of linguistic information, and instructional knowledge, function to inform future classroom instruction. Nonetheless, the Guidebook, like the Textbook, does not provide extensive explanations of the prescribed program's theoretical underpinnings. This suggests that theories of language and of learning have had relatively little formal impact amongst RIS practitioners. Finally, it is important to point out that the case study teacher admitted that he did not know of the Guidebook's existence, and had not drawn on it in teaching the case study cohort.

4.2.5 Key features and principles that inform RIS beginner-level program

As the above analysis indicates, there are a number of key principles that inform the RIS approach to teaching and learning, and, specifically, the pedagogical practices at beginners' level.

Sequencing of grammatical features forms major organizing principle of curriculum

This grammar-based spiral curriculum is evident in the organization of the Textbook and accompanying Guidebook. The grammar-based curriculum appears to have formed the key organizing principle throughout the development of the Textbook. However, there is some evidence that some concessions have been made to the need for communicative interaction. Major changes were evident in the 2000 edition of the Textbook, consisting of the introduction of thematically-linked vocabulary and more interactive dialogue-based activities. In the introduction to the Textbook (Section 4.2.4), while grammar is the 'vertical thread', vocabulary is the 'horizontal thread' that is required to 'bring to life' a certain text and to 'increase its interest'. In her Interview, the Textbook Writer referred to the axes of grammar and vocabulary/topics as necessary for language teaching. The concession to communicative interaction is also evident in suggestions made in the Guidebook for inclusion of group or pair work around more open ended, interactive activities. While still built around reinforcement of specific language features, these activities provide opportunities for students to extend their usage of the language. The detailed account of *Shi'ur 2* (Section 4.2.4) highlights the fact that the various clusters of exercises within this unit-of-work were sequenced around conventions of noun-adjective agreement and word order. Similarly, subsequent

units are built around specific language and grammar features. The significance of language and grammar sequencing within the RIS program as a whole was further highlighted in the discussion of the *List* (Kuzar 1991) and the Interview with the Textbook Writer.

While there is little overt articulation of any underpinning theory of language, the RIS materials seem to be built around the assumption that there is a fixed order of acquisition of language and grammatical terms. This is most clearly articulated in the *List* (Kuzar 1991), although it is also evident in the sequencing of grammatical features across the Textbook units-of-work. As discussed previously, such an assumption appears to draw on notions that are prevalent within Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory (for example, Gass & Selinker 2008; Lightbown & Spada 2006; Long 2003; Mitchell & Miles 2004). The subsequent social turn in language development theory (for example, Ortega 2009) has perhaps impacted on the RIS teacher-writers and resulted in the inclusion of more interactive activities, although clearly the development of specific RIS resources is also influenced by the practical experience of its teacher-writers.

'What seems to work best' in the classroom

A second major principle that informs the overall approach of the Textbook is very clearly a practice-oriented methodology drawn from the writers' experience. The writers appear to work on the basis of the pragmatic notion that what works best in the classroom is grounded in practitioner experience rather than in any major theoretical analysis. This practical orientation was most clearly articulated by the Textbook Writer in her Interview, where she referred to the foundations and know-how for developing the programs as 'derived from accumulated practice and knowledge, rather than from books'. This practical orientation is also evident from the history of the Textbook's development, which in both the first edition of 1990 and the 2000 revised edition, was developed in response to addressing perceived needs.

The same practical orientation seems to have informed the RIS teacher-training program, where knowledge of how to teach is passed on in an apprentice-model of teacher training. More experienced teachers typically work with new teachers, who in turn work with the next round of new teachers. In such a context, instructional skills and

knowledge can be regarded as 'mundane' (Bernstein 2000, p. 29) and common knowledge. Historically, such skills and knowledge have not required explicit articulation and theorization within RIS itself.

It is only with the separate development of the *Dagesh* video-kits' sample lessons, and the aim of sharing the experience and knowledge developed in RIS with other Hebrew teachers, that underlying principles have had to be articulated more clearly.

Major focus on oral language development

A further major feature that has impacted on the RIS teaching approach is the emphasis on spoken language (Dahan 1995; Israeli 1992; Maman 1992; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995; Susser). This is especially evident at the beginner-level where all new language is initially introduced orally. Learners are primarily required to interact orally with their teachers, and at times with each other, as they engage with the new language. As the earlier discussion of the Textbook showed, activities that require reading and writing, as well as other visual supports, are included, especially in the more open exercises; however, in those activities, reading and writing is seen primarily as support for oral language development, rather than as the primary focus of learning.

In addition to the overall approach to language instruction, there are a number of key principles that inform and shape specific teaching practices within the RIS classrooms, which I now turn to discuss.

Emphasis on learning language through using language

The most consistent principle to emerge from the above publications, as well as the Interview, is that learning a language requires use of the language. From the lowest instructional level, Hebrew is taught through the medium of Hebrew. As discussed above, the explicit articulation of this principle is found in the *Dagesh* sample lessons, but it can also be inferred from the Textbook and the Guidebook. The Textbook is primarily written in Hebrew, and its activities require responses in Hebrew. The Guidebook, through its proposed activities, also requires students to interact in Hebrew.

Structured sequencing of activities: a shift from closed to open activities

The consistent use of Hebrew to teach Hebrew requires careful sequencing of activities to ensure that students are introduced to relevant language features in ways that enable them to comprehend and begin to use the language. In the Textbook, new language items are systematically introduced through a three-part structure. Again, this principle is most clearly articulated in the *Dagesh* video-kits sample lessons, where the three-phase instructional process is spelled out in some detail (Israeli 1992). A further feature of this principle is the shift from closed exercises, to semi open exercises, to open exercises (Baras 1995; Weyl 1992). The discussion of *Shi'ur 2* provided some insight into the ways that teaching activities were clustered and sequenced from a closed to a more open engagement with relevant language features. The organisation of this unit-of-work was typical of other units. Such sequencing provides students with clear and direct guidance in the first phases of activities, but that guidance is progressively withdrawn in the second and third phases as students develop competence with the language. As the Textbook shows, this shift is also characterised by a move from smaller to larger units of language.

Regular opportunities for students to practise new language

Practice of new language items is commonly regarded as essential to successful language learning. A key feature of the Textbook is the way in which it provides multiple opportunities for students to hear, say, and practice new language. The key strategy for doing this is the systematic sequencing and structuring of language activities within and between units-of-work and their related activities. This enables new vocabulary and grammar to be introduced in a spiral progression: practiced within each unit, and then systematically reinforced in subsequent units.

Emphasis on explicit rules of grammar, and on learning about language

The sequencing of activities within the *Shi'ur 2* activity clusters highlights the following features: the curriculum provides for revision of known language, practice of recently and newly acquired language, as well as the introduction of further new language to be focused on in subsequent units-of-work. Such a process plays an important role in sensitizing learners to new language, by enabling them to become

familiar with specific language, before they are expected to use it, and by affording them with a longer time frame in which to learn new language.

Despite the overall emphasis on using language to learn language, the Textbook also builds-in opportunities for students to develop an explicit understanding of Hebrew and its grammatical systems. An example of this can be seen in the organization of the fourth cluster of activities (Exercises 7-8) in *Shi'ur 2* unit-of-work. Thus, while the overall emphasis is on use of the language, learners are also provided with opportunities to reflect on what they are learning. I suggest this is significant as it contributes to students' meta-understanding of the L2, and it enables them to develop a meta-language for discussing their Hebrew learning and development.

Emphasis on importance of supportive classroom environment

Finally, although not accorded obvious priority, there was some emphasis on the importance of affect, and of providing supportive and positive learning environments. This was most explicit in the *Dagesh* video-kits (Dahan 1995; Israeli, 1992; Meshler 1995). Since the RIS programs were built on practical knowledge of experienced teachers, it is possible that the importance of a positive learning environment was regarded so much as common knowledge that it did not warrant mention, except in the *Dagesh* sample lessons where principles overall were made more explicit.

4.3 Key features of Hebrew pertinent to beginner-level

In the last section of this chapter, I present the main conventions of Hebrew that beginner-level learners first engage with, especially these elements of the language, whereby Hebrew and English differ. The main purpose of this section is to give readers of this thesis a basic understanding of these features so as to give a better sense of the challenges faced by teachers and students, as well as of the case study students' language learning trajectory.

As discussed earlier in the chapter, the Textbook is primarily organized around a spiral sequence of grammar and vocabulary. As a result, differences between Hebrew and English are highly relevant to beginner learners of Hebrew, and in turn, to the cohort of the current case study. This section serves to highlight key differences between the two

languages and the subsequent challenges faced by English speakers upon commencing their study of Hebrew, as well as introducing readers who might not be familiar with Hebrew to a number of its key features.

Hebrew and English differ in a number of important features, which include key syntactic, morphological, and graphological conventions. (For further detailed description and explanations of Modern Hebrew, see Coffin-Amir & Bolotzky 2005; Freedman-Cohen & Shoval 2011; Schwarzwald 2000). Significantly, some of the ways in which the two languages differ most are included in learners' initial encounters with the language.

4.3.1 Inflection

Modern Hebrew is a highly inflected language: that is, different parts of the sentence are bounded one to another, and governed by rules of agreement. While many Romance languages such as Spanish, French, and Italian are also inflected languages, English is not, and for beginner learners of Hebrew inflectional conventions pose consistent challenges.

These rules are succinctly surmised by Coffin-Amir & Bolotzky as follows:

> The head of a syntactic unit, such as a phrase, a clause, or a sentence, determines many of the features of the other noun, adjectives or verb forms in these units. Beyond the phrase there is agreement between the head noun of a subject and its predicate (verb, noun, or adjective), or between any noun and its co-referent pronoun anywhere in the sentence or beyond.
>
> Coffin-Amir & Bolotzky (2005, p. 1)

I now turn to highlight some of the morphological features that impact particularly on beginner learners.

Nouns

Nouns and pronouns in Hebrew possess grammatical gender and number. As with other Romance languages, in Hebrew all nouns are either masculine or feminine. Hebrew singular masculine nouns (including concrete and abstract inanimate nouns) do not have a common suffix. They are considered to be the 'the base form' of the noun – indicated

by a zero [Ǿ] marker. Feminine-singular nouns are normally marked by one of five common suffixes *A, IT, ET, UT,* and *AT*. The *IM* marker is most commonly affixed to masculine-plural nouns, and the *OT* marker is most commonly affixed to feminine-plural nouns. However, there are many exceptions, which pertain to some of the most commonly used words in daily discourse, and which language learners meet early in their studies. For example, the singular masculine noun *MALON* (hotel) acquires the *OT* suffix in the plural form *MELONOT* (hotels), and the singular feminine noun *MILA* (word) acquires the *IM* suffix in the plural form *MILIM* (words).

Noun modifiers: adjectives and numerals

Adjectives and numerals in Hebrew are treated as noun modifiers, and as such they must agree with the noun they modify in gender and number; as well as definiteness (the definite article). As with nouns, Hebrew adjectives have four inflections: masculine singular (marked by a zero suffix/marker [Ǿ] and considered to be 'the base form'); masculine plural (marked by either the suffix *IM* or suffix *YIM)*; feminine singular (market by the suffixes *A* or *ET*); and feminine plural (marked by the suffixes *OT* or *YOT*). Moreover, as with a number of Romance languages, Hebrew adjectives occur after the noun, whereas in English they occur before the noun. The two-fold elements of noun-adjective word order and agreement pose considerable challenge in the early phases of learning, something that will become apparent in the Findings chapters.

Cardinal numbers are also treated as noun modifiers and so also conform to rules of gender, number and definiteness agreement. Hebrew numbers have a masculine and a feminine form. However, (and most confusing for learners of Hebrew) the suffix *A* (which commonly marks feminine nouns) marks the masculine cardinal numbers whilst the feminine cardinal numbers are considered to be 'the base form', (and therefore marked by a zero suffix [Ǿ]). Cardinal numbers precede the noun they modify (except for the number 1 which follows the noun); in that respect in Hebrew mainly align with English.

Pronouns and demonstratives

In Hebrew gender, number and specification agreement also pertains to pronouns, demonstratives, verbs, and prepositions. Personal pronouns when functioning as the

subject of sentences can have ten different inflections for gender and number. Note that in contrast to English, inanimate nouns do not have a special pronoun ('it' in English) but are either masculine or feminine, as illustrated below:

Table 4.1: Pronouns

<table>
<tr><th rowspan="4">Gender</th><th colspan="6">Person</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">1st</th><th colspan="2">2nd</th><th colspan="2">3rd</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="6">Number</th></tr>
<tr><th>sg.</th><th>pl.</th><th>sg.</th><th>pl.</th><th>sg.</th><th>pl.</th></tr>
<tr><td>masc.</td><td rowspan="2">ANI ‘I’</td><td rowspan="2">ANĤNU ‘we’</td><td>ATA ‘you’</td><td>ATEM ‘you’</td><td>HU ‘he’</td><td>HEM ‘they’</td></tr>
<tr><td>fem.</td><td>AT ‘you’</td><td>ATEN ‘you’</td><td>HE ‘she’</td><td>HEN ‘they’</td></tr>
</table>

The fact that the Hebrew pronoun *HE (she*) is pronounced the same as the English 'he' (which in Hebrew is *HU*), causes considerable confusion for English-speaking students. Further difficulties are firstly, the pronoun *ATA* (*you* {m.s}) is marked by the common feminine suffix *A*, whilst the pronoun *AT* (*you* {f.s}) is un-marked, something commonly associated with masculine nouns, adjectives, and verbs. Secondly, the 3rd person pronouns *HE* (*she*)*, HU* (*he*)*, HEM* (*them* {m}), and *HEN* (*them* {f}) are used as anaphors.

As in English, Hebrew demonstrative pronouns function as noun modifiers, but again, unlike English, are marked for gender and number.

These complexities in Hebrew's noun-system commonly cause confusion for beginner learners; this is exacerbated by the fact that nouns and related elements are amongst the first language items introduced and used on meeting the language.

Verb system

The verb-system in Hebrew is both more and less complex than in English. On the one hand, the Hebrew system only has three tense forms: past, present, and future (a fourth form used to indicate commands, is only sporadically used; see Coffin-Amir & Bolotzky 2005; Freedman-Cohen & Shoval 2011; Schwarzwald 2001), while the verb-system in English has at least nine aspects. On the other hand, Hebrew's three tense forms cover a total of 23 inflections that signify tense, person, gender, and number: Relevant to beginner learners are the four inflections for the present tense. The examples below illustrate some of these complexities:

Table 4.2: Verbs

Inflection category	**English equivalent**					
	live/reside	do	learn	speak	understand	regrets
masc. sg.	*GAR* [Ǿ]	*OSE'* [Ǿ]	*LOMED* [Ǿ]	*MEDABER* [Ǿ]	*MEVIN*[Ǿ]	*MIZTA'ER* [Ǿ]
fem. sg.	*GAR**A***	*OS**A***	*LOMED**ET***	*MEDABER**ET***	*MEVIN**A***	*MIZTA'ER**ET***
masc. pl.	*GAR**IM***	*OS**IM***	*LOMED**IM***	*MEDABER**IM***	*MEVIN**IM***	*MIZTA'ER**IM***
fem. pl.	*GAR**OT***	*OS**OT***	*LOMED**OT***	*MEDABER**OT***	*MEVIN**OT***	*MIZTA'ER**OT***

Prepositions

Prepositions further complicate the picture for learners, particularly as verb-preposition combinations often vary from one language to another. As Coffin-Amir & Bolotzky explain,

> There is no predictable equivalence between the combination of verbs and prepositions in Hebrew and their equivalents in English. This is a nearly arbitrary feature that must be learned.
>
> Coffin-Amir & Bolotzky (2005, p. 237)

Examples of Hebrew and their English equivalents illustrate this point:

Table 4.3: Preposition

Preposition	Hebrew	English
BE’ **> by** ***BE’*** **> on** ***BA*** **> by the** ***BA*** **> on the**	*NOSE’A* ***BE****-OTOBUS* *MEDABER* ***BE’****-TELEPHON* *NOSE’A* ***BA****-OTOBUS* *MEDABER* ***BA****-TELEPHON*	travel **by** bus speak **by** phone travel **by the** bus speak **on the** phone
AL> **about** *AL>* **on**	*MEDABER* ***AL*** *POLITIKA* *YOSHEV* ***AL*** *KISE’*	speak **about** politics sit **on a** chair

Impersonal sentences

A third kind of difference between Hebrew and English lies in the syntactic structure of impersonal sentences. While impersonal sentences serve a similar discursive function in both languages, the Hebrew structure lacks a subject; it commonly uses the passive voice and its predicate verb is in the present tense 3rd person masculine plural form. For example:

Table 4.4: Impersonal sentences

Hebrew	Literally translated as:	Translated as:
MA KONIM BA-SUPERMARKET?	*What buy* {m.pl} *in the supermarket?*	What can one buy in the supermarket? What can be bought in the supermarket?
AIKH HOLKHIM LA-OUNIVERSITA?	*How walk* {m.pl} *to the university*?	How does one walk to the university?

4.3.2 Writing conventions

Hebrew's writing conventions pose further challenges. Modern Hebrew's alphabet and writing conventions follow, in the main, Classical Hebrew orthographic conventions. Modern Hebrew is written from right to left; and its alphabet is represented by the same 22 letters/graphemes as Classical Hebrew, with some adaptation to represent the sounds/words borrowed from other languages. A number of letters in Hebrew have two different graphic forms, one used at the beginning or middle of a word, and the other at the end of a word (*KHAF* {כ} & final *KHAF* {ך}; *MEM* {מ} & final *MEM* {ם}*; NUN* {נ} & final *NUN* {ן}*; FEI* {פ} & final *FEI* {ף}; and *TZADI* {צ} & final *TZADI* {ץ}).
A number of different consonants have lost their distinctive pronunciation in Modern Hebrew. Thus, *ALEF, AYIN, and HEY* lost their glottalic/pharyngeal (referred to as guttural in Hebrew) quality and are commonly pronounced as an A sound; *VET* and *VAV* are both pronounced as V; *ĤET* and *KHAF* are both pronounced as KH; *SIN* and *SA'MEKH* are both pronounced as S; and *TET* and *TAV* are both pronounced as T). As well, a number of consonants have two different sounds, yet are represented by the same letters. This applies to *SHIN*/*SIN*; as well as to *BEIT/VET; KAF/KHAF; PEI/FEI*, whereby the former letters have the strong sound at the beginning of a word or after a closed syllable. These phenomena often cause difficulties for students in moving between speaking and writing, resulting in incorrect spelling or pronunciation.

Like English, the Hebrew alphabet has two different sets of orthographic symbols: the print form, which is used in all printed materials (books, newspapers and keyboard typing); and the cursive form, which is used for handwriting. In contrast to English however, Hebrew has no distinction between upper case and lower case.

To sum up, the above discussion of the linguistic characteristics of Hebrew is by no means comprehensive. My purpose here has been simply to highlight some of the distinctive differences, in both the syntactic and morphological features and written conventions of both languages, which are most pertinent to the beginner-level instruction. As indicated earlier, the RIS program that has been adopted in the Australian university was developed around a grammatically structured syllabus. The discussion in this section has therefore also highlighted features relevant to a grammar-

based syllabus. My intention here was to provide a useful starting point for the detailed account of the case study findings, which I present in the following chapters.

4.4 Conclusion to Chapter 4

The major purpose of this chapter has been to provide contextual information relevant to the thesis's findings, which are addressed in more detail in the following two chapters. This contextual information has been provided in three ways:

- by providing a brief account of the history of teaching Hebrew within the university in which the case study was situated;
- by introducing the rationale and materials of the Hebrew program that underpins the case study;
- by providing a brief introduction to Hebrew as a language, highlighting issues in Hebrew that are especially relevant to beginner-level learners;

Of these three sections, the most significant for the thesis investigation has been the introduction and analysis of the Textbook's prescribed curriculum and the inferred principles that underpin the RIS curricula and pedagogy.

The key principles which seem from this analysis to be significant in the RIS program as a whole are as follows:

- sequencing of grammatical features as the major organizing principle of the curriculum (Chayat et al. 2000/2007; Kuzar 1990)
- 'what seems to work best' in the classroom (Textbook Writer)
- major focus on oral language development, but with use of reading and writing, and some visual support, to sustain this oral language development (Dahan 1995; Israeli 1992; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995; Susser 1995)
- an emphasis on learning language through using language (Israeli, 1992; Maman 1992; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995); while drawing it from the learners (Bliboim 1992; Dahan 1995; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995), often via conjecture/guessing (Farstei 1995; Kobliner 1992; Tishler 1995; Weyl 1992); yet some allowance for translation (Kobliner 1992)

- systematic and structured sequencing of activities, with introduction of new language items through a predictable three part structure consisting of a shift from closed to open activities (Baras 1995; Bliboim 1992; Israeli 1992; Weyl 1992)
- regular opportunities for students to practice new language via pair/group work (Farstei 1995; Israeli 1992; Rot 1995); as well as regular homework (Farstei 1995; Garson 1992; Israeli 1992; Meshler 1995; Skiva 1995; Weyl 1992)
- some emphasis on explicit rules of grammar, and on learning about language (Chayat et al. 2000/2007; Shlush Van-Dan Brook & Smally 2001)
- emphasis on importance of supportive classroom environment (Dahan 1995; (Farstei 1995; Israeli 1992; Meshler 1995; Rot 1995)

Understanding these principles is essential to the understanding of the case study itself. For this reason, I have argued that analysis of the RIS curricula and pedagogy constitutes the first level of analysis in this thesis.

As the chapter has shown, while the RIS curricula framework is organized around a grammatical spiral (Chayat et al. 2000/2007; Kuzar 1990), its aim is to develop learners' ability to use Hebrew and to communicate in it with other speakers. In this it appears to reflect the influence in particular of two major and different developments in the field of language teaching: the Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP model) commonly used in earlier structural approaches to language teaching (Cajkler & Addelman 2000/2012; Harmer 2007b; Larsen-Freeman 2009; Macaro 2005), as well as aspects of communicative language teaching (Howatt & Widdowson 2004; Littlewood 1981; Richards & Rogers 2001; Savignon 2000).

Although there is no evidence that the PPP model was well known to RIS authors, it appears likely that they were influenced by this model. RIS' praxis-based pedagogy with its three phases of teaching activities and its progression from closed to open activities (Israeli 1992), is clearly consistent with the principles of Presentation, Practice and Production that have had a pervasive influence on traditional approaches to language teaching (see for example, Larsen-Freeman 2009; Littlewood 1981). However, the emphasis within RIS of building in opportunities for students to practice and

improvise with the language, appear to reflect more recent versions of the PPP model. For example, in their articulation of the PPP model, Cajkler & Addelman's (2000/2012) explain:

> New language is introduced, then practiced in pre-communicative activities, before the learners make freer use of it in role-play, unpredictable situations, assignments and even spontaneous outbursts! …. The stages merge into one another and distinctions … often blur. To the stages listed, revision or re-cycling should be added as Stage 4. Revision may occur when the initial introduction fails to offer a guiding model to learners, while a presentation may be re-cycling of old language.
>
> Cajkler & Addelman (2000/2012, p. 33)

The sequencing of activities within units of RIS program are highly consistent with Cajkler & Addelman's (2000/2001, p. 35) explanation of gradual, diminishing support (GDS) where the Presentation stage is tightly controlled, with new language clearly and accurately modelled, with 'lots of gesture, mime and other visual support' (p. 35); followed by the Practice stage where 'the teacher prompts utterances and offers guidance' (p. 34); and where the Production stage emphasises 'effective communication… despite occasional imperfections of form' (p. 34); and students are corrected in a 'supportive, non-menacing way' (p. 33).

The emphasis within RIS on developing learners' abilities to use Hebrew and to communicate with other Hebrew speakers, also appear to reflect the influence of principles of communicative language teaching (Carter & Nunan 2001; Harmer 2007a, 2007b; Hedge 2000; Howatt & Widdowson 2004; Littlewood 1981; Richards & Rogers 2001; Savignon 2000). As argued in Chapter 2, there are considerable commonalities between practices commonly implemented in RIS' pedagogy and those widespread in CLT; including, specifically, the similarity between Israeli's (1992, p. 12) and Harmer's (2007a, p. 50) statements, which posit that the main goal of learning an L2 is the ability to use it and communicate in it, rather than learn about it.

In following chapters, which focus on the thesis findings, I investigate the ways in which these principles and assumptions were brought to life, and shaped the teaching and learning interactions in one beginner-level cohort. I also investigate ways in which the principles were modified and adapted.

Chapter 5
Second Level of Analysis: Case Study

Chapter 5 is the first of two chapters that address the case study of one Hebrew beginner-level cohort. Chapter 4 served to contextualize the case study, by analysing the RIS curriculum and pedagogy embedded in the beginner-level program of *The New Hebrew from Scratch - Part A* (Chayat, Kobliner & Israeli 2000/2007), this constituting the thesis' first level of analysis. Chapter 5 introduces the case study and thus moves on to the second level of analysis. The overall purpose of Chapter 5 is to investigate the ways in which the key RIS principles identified in Chapter 4 are brought to life in the classroom. The chapter asks how and to what extent, are the principles and practices enunciated in RIS publications evident in the case study; what additional features are distinctive to the case study; how are these evident; and how do these various features impact on the overall success of the case study's program. The chapter first provides an overview of the case study program, its participants, resources, and typical structure of lessons; it then looks more closely at the nature of classroom interactions within the case study through analysis of Week 4 Lesson.

In Chapter 6 the case study is extended through a more detailed analysis of a select number of follow up Focus Lessons. The analysis of these Focus Lessons constitutes the thesis' third level of analysis. As indicated earlier, both Chapters 5 and 6 draw on the following data:

- lesson observations and audio and video recordings
- initial students' questionnaire
- interview and informal discussions with case study teacher
- course information and teaching resources relevant to observation lessons

Together these two chapters investigate the first two research questions of the thesis.

Chapter 5 is organized as follows:

Section 5.1 introduces the case study: The purpose of this section is to familiarize the reader with details of the case study program and to provide a basis for identifying key principles that shape the nature of classroom interaction within the local beginner-level

Hebrew program. This section provides details of the teacher and students who participated in the case study; it presents the teacher's pedagogical beliefs; the case study program's aims, curriculum content, and resources; and provides an overview of typical patterns of lessons. This section draws on examples from across all the collected data.

Section 5.2 presents analysis of the first lesson observed, which took place in Week 4 of semester. The purpose of this section is to investigate at a deeper level the ways in which the key RIS principles identified in Chapter 4 were enacted in the lived curriculum. Analysis of this Week 4 Lesson therefore provides insights into selection and sequencing of classroom activities and patterns of interaction that were typical of other lessons.

Section 5.3 makes an explicit comparison between the key RIS features identified in Chapter 4 and those that emerge from the second level of analysis presented in this chapter.

5.1 Introduction to the case study program

As explained in Chapter 4, the Hebrew Program at my university is based on the RIS curricula developed at the Hebrew University, Jerusalem. One factor in deciding to embrace a RIS-based program is the School's longstanding status and reputation as a leading force in THAL; the pedagogic experience of its teaching-staff; the quality of the instructional materials it has produced over the years; and the vast accumulated experience resulting from its large intake of foreign students over many years. Thus, in taking the decision to adopt the RIS curricula, the small Australian Modern Hebrew Program set to position itself within a larger, well established, and highly regarded educational framework.

Although the broad decision to adopt the RIS curricula has been adhered to across all levels in the local Program, its implementation has necessarily required some adaptation. As explained in Chapter 4, the RIS programs were developed in the context of teaching and learning Hebrew in Israel as a second language (Blum 1971; Chayat et al. 2000/2007; Bliboim 2011). There, Hebrew is taught in a Hebrew-speaking environment, and students are surrounded by the language and its culture both within

and beyond their formal lessons. At RIS, each level of Hebrew is taught intensively, with students attending lessons for an average of 25 hours per week. In contrast, in Australia Hebrew is an additional language, with students primarily encountering the language in their weekly lessons; and it takes much longer to complete the RIS instruction levels. Locally, the RIS curricula had to be organized to fit within the three undergraduate years of a language major, which requires the subject specific completion of six senior units of study. The local Modern Hebrew Program is 'semesterized,' offering a total of 12 units of study and providing students with varied entry levels. This means that in Australia teaching and learning progresses at a much slower pace than in Israel, with the local beginner-level taught over four semesters, each additional RIS level is taught over two semesters, and the final instructional level, *RAMA VAV*, not offered in the Australian context. Finally, classes at all levels are taught over four teaching hours a week over 13 weeks of semester.

5.1.1 Case study participants

The participants in the case study consisted of ten students and their teacher.

The students

The cohort included seven female students and three male students. Eight were local, and two were international students. Four were in the 18-19 age-category; three in the 20-25 age-category; and three in the 26-36 age-category. All were beginner learners. Six students reported that they were studying Hebrew as part of their undergraduate degree; two as part of their Honours/Master degree, and two as part of their Doctoral degree. All the students stated that they had a high level of proficiency in English: of these, six identified English as their L1 (Eliza, Tal, Sarah, Ethel, Mic, and Tami); two stated that they were near-native English speakers (Hanna, Mike); and two that their English was at an advanced level. (Tony, Lucy). Consequently, English is regarded as L1 in this study. Finally, knowledge of a range of other languages and proficiency levels was reported: L1 Korean (Hanna), French (Lucy), Chinese (Tony), and Arabic (Mike); L2 French (Tal, Tami; both beginner-level), L2 German (Eliza), and L2 Italian (Mic).

The students reported a variety of reasons for studying Hebrew. Half had chosen to study the language as a degree requirement, while the other half reported that knowledge of the language would be beneficial to their post-graduate research projects. Additionally, some chose to study Hebrew because of family background (a Hebrew-speaking parent or other family members and/or Jewish background). Most students described their general motive for learning the language as a desire to communicate with other people who speak it. They also reported longer-term goals, which could be categorized as either personal or academic. Personal goals included: a desire to communicate in the language with family and/or friends; a desire to acknowledge their Jewish heritage; a desire to travel to Israel and to be able to communicate with Israelis. Academic goals included: learning the language for research purposes, and learning it in order to extend cultural understanding.

The teacher's educational philosophy

The teacher in the case study is a native speaker of Hebrew who is also very fluent in English. He received his teacher training at RIS, and has since taught there for many years, yet only in the advanced levels. His long and varied experience of teaching L2 Hebrew includes teaching in a number of academic institutions in Israel, as well as in several academic locations and contexts outside of Israel, including countries of the former Soviet Union. He specializes in teaching advanced levels, and in 2010 published a textbook for the RIS lower-advanced level. He testified that he has vast experience in teaching the language in general, and close familiarity with the RIS curricula and pedagogy, yet that teaching in Australia was his first experience of teaching at beginner-level.

As indicated, at the time of the data collection, the teacher taught the case study cohort as part of his role as a visiting scholar from the Hebrew University, Jerusalem. Nonetheless, he was required to adhere to the Australian university's guidelines, and adapt his teaching to the local context and learning requirements.

In his interview, and in our on-going discussions, the teacher spoke at some length about his rationale for teaching, and the principles that guided his pedagogical practices. Not surprisingly, given his expertise in and experience with RIS' pedagogy, his

teaching philosophy was broadly consistent with the principles that underpin RIS' programs. Key features that were explicitly highlighted in his interview included:

1. An emphasis on learning language through using language within a Hebrew environment

The teacher consistently emphasized the importance of learning language through using it, as well as being immersed in the target language during lessons. He described this as follows:

> I want a Hebrew environment, so that they [students] feel the logic of the language, and therefore [this can only be done via[12]] Hebrew. … My opinion is that they need to speak, it's important to speak and ['warm up sessions'] are a means for speaking. That is, you [students] don't recite a dialogue from the text, but something specific, they can choose what to speak about and slowly, slowly it [their speech] also improves…and once they speak you also see them smiling and the atmosphere becomes pleasant.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

Despite the importance he attached to using Hebrew in all activities, he did acknowledge the need to be flexible, and if necessary to allow some use of English to facilitate teaching and learning:

> Even so, I think it is silly to give up English explanations if these strengthen [students'] understanding and confirm what they think.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

And later in the interview, he stated:

> Once again, I want them to speak, I want the atmosphere to be a Hebrew one, I want them to feel the logic of the language and this needs to be in Hebrew. … But I think it will be foolish to refrain from explanations in English if this can strengthen their understanding, or verify what they think, if all are English speakers. It's a pity [not to use English].
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

He described the benefits of this kind of flexibility, that is, of emphasizing the use of target language while allowing some flexibility in use of students' L1, as follows:

[12] All additions in square brackets are mine.

> And the nice thing about aleph [case study cohort] is that although I did not refrain from explanations in English, and they saw that they can communicate with me in English, they understood on their own, without me setting explicit rules or stating so, that in the class [we] speak in Hebrew; and even if I give an explanation in English, it doesn't mean that they can then speak to me in English. They go back to Hebrew. And there was a nice agreement between us that if there is a relevant grammar question they can ask me. That is they understood the balance between Hebrew and English. And it was very nice; without me needing to state this from the beginning.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

2. Systematic and predictable structuring of lessons

The teacher consistently emphasized the importance of the systematic and predictable structuring of lessons:

> I think that from the perspective of what to expect from the lesson and entering the frame of mind of how we [at RIS] learn it's rather systematic. It's systematic and repetitive. They [students] know what to expect and they enter this framework and they know how it works and I feel that they are more with me. … I feel that it helps them that it's so systematic what we do and they know what my examples will be and how I move from one thing to the next and the order of things and the order of the lesson.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

He placed high priority on the need for cohesiveness both within and between lessons:

> It is important for me in all lessons in every level [of instruction] that the lesson will be coherent, that it will be something rounded, that it will be closed. Aesthetically it is important for me, and it is important didactically, it is more correct in my opinion… This cohesiveness is important for me and it links me to the previous lesson, there is a continuation between things.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

He also emphasized the importance of working from closed to open activities within the one lesson, and of actively engaging students in their own learning processes:

> RIS' philosophy is to draw [language] from the students gradually, and the order of activity is from close, to open, to drilling, all in the correct doses, thus creating a logical

> and correct picture. Therefore, [teaching is] not through lecturing, but students are active participants.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

3. An emphasis on learning about language

Although adhering strongly to the RIS principle of learning language through using language, the teacher also placed importance on learning about the language. He aimed for students to progressively develop an understanding of the 'logic' of the language:

> Students need to understand the logic of the language and we need to encourage them to see this logic on their own. That is, not to give explanations, but to include them in the understanding process and activate their receptors to work and accept that. And the explanation will not come before the modelling. First of all there will be modelling and it is something tangible which is already half [way to] understanding. And then the explanations come to reinforce and strengthen the understanding. … Additionally, at times [explanations] also organize things [students' understanding] better, more accurately, and ease [the processes of] internalization and understanding. Once I teach them to use the logic 'that understanding comes from them' they continue to work [learn] that way.
>
> Students need to understand the logic of the language and I want them to understand that logic… there is a reason; there is an explanation; not to function out of intuition but with understanding. I am a logical person and I want things to be logical and I want them to act according to logic, not according to feeling; not because they were told, not because this is the rule, but there is something that links between things; a certain logic. Language functions according to something [logic] and this you need to know. Therefore I encourage them all the time [so] that later on they will be able to apply [logic] to other things [language] that they will encounter. They also enjoy seeing that [logic]; you see that they enjoy that.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

4. Opportunities for practice

In line with RIS principles, the teacher recognized the importance of providing opportunities for students to practice their use of language.

> Yes, I'm aware of it [repetition]. Firstly, I do this intentionally, especially as [a result] of [past] experience that it is needed, especially in the lower [beginner] levels when it is yet not automatic for them to hear and understand what I'm saying, and at times I also speak quickly. And often they ask 'what?', 'where?' and you can see that even if I repeat eight times there will be someone who will ask 'where?', 'where?' and 'what?'. So due to [past] experience I do it [repeat] and I'm aware of this and do it on purpose. And there are things that you repeat and repeat and the more they hear it they absorb it better. So I know that at the beginners' level there is value in it [repetition] and students have also attested to this.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

5. An emphasis on the nature of the learning environment

A further principle that was articulated in the teacher's interview was the importance of a friendly classroom environment:

> I don't like to enter the classroom and immediately begin teaching the material. Rather, I want to warm them up, like you have a warm-up before you begin running or training at the gym. In my opinion such warm-ups help the students enter a learning environment; and also for a pleasant environment, to create a pleasant environment, to break the, not ice, as there is no ice, but you know what I mean, to relax the mouth's muscles, to speak.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

The principles articulated by the teacher were highly consistent with those identified in Chapter 4 in the analysis of the RIS resources. As suggested earlier, given the teacher's background and experience, the consistency between RIS principles and the teacher's is not surprising. However, in his interview the teacher also provided evidence that he was prepared to be flexible. This was evident in his statements about the practical value of using English in his lessons as a way of clarifying students' understandings. It was also evident in his comments about the importance of working with interesting and stimulating teaching and learning materials:

> [It is] really difficult for me to teach things that don't interest me. I hate, really hate to teach if [the content] does not interest me. It is unjust and unfair and therefore I will try to refrain from teaching [it]. Even so, experience has taught me to modify materials and enabled me to present them in a friendlier manner. I try and place myself in their

> [students'] position and check if something works for me. I believe that things [materials] that I love I will teach better and if I'm motivated I will pass this on to them.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

5.1.2 Overall goals and curriculum content of the case study program

In accordance with university requirements, students in all courses are provided with an outline of the subject – a Unit of Study overview. As one would expect, this overview sets out all the unit requirements for the students, including information relating to Faculty policy, such as special consideration and late work, as well as the specific departmental and subject policies. It also includes Unit aims, general outcomes, and a summary of content and assessment requirements. At the beginning of each semester, all students receive a copy of this, and a copy is also placed on the Australian university's internal Beginner Hebrew eLearning site.

The Unit of Study provides the following overview of the beginner-level:

> This unit provides an introduction to Modern Hebrew. It is intended for students who have little or no previous knowledge and practice of the language. The unit fosters the development of oral communication skills relating to everyday topics. It includes learning the Hebrew alphabet and basic reading and writing skills as well as the introduction of basic vocabulary and language functions.
>
> Gilead (2008, p.1)

The Objectives and outcomes for the case study program followed the Textbook's curriculum units adhering closely to the Textbook's organizing principles and teaching and learning activities, with the pace of the number of classroom lessons' completion of each unit-of-work varying. The Unit of Study outline listed the week-by-week curriculum content that was to be studied. It included learning the Hebrew alphabet and basic literacy; acquiring basic vocabulary and language patterns in order to perform simple everyday tasks such as introducing oneself; greeting people; giving simple descriptions and making simple requests.

Assessment requirements consist of: a mid-semester exam (30%); a final exam (35%); and a continuous assessment element (35%) that includes a self-study assignment component. The high weighting of the assignment component is based on my belief that

self-study provides students with opportunities to reinforce the language learning in a more private domain and also creates opportunities for additional practice.

The documentation of Objectives and Curriculum Content in the Unit Outline shows that at least at a broad overall level, the case study program adhered closely to the organizing principles evident in the RIS curricula, and to sequences of teaching outlined in the Textbook. In particular, the Unit of Study Outline shows that grammatical sequencing formed the major organizing principle of the curriculum content in the case study program. This was evident both in objectives and also in the weekly sequencing of curriculum content. The principle is consistent with a key RIS principle that language learning should be sequenced around the introduction of specific grammatical structures.

5.1.3 Resources used in case study program

As indicated above, all students were given a copy of the Unit of Study Outline. They were required to purchase the Textbook, as well as an internal booklet titled *The Hebrew Alphabet*. This *Alphabet* booklet is based on a literacy methodology devised by an Israeli academic (Harussi 1993), which follows the traditional order of the Hebrew alphabet. I have modified Harussi's overall system not just to coincide with alphabetical order but to include the language introduced in the Textbook's first seven units-of-work. This *Alphabet* booklet is used in the first weeks of semester as I believe it offers a more organized and systematic method of teaching the reading and writing of the Hebrew alphabet, than the method used in the Textbook. In addition, students are encouraged to purchase the bi-lingual dictionary *Rav Milon* (Lauden & Weinbach 1993), compiled by academics from Tel Aviv University, which is particularly suitable for L2 learners.

Another source available is the locally developed Modern Hebrew eLearning site, which provides a 'one-stop shop' that holds further resources. These include a digitized version of *Ma Nishma* (Kobliner & Simons 1995), produced originally as audio-tapes to accompany the 1990 edition of *Hebrew from Scratch*, which in 2003 was digitized by the Australian university and installed on the local Beginners Hebrew eLearning site, thus enabling local students to undertake further self-study of the language in flexible locations between the formal classes. Also available on the eLearning site are audio discs to *The New Hebrew from Scratch* (*Parts A* and *B*). Finally, the site also includes

other locally developed materials that provide students with opportunities both to use the language, and to learn about it (Gilead 2006). All these resources are listed in the Unit of Study Information provided to students at the start of semester.

In sum, the following RIS materials were used in the case study program:

Table 5.1: Data resources

Case study resources for beginner students and teacher	**RIS resources for beginner students and their teachers**
Unit of Study Information and Outline	
The Hebrew Alphabet (produced locally)	
The New Hebrew from Scratch- Part A and its accompanied CD	*The New Hebrew from Scratch-Part A* and its accompanied CD
Digitized version of the *Ma Nishma* (Kobliner & Simons 1995) program	*Ma Nishma* (Kobliner & Simons 1995) audio program
Dagesh teacher-training video-kits	*Dagesh* teacher-training video-kits
The bi-lingual dictionary *Rav Milon*	
Additional locally developed digital materials	
Additional teacher resources: games, activities, etc.	

As can be seen from Table 5.1, the selection of resources in the case study program indicates some modifications to the RIS resources. The RIS-based Textbook and accompanying CD, as well as the *Ma Nishma* program, figure centrally in the local program, but in his interview the teacher referred to the need to adapt materials to ensure they were of interest to students. His choice of resources confirms his willingness to work flexibly with the RIS program, and provides evidence that he supplemented the RIS resources with both his own and locally-developed resources. This was done in response to the Australian university's guidelines and his own preferences in teaching.

5.1.4 Establishing the classroom learning environment:

A number of key RIS principles were evident in the case study classroom interactions from the first day of teaching. Here, the teacher worked to establish clear expectations and patterns of interactions but within a friendly learning environment. Although not recorded, the first lesson was observed and the following notes capture my observations.

Entering the classroom for the first time, the teacher walked into the room and immediately commenced the lesson by introducing himself: '*SHALOM ANI T (Hello*

I'm T)'[13] (giving his first name only). After repeating this utterance several times, whilst accompanying his speech whilst pointing to himself, the teacher pointed to each of the students and, respectively, asked '*AT* (*you* {f.s})*?*' and '*ATA* (*you* {m.s})*?*'. In doing so the teacher established at the outset the norm of a Hebrew environment: of using Hebrew as the primary mode of classroom interactions, and as the main means of learning the language. He also established the practice of discursive dialogue, in which students were expected to be active participants. The mode of interaction was also established in that first lesson, when the teacher encouraged the students to address him by his first name, thereby paving the way for a cooperative and interactive classroom dynamic within a friendly atmosphere.

Rhythm and timing of lessons, and expectations of students' conduct, were also established in the first lesson. The case study's two-hour twice-weekly meetings were held on Tuesday and Thursdays. Typically, students entered the classroom and chose their seats independently, whilst exchanging greetings and short conversations with one another. Initially, these brief greetings were carried out in English but as the semester progressed, students added Hebrew greetings to their respective exchanges, before switching to English to continue with their conversations. As the teacher entered the room he typically greeted the whole cohort by asking '*SHALOM MA NISHMA?* (*Hello. how's things?*)' He then repeated the question and addressed individual students by name. On occasions, and whilst waiting for late-comers, he spent the first few minutes conversing with the students who were present in a mixture of Hebrew and English.

Adhering to the local procedures, students were allowed a short five-minute break half way through the two-hour session. During that time, they typically reverted to English in their interactions with each other. At the end of the lesson, there was no particular pattern of exiting the classroom. Typically, students packed up their gear whilst chatting to each other mainly in English. There were instances where individual students approached the teacher to ask a range of clarifying question, again mostly using English. The informal atmosphere that was evident as students moved in and out of class contributed to an overall friendly and supportive learning environment. Nonetheless, in the first weeks of semester, the teacher established very clear

[13] Note that in this and following examples, Hebrew examples are transliterated in uppercase italics, while the English gloss is given in lowercase italics.

expectations that students would be punctual, and would actively participate during lessons.

From the first classroom encounters, a pattern of language learning and social behavioural norms was established, which typified the interactional relations governing this 'community of practice' (Lave & Wenger 1991). While the ways in which the classroom atmosphere was established were specific to this teacher and student-cohort, the implicit acknowledgment by the teacher of the importance of a positive and supportive learning environment is consistent with RIS principles.

5.1.5 Typical structure of lessons

Class observations showed that lessons were structured in ways that were consistent and predictable. This predictability created a systematic and consistent pattern so that students had a fair idea of how the teaching and learning would proceed and what to expect. Since instruction closely followed the Textbook, students knew where they are up to, and where they are going. This resulted in both a predictable order of the introduction of new language, and a recursive pattern of classroom interactions. This provided students with opportunities for systematic revision of previous work and practice of new language. The typical pattern of lessons can be summarized as follows:

Table 5.2: Summary of lesson structure

Sequence	**Function of Stage**	**Description of activities**
Stage 1 Opening approx. 5-20 minutes	**Introduction to lesson** **Greeting** **Warm-up**: via IRF-exchange moves and/or **Consolidation** of use (previous work): via IRF exchange/discussion	Easing into the lesson friendly and informal interactions that enabled students to consolidate and practice language that had been introduced in prior lessons
Stage 2 Core language activity approx. 1.5 hours	**Teaching of relevant language items**: based on Units within the Textbook. This included one or more of the following: **New vocabulary** and / or **New language feature** (vocabulary and grammatical structure) and / or **Text reading / dialogues**	Each activity typically had its own internal structure of: **Phase 1:** activity initiation – introduction / modelling of L2 **Phase 2:** handover to students for task completion **Phase 3**: activity wrap-up
Stage 3 Closure approx. 5 minutes	**Closure** Finishing off activities and/ or Summarizing learning Giving self-study (homework)	Wrap-up of lesson and giving self-study (homework)

Summary of Stages

Stage 1 – Opening: greeting, warm-up

Lessons typically began with the teacher uttering the greeting *SHALOM MA NISHMA?* (*Hello, how's things?*), followed by a Warm-up session, which, while teacher initiated and directed, was essentially learner focused. Indeed the Warm-up activity's main purpose was to provide students with a forum where they could freely and independently use Hebrew. The teacher commonly introduced a question relating to students' personal experiences, with the most common question relating to their activities on the preceding weekend. This type of activity, which the teacher referred to as *ĤIMOUM* (*warm up*), helped ease the students into the lesson.

Whilst both Tuesdays' and Thursdays' Warm-up sessions were used to consolidate students' usage of recently introduced language, they differed in duration and focus. Tuesdays' Warm-up sessions were longer (usually between 15-20 minutes), and while the questions posed by the teacher did relate to the focus of the relevant lesson, and thus in turn to the Textbook's prescribed curriculum, students were free to choose the content of their responses. The typical question for most of Tuesdays' Warm ups was '*MA ATEM OSIM BE'-SOF SHAVOU'A?*' (*What are you doing on the weekend?),* which utilizes the present tense verb *OSIM* (*do/doing*), rather than the past tense, as at this stage students were only acquainted with present tense.

Thursdays' lessons typically began with a Warm-up activity as well, although it was shorter (five to ten minutes), and usually more specifically geared at consolidating students' usage of and knowledge about the language. In these Warm-ups, students were provided with feedback on various grammatical and syntactical features recently introduced. This feedback type of activity provided opportunities for students to clarify understanding and consolidate their learning. As well, it provided the teacher with opportunities to offer more explicit explanations regarding the usage of the language.

Stage 2 – Core Activity: progressive and sequential teaching-learning activities

Following the Warm-up sessions, the teacher typically initiated a series of teaching and learning activities which occupied the main portion of each lesson. This constituted the 'Core Activity Stage', and included one or more of three types of activities: (i)

introduction of new vocabulary; (ii) introduction of a new language structure; and (iii) text reading for understanding. Typically during Stage 2's Core Activities, classroom interaction were carried out in Hebrew, thus providing evidence that the teacher actively worked with the principle of using the language as the main means of teaching and learning it.

Introduction of new language

The teacher introduced new language by using and modelling it in his speech. Most often he launched directly into the new topic (drawn from the Textbook), in which he used the new language, without advising the students that he was about to do so. In the early stages of the semester this caused some confusion amongst the students, but they quickly got used to this instructional technique. Significantly, the new and unknown language was always presented within a familiar context, whether from a cultural or a target language perspective. Thus, the teacher used the known context or language as a 'hook' to introduce new items (van Lier 2000, 2004). A good example of this occurred in Week 6 of semester where the teacher introduced the Hebrew verb *OHEV.* This one Hebrew verb corresponds to two different meanings in English: *love* and *like*. The teacher built on the students' familiarity with the story of Romeo and Juliet to introduce the meaning of *OHEV* as love (*Romeo loves Juliet*). Subsequently, he built on their understanding of the known items of ice-cream and chocolate present the meaning of *OHEV* as like (*I love/like ice-cream*); thus, making the point that the two English meanings are represented in Hebrew by the same vocabulary item. By 'hooking' the new language to what was already familiar, the teacher was able to conduct this section of the lesson totally in Hebrew. The technique used in this example was typical of many other instances in the observed lessons as discussed in Chapter 6.

Introduction of new grammatical feature

The second typical activity-type focused on the introduction of new grammatical features. The teacher's technique of introducing these followed the same pattern as his introduction of new language. That is, the teacher initiated and led the new activity, using the language to model it, whilst progressively handing over the discursive activity to the students.

A typical example of this was evident towards the end of semester. By this time the students were very familiar with the process whereby new language was used, either modelled in the teacher's speech or included in questions he posed. The teacher introduced the three Hebrew demonstrative pronouns (which form nominal sentences that don't require the verb 'be'): *HA-ZE'* {m.s} (*this*), *HA-ZOT* {f.s} (*this*), and *HA-ELE'* {m&f.pl} (*these*). As discussed in Chapter 4, following Hebrew's conventions of gender and number agreement, these demonstrative pronouns agree with the nouns they specify. In introducing these pronouns, the teacher worked with language that was already familiar to the students (*book, apartment, students, new, old*) to engage them in discussion. As he did so, he introduced the new pronouns in ways that emphasized and clarified their agreement in gender and number with the respective nouns they specified. Through the classroom discussion and usage of these demonstrative pronouns, and via a series of IRF interactions, the pronouns were both introduced to, and used by, the students. This activity was primarily conducted in Hebrew, although significantly at a couple of points the teacher used the English words 'masculine' or 'feminine' to reinforce or clarify a point he was making about demonstrative pronouns' agreement conventions

Text: reading for understanding

The third typical activity-type focused on reading and understanding short written texts. The purpose of this activity was to reinforce recently introduced language and through it also enrich students' historical and cultural knowledge. Typically prior to beginning reading, the teacher asked one or two leading questions pertaining to the information in each paragraph of the text, after which either he or one of the students read the portion out loud, or alternatively all students silently read the paragraph to themselves. Following the reading, the cohort worked together in answering questions, in such a way that the text was unfolded progressively and its meaning understood. An example of this reading for understanding activity occurred in Week 10 lesson. Here, students were asked to read a dialogue from the Textbooks (p. 120) titled *GAM VE-GAM* (*also and also*) which is the first relatively substantial text (for beginner learners) introduced in the Textbook. It focused on four language items: The first item was an impersonal structure which literally translated as '*how walking* {m.pl} *to the Israel museum*?'

(*EIKH HOLKHIM LE'-MOUZE'ON ISRAEL?)*, or in more regular English, '*how does one walk to the Israel museum*?'. The second item focused on the difference between the previously introduced and thus known verb *HOLEKH* (*walk)*, and the new verb *NOSE'A* (*travel*). The third and fourth items were the new verb *MEVIN* (*understand*) and the expression *MA ZOT OMERET?* (*what does this mean?).* It is important to point out that this reading for understanding activity was built on prior learning: the verb *HOLEKH* (*walk)* had been introduced in Week 4 Lesson (discussed below in Section 5.2.2); and the Hebrew impersonal structure, which had been introduced in the previous lesson, was consolidated in the opening Warm-up activity.

Following a short playful interaction about the meaning of the dialogue's heading, *also and also*, the teacher read part of the dialogue out loud, and then asked some questions to ensure comprehension, before reading the remainder of the dialogue and asking further questions. At certain points in the interaction, the teacher included some words in English, and towards the end of the Activity he switched completely to English when instructing students to write their own ending to the dialogue as a self-study task. Again, this provides evidence of the strategic use of English to both ensure understanding and move the lesson along.

Some combination of these three major teaching and learning activity types – introduction of new vocabulary, introduction of new grammatical features, and text reading – occurred in all observed lessons. Most often, between three and four Core Activities occurred in the one lesson, and hence there was a recursive sequence within Stage 2 of lessons.

Stage 3 – Closure: lesson wrap-up and self-study assignments

The third and final stage of lessons was a short Closure. Here the structure was less predictable. Frequently, lessons came to a close with the teacher wrapping up the last Core Activity toward the end of the two-hour session. At this time he also explained the required self-study tasks whilst providing exemplifications, typically this was done in a mixture of Hebrew and English. Frequently the self-study tasks consisted of completion of exercises from the Textbook. In addition, students were regularly required to complete the correlating unit in the *Ma Nishma* program. Finally, if the Core Activity was completed several minutes before a lesson ended, the teacher would converse with

the students in a similar fashion to the Warm-up exchange conducted at the beginning of lessons.

5.1.6 Conclusion

This first section of Chapter 5 has provided details of the case study program and participants. It presented the instructional aims, curriculum content, and resources, the teacher's pedagogical beliefs, and outlined the typicality of lessons' patterns, drawing on examples from across the collected data. This discussion demonstrates that the different educational contexts of the RIS-based beginners' program and the Australian beginners' program resulted in some differences. At RIS, students attend many hours of language instruction each week, and their language learning is reinforced by interactions with other Hebrew speakers beyond their classes. In Australia, students' major contact with the language occurs during lessons, with some limited self-study follow-up. As a result, learning the language is necessarily slower.

Despite the different contexts of learning, the principles informing the case study program are largely consistent with those underpinning the RIS curriculum. From the teacher's interview and discussions, and also from my classroom observation and recording, it was clear that the teacher adhered closely to a number of key RIS principles. These included: a grammatically structured curriculum; an emphasis on learning language through using the language; providing systematic and predictable structuring of lessons; and building-in opportunities for students to practice new language. In addition, it was apparent that the teacher consciously worked to create a positive and friendly learning environment where students were prepared to be actively involved in classroom discussions, and take risks, but where it was made clear what was expected of them – again consistent with RIS principles. However, there was some evidence that the teacher was prepared to work flexibly with these principles. While working primarily from the Textbook, he also used a range of his own materials to sustain the students' and his own, interest in classroom activities, and he was prepared to use English at key points in lessons to save time and to clarify understandings. He structured lessons in ways that provided open interactions with students (primarily in the Warm-up sessions) before beginning the more formal part of instruction.

While there were some modifications of the RIS program that resulted from different educational contexts and also some modifications that could be traced to the preferences and teaching style of the case study teacher, the overall key principles were consistent with the RIS principles. The overall approach to teaching in the case study could be described as grammatically structured, with a strong communicative overlay.

At this point, I turn to a more detailed account of one lesson to look more closely at patterns of interaction particularly in the Core Activities of that lesson.

5.2 Analysis of one lesson: structure and patterns of classroom interaction

The previous section has shown that, while there were some modifications of key RIS principles in the case study, broadly those principles were adhered to in overall curriculum organization, in structuring lessons and sequencing activities, and in actual teaching. In Section 2, my purpose is to investigate in more detail the ways in which these principles were brought to life in the classroom. This section therefore also addresses the thesis' second research question (Section 1.5).

This section of the chapter presents the analysis of Week 4 Lesson, which was the first lesson observed and recorded. By Week 4, students were reasonably familiar with typical patterns of classroom interaction. They were also becoming familiar with the ways in which the teacher introduced new language, and with his expectation that the majority of the lesson would be conducted in Hebrew. Thus, the Week 4 Lesson was selected for analysis because it allowed sufficient time for students to have become familiar with the typical teaching and learning patterns, and the culture of the classroom. Additionally, in selecting to present a close analysis of a lesson from an early part of the semester, and following it with the analysis of lessons from the later part of the semester, I am able to follow up the development of this cohort's classroom-based interactions.

5.2.1 Week 4 Lesson: Structure of Stages and Phases

As indicated, the case study lessons had a predictable structure, which comprised of a short Warm-up section (Stage 1 - Opening), a longer activities section (Stage 2 - Core

Activities), and a short wrap-up section (Stage 3 - Closure). The Week 4 Lesson was typical of the case study's other lessons in following this structure. However, the actual instruction of new language on that day was shorter than usual, since at the beginning of the lesson students were introduced to the locally developed eLearning site, and the digitized version of the *Ma Nishma* (Kobliner & Simons 1995) program, which they were be required to access during the semester in order to complete the required self-study tasks.

In what follows, I draw on Christie's (2002) notions of curriculum genre and macrogenres to tease out the typical structure of the case study's lessons in further detail. This enables me to highlight the overall generic structure of lessons, as well as the relationship between Core Activities within Stage 2 of lessons. It also enables me to highlight the three Phase structure within each Core Activity.

Above (Section 3.3.2) I discussed the significance of Christie's notion of curriculum genres and macrogenre for conceptualizing and theorizing the case study's discursive activities and classroom interactions. I argued there, that although developed in different educational contexts, Christie's prototypes of curriculum 'linear macrogenre' and 'orbital', or 'satellite macrogenre' are relevant for understanding sequencing between lessons and within lessons in the context of language teaching.

In this case study, the relationship between the lessons can be described as linear, in that each lesson builds progressively on the lesson preceding it, while concurrently forming the foundations for lessons following it, allowing usage and knowledge of the L2 to accumulate progressively. However within the Stage 2 Core Activities, the structure is different: here the relationship can best be described as orbital, in the sense that Core Activities do not progressively build one on the other, but rather each is orbitally related to the specific core language that is the focus of the lesson. Christie notes that a feature of orbital curriculum structures is the fact that sequences are interchangeable. In the case study lessons, as Activities are generally sequenced from those which are more structured and closed to those which enable a more open participation from students, this is not quite the case. Nevertheless, because Activities relate to core language patterns rather than to each other, the notion of an orbital curriculum structure remains

relevant for analysis of lessons. This orbital structure is summarized in a diagrammatic representation of Week 4 Lesson in Figure 5.1.

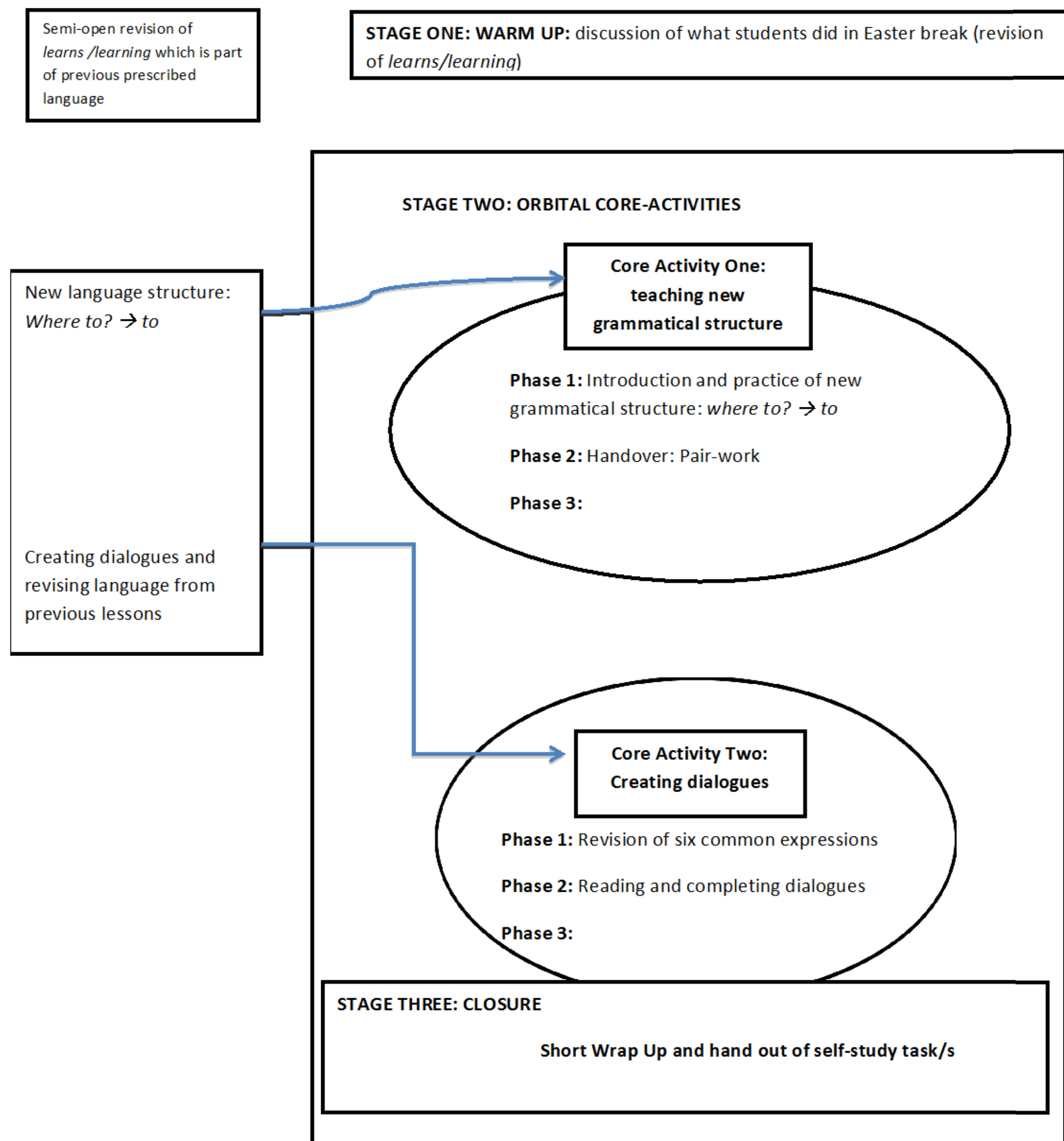


Figure 5.1: Diagrammatic representation of Week 4 Lesson

Figure 5.1 presents a diagrammatic overview of the Week 4 Lesson. It began with a short Warm-up session (Stage 1). After an exchange of greetings (*how's things?*) the teacher posed the question *'Mike, did you study Hebrew over Easter?'* He used this question to begin eliciting responses from students about their activities during the Easter break. The short question and answer sequence was informal, friendly and at times humorous, but reinforced students' usage of the four forms of the verb *LOMED* (*learn*) as well as previously prescribed language (teaching and learning points of previous lessons). This exchange was carried out in Hebrew, and, as students had not as yet learned past tense, it utilized present tense. This Stage 1 lasted approximately five minutes.

The Lesson then moved on to Stage 2, which consisted of two Core Activities. The first of these focused on teaching the grammatical structure '*LE'AN? ->LE'…* ('*where to?-> to…'*; pp. 47-48 in the Textbook). It is important to point out that the Hebrew verb *HOLKH*, which simultaneously denotes *walk* and *go*, has not been introduced as yet. Thus, this renders the Hebrew structure '*LE'AN? ->LE'…* ('*where to?-> to…*') somewhat obscure. In the Textbook this structure is built around the requirement to create question & answer sequences based on the illustrations. Thus, the required questions & answers (all devoid of the verb *HOLKH* (*walk/go*)) are, to use just the English glosses:

Where to the backpackers? ->They to Kenya;
Where to the man and woman? ->They to a concert;
Where to kids? ->They to Disneyland;

As Figure 5 shows, this Activity had a recursive Three-Phase schematic structure of introduction/modelling of new language (Phase 1); handover to student (Phase 2); and (minimal) wrap-up (Phase 1). In this, it was typical of other lessons where new language was introduced. This Activity lasted approximately twenty-five minutes.

The second Activity (Textbook, p. 49), focused on creating dialogues using common expressions such as *SLIĤA* (*sorry*)*; TODA* (*thanks*)*; NAIM ME'OD* (*very nice [to meet you*])*; MA NISHMA?* (*how's things?*). The purpose of this Activity was to provide students with opportunities to draw on the known common expressions to create new meanings, aided by illustrations in the Textbook, and were required to add appropriate

words to the complete short written dialogues. Phases of the Activity included: initial practice of the common expressions (Phase 1); followed by modelling and collaborative reading of dialogues by the teacher and students with progressive handover to students (Phase 2). There was no Phase 3 in this Activity. The Activity as a whole lasted approximately ten minutes.

In this lesson, there was a minimal Wrap-up (Stage 3). Activity 2 and the Lesson as a whole concluded briefly with directions from the teacher regarding self-study, and a very short humorous exchange about the 'mobile rule punishment' (of bringing a cake to the next lesson; discussed in Section 6.2.7) for one student (Lucy) whose mobile phone had rung during the lesson.

The overview of Week 4 Lesson provides further evidence that the teacher worked with key RIS principles. This lesson, like others, had a predictable and clear structure, it was based around the introduction and practice of specific vocabulary and grammatical items, and exchanges between teacher and students took place primarily in Hebrew, although there was also strategic use of English by both. However, a closer look at the nature of interactions between teacher and students suggests that more was going on. I turn now to a more detailed account, but due to limitations of space, I focus just on the Stage 2 Core Activities where the major teaching and learning of the Lesson took place.

5.2.2 Core Activities in Week 4 Lesson

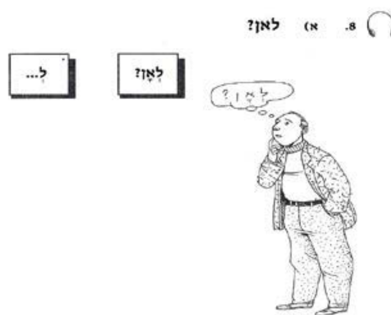
As indicated, there were two Core Activities in the Week 4 Lesson: one which introduced a new grammatical structure, and another which provided students with opportunities to draw on their previously acquired knowledge of some common Hebrew expressions to create new meanings. These two Activities did not directly build one from the other, but rather, as indicated, their relationship can be described as 'orbital' (Christie 2002), in the sense that both related to the core purpose of the lesson which was the introduction and consolidation of major language features identified for that lesson, and in the relevant unit-of-work in the Textbook.

Core Activity 1: Teaching a new grammatical structure

Activity 1, Phase 1: Introduction of new language

The purpose of the first Core Activity was to introduce the structure *LE'AN* ? *->LE'…* (*where to -> to…).* The teacher began by asking students to turn to the relevant page of the Textbook (pp. 47-48), whilst drawing their attention to the Textbook's nine illustrations, each depicting different characters with a 'bubble caption' indicating the place they were going to.

The first illustration was that of two backpackers and the caption '*LE'-KENYA* (*to Kenya*)':



Chayat et al. (2000/2007, p. 47, Exercice 8)

The classroom interaction then proceeded as follows:

Extract 5.1 Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript*	English Translation	Comments
1 T	So page forty-seven, *MI, MI ELE' PO? PO, MIELE'? […] ELE', MI ELE'?[..]MI ELE'?[.] MI ELE'?[…] ELE' [---], ELE' [---], ELE' STUDENTIM? [---],*	So page forty seven, *who, who are these here? Here, who are these? […] these , who are these? [..] who are these? [..] who are these? These [---] , these[…] these are students ? […]*	T establishes pattern of drawing responses from Ss; points to Textbook's illustration of backpackers
2 Several	*LO, =LO, = LO*	*no,= no, = no*	
3 T	*ELE' MORIM?[---]*	*these are teachers?[--]*	T reinforces pattern of drawing responses from Ss
4 Several	*LO, =LO, = LO*	*no,= no, = no*	
5 T	*LO, MI ELE'-------------?*	*no, who are these----------?*	T draws language from Ss
6 Tami	Backpacker	Backpacker	S uses available language tools
7 T	*OK [..], AZ ELE'* backpackers […] yes, *EEH, EEH LE'AN ---?LE'AN---? LE'AN---?LE'AN---? LA-OUNIVERSITA------?LO. LA-OPERA-------? LO. LE'-CONTZERT--? LE'AN --? LE' --?, LE'--?, LE'--?*	*ok [..], so these are* backpackers *[…]* yes*, eeh, eeh, where to---? where to---? where to ---? where to ---? to the university ---? no. to the opera ---? no. to a concert--? where to --?,where to---? where to---? to --?, to --?, to--?*	T accepts 'borrowed' English word backpacker. Concurrently gesticulating 'no'. In the background Ss are heard attempting to read out loud this new word
8 Tal	*LE'-KENYA*	*to Kenya*	S responds very quietly
9 T	*LE'---?*	*to ---?*	T further prompts
10 Several	*KENYA, = KENYA*	*Kenya, =Kenya*	
11 T	*KENYA, KENYA, KENYA, KENYA, EIFO KENYA--? KENYA BE'-EROPA--?*	*Kenya, Kenya, Kenya, Kenya, where is Kenya? Kenya is in Europe?*	T models *Kenya*; continues drawing language
12 Several	*LO, = LO,= LO*	*no, = no, = no*	
13 T	*LO. KENYA BE'-OUSTRALIYA? LO. KENYA BE' ---?*	*no. Kenya is in Australia? no, Kenya is in ---?*	T continues drawing language from Ss
14 Several	*AFRICA*	*Africa*	
15 T	*BE'-AFRIKA. LE'AN?LE'-KENYA, LE'-AFRIKA*	*in Africa. where to? to Kenya, to Africa.*	T models response

* See Appendix 1 for Transcription Key; Appendix 2 for dull transcription of Week 4 Lesson

Extract 5.1 shows that, in introducing the new language item, the teacher made use of the visual support of the Textbook illustrations. He pointed to the illustration (the picture of the two backpackers and the phrase *LE'-KENYA* (*to Kenya*), then asked and repeated several times '*MI ELE'? (who are these?)'*, before posing deliberately 'wrong', then 'right', answers to his own question (*these are students?/ these are* backpackers?) (moves 1-6). In doing so, he modelled the pattern of question & answer required for this Activity. The teacher then introduced new language items by utilizing the established pattern of question and answer: he asked *LE'AN?* (*where to?)*; and answered his own questions with several 'wrong' answers: '*LA-OUNIVERSITA----? LO, LA-OPERA----?* (*to the university----? no, to the opera---?*) before providing a 'right' answer *LE'-KENYA* (*to Kenya*) (moves 7-10). Here, while again modelling the required pattern of interaction, he allowed the students sufficient time to read and comprehend the text in the illustration's 'bubble caption'. In doing so, he afforded them thinking time to provide the required response *LE'-KENYA* (*to Kenya*) (moves 10-15). He also built on their prior knowledge of vocabulary items such as *students, teachers, university, concert,* etc. to provide a 'hook' for this new '*where to -> to…'* structure.

By establishing and then utilizing this predictable pattern of discursive interaction, the teacher was able to adhere to the practice of using the language as the main means of introducing it. As Extract 5.1 shows, the verbal exchange was supported by non-verbal modes of communication: pointing to the illustrations of: a man and woman *LE'-CONCERT* (*to a concert*); three kids *LE'-DYSNEYLAND* (*to Disneyland*); two men *LE'-TOKYO* (*to Tokyo*), and so on.

Chayat et al. (2000/2007, p. 47, Exercice 8)

This mode of pedagogic interaction, which included establishing predictable sequences of question and response, and providing language modelling and opportunities for repetition, was essential in enabling the teacher to draw relevant responses from the students.

While the majority of interactions within the Core Activities during the Week 4 Lesson took place in Hebrew, the principle, of using the language to teach the language was challenged by the students at certain points in the lesson, when they sought further explanations in English. Extract 5.2, below, which occurred soon after the exchange in Extract 5.1, illustrates the students' desire for some English explanations.

Extract 5.2 Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Tal	So, is the *LE'* like current, and means from?	So, is the *to* like current, and means from?	S' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature
2 T	*LO […] LE'AN----? LE'AN----? LE'-KENYA […] LE'AN? EE, EE, ELIZA? […] LA-KAFITERYA: 'SLIĤA ANI ROTZA KAFE', ANI ROTZA KAFE', LE'AN? LA-KAFITERIYA. LE'AN , LE'AN* backpackers? *LE'-KENYA. LE'AN ISH VE'-ISHA, LE-CONTZERT? LE'AN YELADIM?*	*no […] where to?[…] to Kenya[…]where to? ee ee Eliza? […] to the cafeteria: 'excuse me i want coffee, i want coffee, where to? to the cafeteria. where to* backpackers*? to Kenya. where to man and woman? to concert? where to kids?*	T concurrently writes *L'EAN?-> LE'…* on the board (visual support)
3 Tal	They're going to	They're going to	S' L1 response to T's L2 question
4 Tami	= They're going to	= They're going to	S' slightly slower L1 response to T's L2 question
5 T	*LE'---, LE' KEN, LE'---, LE'---DYSNEYLAND , LE-] DYSNEYLAND […] MI ELE'-----? MI ELE'-----?*	*to --- to --- yes, to --- to --- […] to Disneyland, to Disneyland*	T models required response-implicit explanation?
6 Tony	[undecipherable]	[undecipherable]	
7 T	*PROFESORIM [..] OK, ISH VE'-ISH, ISH VE'-ISH, KEN A**NA**SHIM, A**NA**SHIM,* [14] *PROFESORIM, OK [..] LE'AN-------? LE'AN-------?*	*Professors […] ok, woman and man, woman and man, yes **pe**ople, **pe**ople , professors, ok […] where to--------? Where to------?*	
8 Tal	*LE' […..] TOKYO*	*To [……] Tokyo*	
9 T	*LE'-TOKYO.[.] EIFO TOKYO?*	*To Tokyo [.] where's Tokyo?*	
10 Tal	*YAPAN*	*Japan*	
11 T	*BE'-----?*	*In---------/*	T elicits full sentence
12 Tal	*YAPAN?*	*Japan?*	S' question intonation
13 T	*BE'-YAPAN. [.] AZ LE'AN----? LE'[…] TOKYO. LEAN? LE'TOKYO [..]OK [……...]*	*In Japan. [.] so where to---? To […]Tokyo. Where to? To Tokyo […] ok [……]*	
14 Mike	When we said *ME'AYIN* its 'from where'?	When we said *from where* is that 'from where'?	S' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature
15 T	'where from?, *ME'AYIN ATA? ME'AYIN ATA? ATA MI-SYDNEY*	where from?, *where from are you ? where from are you ? you're from Sydney*	T responds by recasting S' L1 response into L2
16 Mike	and why is it *LE'AN*?	and why is it *where to*?	S' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature

[14] All bolding in Extracts indicate emphasised intonation.

17 T	*LE'AN? LE'AN?*	*Where to? Where to?*	
18 Mike	To where?	To where?	
19 T	*HM […] LE'AN? LA-KAFITERIYA. LE'AN---? LE'[.] LA-CONTZERT. […] LE'AN? […] LE-KENYA. [.]ME'AYIN ATA? ANI* ***MI-****SYDNEY […] LE'AN--------- ? BYE, [.] BYE [.]*	*hm. […] where to? cafeteria . where to? […] to a [.] the concert [..] where to? [..] to Kenya […] where from are you? I'm* ***from*** *Sydney [..] where to----- Bye [.] , bye [.]*	T recasts students' L1 into L2; uses emphasized intonation for preposition
20 Tal	*LE-HITRAOT*	*See you later*	Laughter in class
21 T	*LO, LO [..] LE'AN? LE'AN? EHHH, SLIĤA LA-KAFITERIA, ANI RITZE' KAFE'. [..] OK? […]ANI RITZE' KAFE' [..] OK? TOV, MIKE?*	*No, no [..] where to? where to? ehh excuse me to the cafeteria? I want coffee [..] ok? [..] I want coffee [..] ok, well, mike?*	T confirms Mike's understanding
22 Mike	*TOV*	*well*	
23 T	*EHH, OK, OK,* page 48, [.] please *BE-VAKASHA [……………………] EHHH, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, MI ELE'---? ELE'------*	*Ehhh, ok, ok* page 48, [.] please *please […………………….]*	Some chatter *BE-VAKASHA; TOV-TOV* are captured
24 Mike	*ISH*	*man*	
25 T	*ISH VE'---------- ISHA*	*Man and ------ woman*	
26 Several	*ISH VE'-ISHA*	*Man and woman*	
27 T	*LE' ------ CONTZERT?*	*To---------------- concert?*	
28 Several	*LO*	*no*	
29 T	*LE'AN?*	*Where to?*	
30 Tony	*LE'- SIN*	*To China*	
31 T	*LE'-SIN*	*To China*	
32 Several	*LE'-SIN*	*To China*	
33 T	*LE'-SIN, KEN, LE'-SIN [..] OK, [..] MI ELE'---? MI ELE'---?*	*To China, yes, to China, [..] who [..] are these---?*	
34 Several	*FAMILIA*[15]*	*Familia**	Ss provide an educated guess
35 T	*OK, FAMILIA*, OK MISHPAĤA*	*Ok familia*, ok family*	
36 Several	*MISHPAĤA= MISHPAĤA=*	*Family = family*	Private speech? Mirroring ?
37 T	*YELED--*	*Boy-------*	
38 Several	*YALDA*	*girl*	Ss Join in
39 T	*KEN----*	*Yes---*	
40 Mike	*ISH*	*man*	

[15] * Indicate in-correct use of language

41 Tal	*=IMA VE'-ABA*	*=Mum and Dad*	
42	*IS[...]IM---A [.] VE'[...] -ABA*	*Ma[...] M-u-m [.] and Dad*	
43 Several	*IMA, ABA*	*Mum, Dad*	
	IMA [.] ABA[.] YELED [.] VE-YALDA [...] OK, LE'AN----?, LE'AN----?, LE'AN----?,[...] LE'-------?	*Mum [.] Dad [.] boy [.] and girl [..] ok, where to---?, where to---?, where to---?to-----------*	Ss attempting to articulate
44 Eliza	What's *SARAT**	What's *mavie**	S' incorrect pronunciation
45 T	*LE'--------------- SERET*	*To--------------- movie*	T responds by repeating L2
46 Several	*SERET=SERET=SERET*	*Movie=movie=movie*	Ss repeat/mirror teacher
47 T	*LE'--------------- SERET*	*To--------------- movie*	T repeats L2
48 Several	*SERET=SERET=SERET*	*Movie=movie=movie*	Ss repeat/mirror teacher
49 T	*LE'--------------- SERET, SERET*[…], *SERET* […], *SERET* […] *EHH*, Four Weddings and a Funeral; *SERET* […] Priscilla Queen of the Desert; *SERET* […],*SERET* […] *EH, EH ISHA YAFFA* Pretty Woman […]; *SERET* […], *SERET* […], *MA ZE' SERET?*	*To a movie [.….] movie* […], *movie* […], *movie* […] *ehh*, Four Weddings and a Funeral; *movie* […] *eh, eh* Priscilla Queen of the Desert; *movie* […], *movie* […] *pretty woman* Pretty Woman […]; *movie* […], *movie* […],*what is movie*	T elicits the meaning of *movie* by providing L1 exemplification of movies' titles
50 Sarah	Movie	Movie	S provides English translation
51 Eliza	I love that movie	I love that movie	Private speech
52 Ethel	*OHH SERET, SERET*	*movie, movie*	Private speech?/ Mirroring?
53 T	*SERET, SERET*	*movie, movie*	T writes on board
54 Ethel	*OHH SERET, SERET [...]* got it	*movie, movie[...]* got it	Private speech?/ Mirroring?
55 Tal	So is that like the movies, like going to the movies and like not watching a movie?	So is that like the movies, like going to the movies and like not watching a movie?	S' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature
56 T	*SERET,* it's a movie […]	*movie,* it's a movie […]	T
57 Tal	so is it like […]	so is it like […]	
58 T	*LE'-SERET* to the movie […] *LE'-SERET [..] LE'-SERET [...]*	*to a movie* to the movie […] *to a movie* [..] *o a movie* […]	T combines use of L1 and L2

As Extract 5.2 shows, Tal was the first to request a clarification of the meaning of *LE'* (move 1), to which the teacher responded by continuing to use the language and model it (move 3). Several seconds later, Mike requested a clarification to the difference between *ME'AYIN?* (*where from?)* and *LE'AN?* (*where to?)* (moves 5, 7 and 9), to which the teacher responded by continuing to use and model the difference between the two (moves 6, 8 and 10). Later again, Tal repeated the request for an explicit English clarification (moves 11 and 13); to which, finally, the teacher provided a literal translation, yet without providing an in-depth linguistic explanation (moves 12 and 14).

Extract 5.2 provides insights into the ways in which the teacher was prepared to accommodate use of L1. He acknowledged the students' English requests for clarification, but responded by recasting the request in Hebrew. He was able to do this within the predictable pattern of question and answer that was already established, thereby addressing the students' query, while further modelling the use of Hebrew. Here the features of predictable sequences of question and response, language modelling, and opportunities for repetition enabled the principle of using the L2 to proceed.

The clarification and consolidation of the grammatical structure also enabled the teacher to move from closed and tightly structured interactions to more open interactions with the students. As Extract 5.1 showed, by using visual cues from the Textbook and building on the established pattern of question and answer interactions, the teacher was able to minimize his own role while provide additional opportunities for the students to practice using Hebrew. Moreover, as Extract 5.3A will show, the teacher directed that same question structure, *LE'AN AT?* (*where to you* {f.s}?), *LEAN ATA?* (*where to you* {m.s}?), to each of the students, thus giving each the opportunity of choosing/determining their individual answer. He was, however, prepared to step back into the discussion when he 'pushed' a student to extend his/her responses.

Extract 5.3A Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK, OK, AZ [..] SARAH, LE'AN AT? LE'AN AT? LE'AN ---------? LE'AN--------? LE'AN AT? […] LE'AN? LE'-SINAI? LA-OPERA? LE'AN?*	*ok, ok, so Sarah, where to are you? where to are you? where to? where to? where to are you?[…] to Sinai? To the opera? where to?*	T poses question, addressing Sarah
2 Sarah	*LA-OUNIVERSITA*	*to the university*	S responds correctly
3 T	*LA-OUNIVERSITA; [..] OK, ANI LA-OUNIVERSITA. [..] VE'-LE'AN AT?*	*to the university; I'm to the university*	T recasts; and addresses Tal
4 Tal	*ANI LE' [………..]* is it *LE'* or *LA?*, *[.]* or is it…	*I'm to [………..]* is it *to* or *to the?[.]* or is it…	S requests clarification if the preposition is imbeds the definite article or not
5 T	*LE'*	*to*	T models indefinite form of the preposition
6 Mike	*= LE'*	*= to*	S models, slightly slower than T; uncertain intonation
7 Tal	*ANI LE'[……..] SHAM*	*I'm to […] there*	
8 T	*LE'-SHAM […] TOV, ANI LE'-SHAM […] LE'-SHAM. […] OK, LEA'N AT ETHEL?*	*to there[…] well, I'm to […] there […] to […] there […]ok, where to you Ethel?*	T recasts whilst further models preposition; addresses Ethel
9 Ethel	Ehhh [………………..] where can I go? [..] Em, em, how do you say library? […] I forgot library	Ehhh [………………..] where can I go? [..] Em, em, how do you say library? […] I forgot library	student's use of L1 to help her plan her L2 response
10 T	*SIFRIYA, ANI LA-SIFRIYA*	*library, I'm to the library*	T models
11 Ethel	[…] *ANI LA-SIFRIYA*	[…] *I'm to the library*	S repeats/mirrors
12 T	*ANI LA-SIFRIYA OHH AT STOUDENTIT TO-VA, STOUDENTIT TOVA, LA-SIFRIYA, STOUDENTIT TOVA. VE-MIKE, LE'AN […] ATA?*	*I'm to the library, ohh you're a good stu-dent* {f.s} *, good student , to the library, good student. And Mike where to […] are you?*	T recasts and compliments S; addresses Mike
13 Mike	*ANI LE-[..] AUCKLAND*	*I'm to [..]* Auckland	S responds correctly
14 T	*OK, ANI LE' [..]* Auckland. *OK, VE'-ELIZA, LE'AN AT?*	*Ok, I'm to [..]* Auckland. *ok, and Eliza where to are you?*	T recasts; addresses Eliza

As can be seen, the teacher addressed each student with the same question, *LE'AN AT(A)?* (*Where to are you?*) using the appropriate pronoun and providing opportunity for each to provide a different response: *to the university* (Sarah, move 2); *to there* (Tal, moves 4 and 7, supported by the teacher); *to the library* (Ethel, moves 9 and 11, again supported by the teacher); and *to* Auckland (Mike, move 13). In this exchange we note students using language as it is available to them at that stage, namely, code switching to English to support their Hebrew utterance. As well, the teacher here provided idiosyncratic support as was needed.

This short IRF exchange continued for the next minute, with the teacher posing the same question to the other students, until Tony responded as follows:

Extract 5.3B Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK VE'-TONY-----? LE'AN------? LE'AN ATA?*	*Ok and Tony -----? where----? where to [are] you----?*	
2 Tony	ehh *[..] ANI LE'[………] SERET*	ehh *[..] I am to […………] movie*	
3 T	*LE-SERET [..] LE-SERET ; EIZE' SERET ? [..] FANTASIA? […] DECOMENTARI? [..] SERET? [..], SERET? […], EIZE' SERET? EHH, HARRY POTTER? JAMES BOND? SUPERMAN?[…] EIZE' SERET? [……] SERET BRITI? SERET SINI?, [..] AKIRA KARASAWA]? [..], SERET […],EIZE' SERET? […]*	*to a movie, [..] to a movie; which movie? […] fantasy? […] documentary? [..] movie? [..], movie? […], which movie? ehh, Harry Potter? James Bond? Superman? […], which movie? [……] British movie, Chinese movie? [..] Akira Kurosawa? [..], movie […], which movie?[…]*	T. pushes student to expand his response – in doing so, he introduces new vocabulary items that will be picked up in subsequent lessons
4 Tony	*SERET, SERET*	*movie, movie*	
5 T	*[…] EIZE' SERET? […] EIZE' SERET? [..] SERET YAPANI, SERET YISRA'ELI; SERET SINI ? SERET BRITI? […] EIZE' SERET? […] EIZE' SERET?*	*[…] which movie? [..] which movie? [..] Japanese [..] movie? Israeli movie? Chinese movie? [..], British movie? […] which movie?*	T continues to push student (increases prospectiveness)
6 Tony	*SERET*	*movie (rest undecipherable)*	
7 T	*SERET AMERICANI [..] HOLIWOODI?*	*American movie [..] Hollywood?*	

Extract 5.3B shows another significant feature. When Tony responded, first in English and then in Hebrew, that he is *to a movie*, the teacher 'pushed' him to expand his response by asking '*which movie? fantasy; documentary; Harry Potter; James Bond; Superman'*; as well as using the noun-adjective phrases '*SERET BRITI* (*British movie*), *SERET SINI* (*Chinese movie*), *SERET YAPANI* (*Japanese movie*), *SEERET YISRA'ELI* (*Israeli movie*), *SERET AMERICANI* (Kurosawa *American movie*)', etc. (moves 3 and 5). While the teacher used language which at that point was beyond students' level of knowledge (namely, adjectives borrowed from English marked by Hebrew's additional masculine-singular suffix *I*), his meaning could, potentially, be understood by the students. By applying some pressure to Tony to extend and elaborate his response, the teacher was in fact '*increasing the prospectiveness'* of the interaction (Hammond & Gibbons 2005, p. 24; italics in original). Significantly, by making the most of this moment, the teacher 'planted' / 'drizzled' some unknown noun adjective phrases, thus sensitizing students to language that would only be introduced at a later stage. Tony's attempts to expand his response were very difficult to hear, and the teacher soon moved on. Nevertheless, this brief exchange served to encourage Tony, and other students, to experiment and take risks with their use of Hebrew. As well, it provided students with a first exposure to Hebrew noun-adjective phrases, which would be the focus of upcoming learning (to be discussed in Chapter 6).

The exchange was then followed by instructions for the students to ask questions of the teacher and of each other. Extract 5.4 illustrates the open nature of this interaction:

Extract 5.4 Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*VE'* [..] please ask me	*and* [..] please ask me	T invites Ss to ask him
2 Mike	*VE-LE'AN ATA?*	*and you where to?*	S responds
3 T	*VE'-ATA, LE'AN--? O, LE'AN ATA? [..] VE'-ATA, LE'AN? O, LE'AN ATA? [..] ANI LE'-TASMANIYA […] ANI LE'-TASMANIYA BE'-*Easter	*and you, where to--? or, where to you---?, and you, where to--? or, where to you--? I'm to Tasmania* […] *I'm to Tasmania in* Easter	T recasts S, provides alternative questioning, before responding
4 Mike	*TOV*	*good*	S response- teacherly behaviour
8 T	*TASMANIYA [..]TOV ME'OD, TASMANIYA YAFA; ANI LE'-TASMANIYA BE'-*Easter	*Tasmania [..] very good, Tasmania is beautiful* {f.s}, *I'm to Tasmania in* Easter	T drip feeds *YAFA* (*beautiful* {f.s})
9 Tal	what's *TOV ME'OD?*	what's '*very good'?*	S request clarification
10 T	*TOV* good, *ME'OD* very, [..] very good *OK* […], *OK* […], *EMM* […] *TOV* [……] now please ask each other '*LE'AN ATA? LEAN AT? […] SHALOM*	*good* good, *very* very, [..] very good *ok* […], *ok* […], *emm* […] *well* [……] now please ask each other '*where to you* {m.s}?, '*where to you* {f.s}*?*[…] *hello—*	T models both masculine and feminine questioning

Extract 5.4, conducted primarily in L2, provides some insight into students' increasing confidence with the new language. In addition, it also provides further insight into the ways in which both students and teacher switched between languages. As Extract 5.4 shows, students continued to make strategic use of L1 to seek clarification of a specific language point (move 9). In addition, the teacher used L1 (moves 4 and 10) to provide quick instructions to students regarding completion of task. This code switching was typical of the teacher's use of L1 and L2 at other points and in other lessons. He used Hebrew when teaching or reinforcing a language feature, but switched to English to provide quick instructions to students regarding specific tasks requirements. To draw on Bernstein's (2000) terms, he used Hebrew in his instructional register, but quite often switched to English for his regulative register. In doing so, he was able to keep up a lively pace within lessons, and contribute to an active, reciprocal and cooperative classroom. The teacher also drew on different kinds of visual cues to support his instructional registers (e.g. diagrams in the Textbook, board work, pictures etc. to support teaching of specific language features), as well as his regulative register (e.g. gesticulations to support instructions on pair formation etc.).

Activity 1: Phase 2 – student handover

Following the teacher-led initiation in Phase 1 of an Activity, the process of handing-over to students for task completion became more marked. Typically in Phase 2, students were given further opportunities to use the language in order to practice and consolidate their knowledge, and were usually directed to work in smaller groups, pairs, or occasionally individually.

During such Phase 2 handover, and its subsequent pair-activity, a number of phenomena were evident. These included: amplified noise level: rather than having one central discussion there were now five different conversations occurring all at once, as well as increased reliance on English, both for on-task and off-task purposes, and by both students and teacher; the latter using English as a way of supporting students' on-task Hebrew exchanges. As well, the pair-work activity was more learner-control, with students often conversing on personal topics/issues. During this activity-Phase, the teacher moved amongst the pairs, providing them with specific feedback. In his interview, he explained the nature of support he provided for this kind of interaction:

> I don’t let them work on their own, I continuously walk around and see their work (I’m totally connected to their work) as everybody has to speak and I hear them and I can correct their work. And they call me all the time to ask questions that they wanted before but did not manage to or did not come up before. It is an opportunity to receive personal attention from the teacher and for me to see them is very important.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

Due to the increased noise level, only portions of the pairs’ exchanges could be transcribed. As Ethel and Mike were sitting closer to the recording device, their exchange was the clearest, yet only its first part could be deciphered:

Extract 5.5 Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Ethel	*SHALOM*	*Hello*	Ethel in role of inquirer
2 Mike	*SHALOM*	*Hello*	Mike in role of respondent
3 Ethel	*LE'AN AT? [……] LE'AN ATA? LE'AN ATA?*	*Where to you** {f.s} *[…] where to you* {m.s}? *where to you* {m.s}*?*	
4 Mike	*ANI LE'-MELBOURNE.* *SHALOM*	*I'm to Melbourne.* *Hello*	Ss changed roles; Mike the inquirer now
5 Ethel	*LE'-MELBOURNE*	*To Melbourne*	
6 Mike	*LE'AN AT?*	*Where to you* {f.s}?	
7 Ethel	*ANI […] EM, EM, ANI LE'-ANGLIYA*	*I'm […] em, em, I'm to England*	
8 Mike	*LE'-ANGLIYA, TOV*	*To England , well*	
9 Ethel	*TOV*	*Well*	laughs
10 Mike	*VE' […] LE'AN […] HE?[…] LE'AN HE?*	*And [..] where to […] she? […] where to she? […-]*	Mike points to another student
11 Ethel	Oh […]	Oh […]	
12 Mike	*LE'AN HE?*	*Where to she?*	
13 Ethel	*ANI*	*I'm*	Ethel responds herself
14 Mike	*HE*	*She*	Mike prompts
15 Ethel	*ANI*	*I'm*	Ethel again responds herself
16 Mike	*HE*	*She*	Mike prompts again
17 Ethel	*ANI*	*I'm*	Ethel again responds herself
18 Mike	*HE, HE*	*She, she*	Mike emphasizes prompts
19 Ethel	*ANI,* Oh yeah, *HE LE'-*	*I'm,* Oh yeah*, she's to*	

As can be seen in Extract 5.5, Ethel began the exchange by taking the role of the inquirer and self-correcting her own question (moves 1 and 3); Mike responded appropriately and then took the role of the inquirer (move 4). Their exchange progresses smoothly (moves 5-9) until Mike asked Ethel about another female student (move 10). This confused Ethel (moves 11, 13, 15 and 17), and, responding to her confusion, Mike spoke much slower than his usual pace, while continuing to use Hebrew (moves 12, 14, 16 and 18, respectively). In doing so, Mike acted as a 'surrogate teacher' (Edwards & Westgate 1994, p. 52), displaying 'teacherly practices' (Lantolf & Thorne 2006, p. 257). The rest of Ethel and Mike's exchange is hard to decipher, yet it appears to be highly cooperative and they largely remained on-task. Thus, despite the minimal nature of the transcription of this pair work, Extract 5.5 does provides some evidence of the value of peer support, where students are able to take on different roles, and where pair interactions provide opportunities for experimentation and practice with new language. Thus, in this phase of the Activity, there is evidence that in addition to peer support, the teacher continued to provide support. In the background, he could be heard asking students *LE'AN (where to?)* regarding their partner, using the pronouns *HU* (*he*) and *HE* (*she*).

In sum, Phase 2's handover for task completion via pair-work was typified by its learner-centricity, with students working collaboratively with their peers, and the teacher occupying a more peripheral role. As a result, the power relations between teacher and students changed: the teacher relinquished his primary position in teacher-fronted activities, thereby enabling more learner-learner interaction and cooperative, task-based learning (van Lier 2001a, p. 103). Handover was very evident in this phase of Activity 1.

Activity 1: Phase 3 – Teacher Wrap-up

Typically, Core Activities came to a closure with the teacher summing up the task just completed, and often by the teacher giving out related self-study assignments. However, in this particular *L'EAN?-> LE'...* activity, there was no wrap-up phase. Rather, the teacher ended the pair-work by moving directly to a new activity (Textbook p. 49), which entailed creating dialogues using common expressions.

Core Activity 2: Creating dialogues

Core Activity 2 was considerably shorter than the previous Core Activity (about eight minutes in comparison to twenty five minutes for Core Activity 1). As indicated earlier, this Core Activity did not build on work completed in Activity 1. Rather its relationship to Core Activity 1 can be described as 'orbital' (Christie, 2002). The purpose of Core Activity 2 was primarily to reinforce a number of common expressions that had been introduced in previous lessons, and to provide opportunities for students to work in a more open-ended manner with these expressions. The teacher began by instructing the students to turn to the Textbook, where instructions, in both Hebrew and English, directed them to 'create dialogues using the following words and phrases' (Chayat et al. 2007, p. 49). Below these instructions was a list of common words and phrases, already familiar to students, which comprised of: *sorry; thanks; very nice [to meet you]; [just] one moment; how's things; see you later*; *hello/goodbye*; as well as six short dialogues with missing words. Each dialogue was accompanied by an illustration; and students were required to complete each dialogue by inserting the appropriate expression.

Activity 2, Phase 1

Phase 1 of the Activity began with the teacher and students reading out-loud the list's expressions. Extract 5.6A illustrates this first phase of the Activity:

Extract 5.6A Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK TOV, OK TOV* Please have a look at page 49 […] *OK, […]* ***SLIHA***	*Ok, well, ok well,* Please have a look at page 49 […] *ok, [……]* ***sorry***	T reads from word-bank on p. 49, starting with 1st word; use of L1 for task instruction
2 All	*SLIHA= SLIHA*=sorry = *SLIHA= SLIHA= SLIHA=*	*Sorry = sorry* = sorry = *sorry = sorry = sorry =*	Ss begin reading from list of words.
3 T	*SLIHA VE'----*	*Sorry and ---*	T prompts next expression
4 Tal	*TODA*	*Thanks*	
5 T	*TODA, TODA. VE'---, VE'---, VE'---,*	*Thanks, thanks, and---, and----, and---*	2nd word
6 F?	*NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you*	3rd expression
7 T	*KEN* everybody *KULAM*	*Yes,* everybody *everybody*	T directs all Ss to participate (use of L1 here)
8 All	*NAIM MEOD = NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you= Very nice to meet you*	SS repetition and practice
9 T	*=NAIM MEOD, NAIM MEOD, NAIM MEOD*	*=Very nice to meet you*	Ss mirroring
10 All	*=NAIM MEOD= NAIM MEOD*	*=Very nice to meet you= very nice to meet you=*	Ss mirroring further
11 T	*ELIZA, KULAM, NAIM MEOD ELIZA*	*Eliza, everybody, very nice to meet you Eliza*	
12 Several	*NAIM MEOD ELIZA= NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you Eliza*	Much laughter
13 T	*ELIZA, TODA, NAIM---*	*Eliza, thanks*	T models Eliza's response
14 Several	*NAIM MEOD = NAIM MEOD =NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you= very nice to meet you= very nice to meet you*	
15 T	*=NAIM MEOD*	*= Very nice to meet you*	
16 Several	*=NAIM MEOD*	*= Very nice to meet you*	
17 T	*NAIM MEOD, EEH---*	*Very nice to meet you, ehh*	
18 T+ Several	*RAK-REGA*	*Just-a-moment*	4th expression; T and Ss reading together (without his prompt
19 T	*BE YISRAEL KAKHA*	*In Israel like so*	Gestures 'wait a moment' which in Italy is a rude gesture
20 All	*RAK-REGA*	*Just-a-moment*	
23 T 28:00	*BE-ITALYA, LO. BE-ISRAEL RAK-REGA*	*In Italy, no. in Israel, just-a-moment […]*	Much laughter
22 Several	*RAK-REGA*	*Just-a-moment*	Ss practice
	RAK-REGA […] VE'-------?	*just-a-moment […] and----------?*	
23 Several	*MA NISHMA =MA NISHMA*	*how's things= how's things*	5th expression with (inappropriate) answering intonation

24 T	*MA NISHMA? MA NISHMA?*	*how's things? how's things?*	T recasts emphasizing questioning intonation
24 Tal	how are you	how are you	
25 Mike	*=TOV*	*=Well*	Slightly quicker than others
26 Several	*=TOV*	*=Well*	
27 T	*=TOV*	*=Well*	
28 Mike	*TOVIM**	*Well {m.pl}**	S provides m.pl form of the word, which here functions as an adverb (which only has one form) rather than adjective
29 T	*LO TOVIM, TOV*	*Not well {m.pl}*, well*	T. models use of word
30 Several	*=TOV=TOV=TOV*	*Well=well=well*	
31 T	*TOV,* impersonally, *TOV*	*Well, impersonal, well*	T uses L1
32 Several	*=TOV=TOV*	*Well=well*	practice
33 T	*O, O […]*	*Or, or […]*	
34 Mike	*=TOVA**	*Well* {f.s}*	f.s form of the adjective
35 T	*= YONA, YONA OMERET HAYOM [..] OK, BEIVRIT?*	*=Yona, Yona says today […] ok, in Hebrew?*	
36 Several	*BESEDER=BESEDER*	*Alright=alright*	
37 T	*=BESEDER. MA NISHMA? BESEDER*	*Alright. How's things? alright*	T models again
38 Several	*BESEDER=BESEDER=BESEDER*	*Alright=alright=alright*	Ss practice
39 T	*BESEDER, BESDER*	*Alright, alright*	
40 Several	*LEHITRAOT= LEHITRAOT […]*	*See you later= see you later*	6th expression
41 All	*LEHITRAOT*	*See you later*	Ss practice
42 T	*LE-HIT=RA=OT,*	*See—you—la--ter*	T recasts emphasizes pronunciation
43 T+All	*LEHITRAOT, LEHITRAOT,*	*See you later, see you later,*	T models and Ss practice
44 T	*LEHITRAOT, LEHITRAOT, VE'---------*	*See you later, see you later, and--------*	T cues response
45 All	*SHALOM*	*Goodbye*	7th expression
46 T	*SHALOM, OK, SHALOM*	*Goodbye, ok, goodbye*	T recasts

This exchange between teacher and students was rapid – lasting no more than a few minutes, yet it served to remind them of these ‘already known’ common expressions and to provide them with opportunities to repeat and practice their pronunciation. As can be seen, the teacher initially modelled the language; then stepped back to hand over opportunities to students to practice use of the language; then stepped in again to encourage full participation, and / or to reinforce correct pronunciation. A feature of this exchange was the teacher’s ability to choreograph rapid moves between providing necessary support to students and then stepping back to provide space for them to use the language. He thus provided handover to students at strategic points during the exchange.

Activity 2, Phase 2

Phase 1 of the Activity showed initial strong support and then progressive handover. Phase 2 began with the teacher pointing to the first dialogue, which depicts two men shaking hands:

א) - שלום.

- ______________.

- אני רמי, נעים מאוד.

- נעים מאוד, אני יוסי.

Chayat et al. (2000/2007, p. 49, Exercise 9A)

The accompanying dialogue translates as:

A) *-hello?*

-______________.

-I’m Rami, very nice to meet you.

-Very nice to meet you, I’m Yosi.

Extract 5.6B, which is a continuation of Extract 5.6A, provides an illustration of the nature of collaborative construction of this first dialogue, which the teacher began to read, as follows:

Extract 5.6B Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
46 T	*ALEF […] SHALOM*	*A […] hello*	T points to dialogue A and begins reading the first line
47 Several	*SHALOM*	*Hello*	Ss' precede T by
48 T	*SHALOM*	*Hello*	T reinforces Ss reading
49 F?	*ANI*	*I'm*	S' reading again precedes T
50 T	*ANI […] AN I----*	*I'm […] I'm-----------*	T again reinforces Ss reading + cues further reading
51 Several	*RAMI*	*Rami*	Ss respond with appropriate name of character
52 T	*RAMI, RAMI*	*Rami, Rami*	T reinforces response
53 Several	*RAMI =RAMI*	*Rami=Rami*	Ss repeat
54 Mike	*NAIM*	*Very*	Ss precede T
55 T	*=NAIM MEOD*	*=Very nice to meet you*	T expands Ss response + models phrase
56 Several	*NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you*	Ss repeat phrase
57 T	*NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you*	T reinforces response
58 Several	*NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you*	Ss practice
59 T	*ANI, ANI ----*	*I'm, I'm------*	cued elicitation
60 Mike	*YUSI**	*Yusi**	S provides name of character from the dialogue
61 F?	*YOSI*	*Yosi*	
62 T	*YOSI*	*Yosi*	
63 Several	*YOSI*	*Yosi*	
64 T 29:07	*NAIM MEOD, ANI YOSI […] ANI YOSI, RAM VE'-YOSI […] RAMI, VE'- YOSI, SHALOM, NAIM MEOD, […] OK? […] OK, BET*	*Very nice to meet you. I'm Yosi […] I'm Yosi. Rami and Yosi […] Rami and Yosi. Hello, very nice to meet you […] ok? [..] ok B*	T reinforces exchange by reading the whole dialogue. He repeats names of characters in the dialogue *RAMI, YOSI*, and indicates class will move on to Dialogue B.

Extract 5.6B shows the teacher and students working through the first dialogue. Here, the teacher began by reading the dialogue (moves 46, 55, 64, respectively), with the students at times preceding him (moves 47, 49, 54, respectively); and, at other times, being provided with space to lead the reading and provide appropriate responses to the ‘gap’ in the dialogue (moves 50, 59). As well, and as needed, the teacher confirmed their correct reading by repeating it (moves 52, 57, 62, respectively). Thus, when Mike preceded him, offering the first word of a missing phrase, the teacher expanded Mike’s contribution, thereby modelling the full phrase (*very nice to meet you*). At other points he used cued elicitation to encourage students to offer responses (*I’m …Rami; I’m … Yosi*). Extract 5.6B shows, the teacher and students worked collaboratively to read the dialogue. The students were supported in this Activity by the relevant Textbook illustration and the partially completed written dialogue, but they were also supported by the teacher’s cued elicitations to the exchange: at times leading the interaction, at times reinforcing it, and at other times encouraging and modelling appropriate responses. Once again it was the teacher’s ability to move between providing strong support for students, and then stepping back to provide space for the students’ contributions that characterized the nature of the exchange.

Having completed the collaborative construction of the first dialogue, the teacher and students proceeded to work through subsequent dialogues. As the class progressed through these, the teacher progressively stepped back to allow students to work more independently. The interaction that occurred in the reading of the 4th dialogue provides an illustration of this. As can be seen in the relevant Textbook illustration, it shows a woman speaking on the telephone.

ד) - הלו?

- רחל?

- הי, שלום צילה, ______________

- או קיי.

Chayat et al. (2000/2007, p. 49, Exercice 9D)

The accompanying dialogue translates as:

D) *-hello?*
-Rachel?
-Hi, hello Tzila, ________________
-ok

Extract 5.7 provides an illustration of the nature of collaborative construction of this dialogue:

Extract 5.7 Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*EHH, EIFO? EIFO ZE'? [..] EIFO ZE'? […] ZE' BA-OUNIVERSITA?*	*Ehhh, where? where is it?[…] where is it? [..] it's in the university?*	T refers to beginning of 4th dialogue T points to Textbook illustration
2 Several	*LO = LO*	*No = no=*	
3 T	*ZE BA----------------*	*It's in--------------*	T cues response
4 Tal	Restaurant	Restaurant	Ss respond (recalling word from previous dialogue)
5 T	restaurant , *BE'-IVRIT?*	Restaurant, *in Hebrew?*	T. asks for response in Hebrew
6 Mike	*BA-MISA'ADA*	*In the restaurant*	S provides appropriate response
7 T	*BA-MIS-------ADA, BA-MISA'ADA, BA-MISA'ADA, BA-MISA'ADA. OK, EMM, DALET, DALET. HALO? HALO?.*	*In the res-----taurant, in the restaurant, in the restaurant, in the restaurant. Ok, Emm, D, D, hello? Hello?*	T models response + pronunciation
9 Mike	*HALO*	*Hello*	S slightly faster than others
10 Several	*HALO= HALO = HALO=*	*Hello = hello = hello=*	Greeting word borrowed from English
11 T	*HALO, RA-------------*	*Hello, Ra-----*	T cues *Rahel* name from written dialogue)
12 Tal	*RAĤEL*	*Rachel*	S responds
13 Several	*RAĤEL = RAĤEL, RAĤEL*	*Rachel = Rachel = Rachel=*	Other Ss respond
14 T	*RAĤEL? HI-------------*	*Rachel? hi ----*	T begins reading and pauses to let Ss continue (cued elicitation)
15 Several	*SHALOM*	*Hello*	
16 T	*= SHALOM---------------- TZILA*	*=Hello --------------------Tzila*	T pauses and then reads Hebrew name (from dialogue)
17 Several	*TZILA = TZIRA = TZILA = CILA*	*Tzila = Tzira = Tzila = Sila*	Ss attempt to pronounce name
18 T	*SHALOM TZILA------------, SHALOM TZILA-------------*	*Hello Tzila-----, Hello Tzila-----*	T begins to read and cues Ss to provide required phrase *how are things?*
19 Mike	*SHALOM TZILA*	*=Hello Tzila*	S repeats
20 Tal	*=MA NISHMA*	*=How are things?*	S initiates appropriate phrase in dialogue
21 Ethel	=What is it?	=What is it?	Private speech???
22 T	*KE, SHALOM TZILA-------------*	*Yes, hello Tzila-------------*	T cue for other Ss to join
23 Tal	*MA NISHMA*	*How are things*	S repeats required phrase
24 Ethel	*MA NISHMA*	*How are things*	S repeats phrase

26 Several	*= MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA?*	*How are things?= how are things? = how are things?*	Ss repeat with appropriate intonation
27 T	*MA NISHMA?*	*How are things?*	T models further
28 Several	*= MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA?*	*How are things?= how are things? = how are things?*	Ss practice/mirror further
29 T	*MA NISHMA?*	*How are things?*	T models further
30 Several	*= MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA?*	*How are things?, how are things?*	Ss practice

Extract 5.7 shows a pattern of interaction in some ways similar to that in Extract 5.6B. However, Extract 5.7 shows the teacher providing increasing space for students to take a more active role in constructing the dialogue. The exchange began with the teacher inviting the students to nominate the location of the woman with the telephone (in reference to the illustration) while asking if it's a known, yet 'wrong' place, *the university* (move 1). The students rejected this suggestion (move 2) with Tal offering 'restaurant', recalling the location of the 3rd dialogue (move 4). Responding to Tal's offer, eliciting to the Hebrew equivalent (move 5), Mike provided the required *restaurant* (move 6). The teacher then modelled the appropriate pronunciation, and then cued the students to read the dialogue (move 7). The students, with some ongoing prompting from the teacher and support with pronunciation of unfamiliar names (*Tzila*) participated in the dialogue's role-play (moves 9-30). Although the dialogue itself was very simple, the interaction again provided evidence of the teacher's ability to provide support when needed and to step back to allow students to offer contribution.

As can be seen, completion of subsequent dialogues in Activity 2 showed slight but progressive handover as the teacher encouraged and pushed students to take active roles in the construction of the dialogue. He continued to intervene at points where students experienced some difficulties. Phase 2 of the Activity ended with the completion of the final dialogue.

As with Core Activity 1, in Week 4 Lesson, Core Activity 2 had no real Phase 3 - Wrap-up. As indicted, Week 4 Lesson was shorter than usual, and, because of this, the teacher was pushed for time. Once the class had completed the various dialogues, he closed the lesson by referring briefly to the self-study requirements. As indicated earlier, there was also a brief humorous exchange about 'punishment' for students whose mobile phones rang during lessons.

5.2.3 Conclusion

Section 2 of chapter 5 has focused on analysis of one lesson from the case study program. This Lesson was selected on the grounds that it was typical of other lessons, both in structure and patterns of interaction. The purpose of this section was to gain insights into the ways in which the general principles, evident from the overview of the

case study in Section 1 of the chapter, were brought to life in the unfolding of classroom interactions.

Section 2 began with an analysis of the generic structure of Week 4 Lesson. Here I drew on Christie's (2002) notions of curriculum genre and macrogenre to show that the Lesson had a three stage structure, consisting of a short Stage 1 Warm-up, followed by a longer Stage 2, consisting of (in this case) two Core Activities, and ending with (again, in this case) a minimal Stage 3 Wrap-up of the Lesson. Christie's notion of generic structure also enabled me to show that each Core Activity within Stage 2 also had a predictable three phase structure, and that the Core Activities had an orbital relationship with each other, where each Activity referred back to the core language patterns that were the focus of the Lesson (and relevant unit-of-work in the Textbook), rather than building one from another in a progressive linear structure. In the case of Week 4 Lesson, this language consisted of use of the (new) grammatical structure '*LE'AN? ->LE'…* ('where to?-> to…' in question and answer sequences such as: *Where to the backpackers? They to Kenya; Where man and woman? They to a concert* (Activity 1); and the use of the common (and recently introduced) expressions to build dialogues: *SLIHA* (*sorry*)*; TODA* (*thanks*)*; NAIM MEOD* (*very nice to meet you*)*; MA NISHMA?* (*how's things?)* (Core Activity 2).

Analysis of the phase structure within Core Activities provided the framework for a closer analysis of the patterns of interaction that occurred between teacher and students within these Activities. This analysis thus begins to provide insights into ways in which RIS principles were implemented in classroom interactions. It also begins to provide insights into the subtle and quite nuanced ways in which the teacher worked to support students' learning.

5.3 Conclusion to Chapter 5

Chapter 5 has introduced the case study program, first by providing an overview of the program itself, and then by presenting an analysis of one lesson that is typical of others in the program. Both the overview and the analysis of Week 4 Lesson have shown that the RIS principles, identified in chapter 4, have generally been adhered to and implemented in the case study program. Despite the fact that Hebrew is taught as a

second language in the RIS, and as a foreign language in the case study program, major RIS principles were clearly evident in the organization of lessons and the nature of teaching within the case study. As chapter 4 showed, key RIS principles included the sequencing of grammatical features to form the organizing principle of the curriculum; systematic and predictable structuring of lessons; use of a three part structure within Activities to introduce and practice new language; an emphasis on using the language to teach the language; a focus on oral language development with some use of literacy to support this oral development. All of these features are evident in the case study program.

The Unit of Study Outline (Gilead 2008) and the Textbook (Chayat et al. 2000/2007) that is followed, both demonstrate that grammatical sequencing is the organizing principle that informs the case study curriculum. Analysis of lessons within the case study program reveal their systematic and predictable structure, and their use of three part Stages and Phases to introduce new language items and provide opportunities for students to practice. The sequencing of Core Activities confirms that the major focus within the case study program was on oral language development, but also included reading and writing within tasks to support this oral development. A further RIS feature is the emphasis on the importance of a positive and supportive learning environment. This principle was also evident in the case study program. The initial Stage 1 warm-up activity within each lesson set the tone for the friendly and relaxed nature of teacher-student interactions throughout the lesson, and the use of humour reinforced the positive atmosphere of the class. Thus, at a general level the Case Study program can be considered a good exemplar of the RIS program.

The more detailed analysis of Week 4 Lesson confirms the overall alignment of the case study program with RIS principles. However, it also provides additional insight into how these RIS principles were implemented in the Australian case study. Specifically it highlights the nature of interplay between the more general RIS features (such as introducing new language items) and a range of additional and more specific features (such as use of visual and other support to demonstrate meaning of new language items; modelling sequences of required responses prior to seeking student responses; providing thinking time for students; providing opportunities for repetition of language). The analysis indicates that it was this kind of interplay that enabled implementation of RIS

features in ways that effectively supported students' learning. The nature and significance of this interplay is further addressed in the final chapter of the thesis (Chapter 7).

Chapter 6
Third Level of Analysis: Focus Lessons

Chapter 6 is the second of two chapters that address the case study of one Modern Hebrew beginner-level cohort. Chapter 5 introduced the case study and presented an analysis of one lesson from the early stages of the case study. In this Week 4 Lesson, a number of key features were identified as representative of, the pedagogical practices in the case study program as a whole. In chapter 6, the case study is extended through a more detailed analysis of four follow up lessons, with the purpose of investigating the extent to which the features identified in the Week 4 Lesson are evident in the four follow up Focus Lessons. The aim of this chapter is to gain insights into the ways in which key pedagogical features unfold across a sequence of lessons. While the Week 4 Lesson was selected from early stages of the case study, the Focus Lessons were selected from the later stages of the program (weeks 10-11 of a thirteen week program). By this stage, approximately three quarters into the semester, the patterns of classroom interactions and the social cohesion of this 'community of learners' (Lave & Wenger 1991) had become familiar and predictable to both the case study participants and to myself. Moreover, the fact that they had been observed, recorded, and interviewed over a period of six weeks, had enabled both teacher and students to acclimatize to my presence and that of the cameras. Indeed, the participants reported that the conduct of the research project had no significant impacted on their classroom conduct at this stage. The Focus Lessons selected formed a coherent sequence all relating to the same Unit of work from the RIS beginner-level Textbook *The New Hebrew From Scratch – Part A* (Chayat et al. 2000/2007). These Focus Lessons thus provided an opportunity to address ways in which key features unfolded and developed across related lessons at a time when the impact of the researcher had been minimized. Analysis of the Focus Lessons in Chapter 6 thus constitutes the third level of analysis in the thesis.

Like Chapter 5, analysis of lessons in chapter 6 addresses the first two research questions. Also like Chapter 5, the analysis of the Focus Lessons draws on data collected across the case study program, including:

- mid-lesson interviews and a final interview with case study students

- interview and informal discussions with case study teacher
- lesson observations and video and audio recordings
- course information and teaching resources relevant to lessons observed

Chapter 6 is organized as follows: The chapter begins by introducing the four Focus Lessons. The purpose of this section is to provide a brief overview of the purpose, structure and content of the Lessons; and of their relationship to the relevant Textbook unit-of-work. This overview then provides the context for the more detailed analysis of Lessons that is presented in the major part of the chapter. Here the focus is on key features of the Lessons: which of the key features identified in chapter 5 are evident in the Focus Lessons; and in what ways do these features unfold within and between the Lessons. The chapter concludes with a summary of major findings from the analysis.

6.1 Overview of Focus Lessons

The Focus Lessons selected for analysis in this chapter were sequential. As indicated in earlier chapters, lessons in this program were held twice a week on Tuesdays and Thursdays, so that the Focus Lessons extended over a two-week period. These Lessons represent a cohesive sequence in that they all related to the same unit-of-work (*Shi'ur 2*) in the Textbook.

The organization, structure and content of the four Focus Lessons, very closely reflect those of the Textbook's *Shi'ur 2* unit-of-work. Figure 6.1 below provides a summary of the purpose, sequence and content of each of the Focus Lessons; it also indicates the Textbook's clusters of activities in relationship of each Focus Lesson. This summary includes only core activities of the Focus Lessons, and provides background information and establishes the context for the more detailed analysis in the remainder of the chapter.

Table 6.1: Summary of four focus lessons

Focus Lessons	Description of activity	Language focus	Resources used in lesson	Extracts
First Focus Lesson	**Purpose: introduce vocabulary relevant to home/dwelling** (Textbook *Shi'ur 2*) **introduce grammatical structure of adjective-noun agreement (**word order and inflection)			
Core Activity 1	Introduction of new vocabulary through focus on apartment advertisement and floor plan practice of adjective noun agreement	New vocabulary: *apartment, large/big room, kitchen, shower, toilet/bathroom*	Textbook: exercise 1 – 2	6.1; 6.2;6.16
Core Activity 2	*yes or no* dialogue – simulated phone conversation between owner of apartment and prospective tenant: reading of dialogue; questions related to content of dialogue; students engage in creating own dialogues	Consolidation of vocabulary: *living room, small room, excellent/new/old/special /nice* creation of question/answer sequences in dialogues	Textbook: exercise 3 Magazine-pictures of apartments and their various rooms	6.3; 6.5A, 6.5B; 6.7 /6.19; 6.9A, 6.9 B; 6.15; 6.10; 6.17
Second Focus Lesson	**Purpose: Further focus on principles of word order and inflection; consolidate and extend vocabulary**			
Warm up				6.13; 6.26
Core Activity 1	Introduction of new adjectives, embedded within familiar nouns practice of familiar common greetings (emphasizing noun-adjective structure of greetings): further practice of noun-adjective agreement – now at sentence level	Adjectives and nouns: *big house, old toilet/bathroom/s new shower, small apartment, nice kitchen*; common greetings: *good morning/afternoon/ evening/night*	Textbook: exercise 4 - 5 Magazine-pictures of apartments and their various rooms	
Core Activity 2	Further practice of noun-adjective agreement Game involving use of flash cards to pair nouns and adjectives – two groups create grammatically correct and logical combinations of nouns and adjectives	Consolidation of familiar vocabulary and of adjective- noun sequences agreement	20 flash cards, 10 listing a noun and 10 listing an adjective	

Focus Lessons	Description of activity	Language focus	Resources used in lesson	Extracts
Core Activity 3	Building Jewish/Israeli cultural knowledge	Introduction of *old/modern/ ancient candelabrum*		6.6
Core Activity 4	Reading of text: *Tikho House* consolidation and extension of grammatical feature of agreement between nouns and adjectives; consolidation of new vocabulary	Reading: information text (students first access to text level reading) new vocabulary: *drawing/s, tree/s, sometimes; nice/pleasant; classical*	Textbook: exercise 6A-6C	6.4; 6.11
Third Focus Lesson	**Purpose: Consolidation of principles of word order and inflection; vocabulary practice**			
Warm-up				6.14A; 6.27A, 6.27B;
Core Activity 1	Reading of text: *Tikho House* text (cont.) further consolidation and extension of grammatical feature of agreement between nouns and adjectives; consolidation of new vocabulary	Reading: information text consolidation of recent vocabulary: *drawing/s, tree/s, sometimes; nice/pleasant; classical*	Textbook: exercise 6A-6C	
Core Activity 2	Developing more explicit knowledge of noun-adjective agreement: both regular and exceptional noun-markers practice of noun-adjective agreement; through series more challenging information gap exercises involving group and pair work	Reading of grammatical explanations provided in Textbook building on familiar vocabulary to complete exercises	Textbook: exercise 7-8 Information-gap worksheet	6.18;
Core Activity 3	Introduction of new grammatical structure: use of appropriate interrogative form of *which/what* to create questions to given answers	Questions and answers: introducing three interrogative forms in Hebrew that equate to *which* in English	Textbook: exercise 9 Textbook illustration	
Core Activity 4	Reading of text: *Caesarea* exercises to consolidate familiar vocabulary and relevant noun-adjective combinations that are embedded in the text	New vocabulary (masculine/feminine forms): *palace; amphitheatre; emperor/empress; ballet; named after; similar to*	Textbook: exercise 10A-10B	6.12

Focus Lessons	Description of activity	Language focus	Resources used in lesson	Extracts
Fourth Focus Lesson	**Purpose: further consolidation of principles of word order and inflection; consolidate and extend vocabulary**			
Core Activity 1	Reading of text: *Caesarea* (cont.) exercises to consolidate familiar vocabulary and relevant noun-adjective combinations that are embedded in the text (This activity completed the study of the Textbook *Shi'ur 2*).	consolidation of recent vocabulary*: amphitheatre; emperor/empress; ballet; named after; as/like*		6.8

* The transcription of the Focus Lessons is not provided as an appendix as it would have added an extra 50 pages to the thesis.

6.2 Key teaching & learning features in the Focus Lessons

The analysis in Chapter 5 of the case study Week 4 Lesson showed that the teacher generally adhered to the RIS principles underpinning the Australian university program. However, analysis of that Lesson also pointed to the significance of interplay between the more general RIS features and other more specific features. For example, when introducing new language the teacher made use of visual and other supports to demonstrate meaning, he modelled sequences of language interaction prior to asking students to respond, he provided opportunities for students' thinking time, and gave opportunities for repetition of language. As I argued in Chapter 5, it was the interplay between the general and specific that enabled implementation of the RIS features in ways that effectively supported students' learning. In what follows, I track key features across the four Focus Lessons to investigate the extent to which they were evident and ways in which they were brought to life in the classroom interactions between teacher and students.

Key features identified in Week 4 Lesson, which are further investigated in this chapter through analysis of the Focus Lessons include:

- Systematic and predictable structure of lesson and activities (6.2.1)
- Introduction of new language (6.2.2)
- Use of Hebrew to teach and learn Hebrew (6.2.3)
- Code switching (6.2.4)
- The role of handover (6.2.5)
- Feedback and feedforward (6.2.6)
- Affective and social factors (6.2.7)

As the analysis in Chapter 5 showed, there are inevitably overlaps between major features, but for the purposes of analysis, the features identified above are discussed separately. Due to variation in the complexity of different features, some features entailed a longer analysis than other features.

6.2.1 Systematic and predictable structure of lessons and activities

One of the most significant features of the RIS program is its structured approach to the teaching of Hebrew. A key element here is the sequencing of grammatical features to provide the major organizing principle in the Textbook's curriculum. A related feature is the systematic and structured sequencing of activities within the Textbook's units-of-work, each with a foreseeable three-part structure that embodies a shift from closed to open activities. The discussion of the typical structures of lessons in Chapter 5 (Section 5.1.5) provided evidence that there was a predictable order in the introduction of new language items and a recursive pattern of classroom interactions. Closer analysis of the Week 4 Lesson showed that its organization was consistent with this general pattern in terms of both its overall three-part structure and the phases within each stage of the Lesson. By drawing on Christie's notions of 'linear' and 'orbital' / 'satellite macrogenres, I was able to show that the two Core Activities in Week 4 Lesson had an orbital relationship with the Textbook's unit-of work: namely, that each Activity linked back to core language prescribed in the Textbook. I now turn to the Focus Lessons and address their overall structure, internal cohesion, and the relations between Core Activities.

As the above summary of the Focus Lessons and their Core Activities showed, teaching and learning was systematically structured around key grammatical features, in this case, agreement in number and gender between nouns and adjectives. So at least at a general level, the Focus Lessons can be considered consistent with the RIS principles, in terms of their overall organizing principle. A closer look at the Focus Lessons provides further insights into their structure and the nature of the relationships within and between lessons. Christie's (2002) notions of linear and orbital macrogenres are again relevant here. Figure 6.1 draws on these notions to provide a diagrammatic representation of the overall structure of the Focus Lessons and their respective activities, the relationships between and within Lessons and activities, and their relation to the Textbook.

Figure 6.1: Diagrammatic representation of Focus Lessons and their respective activities

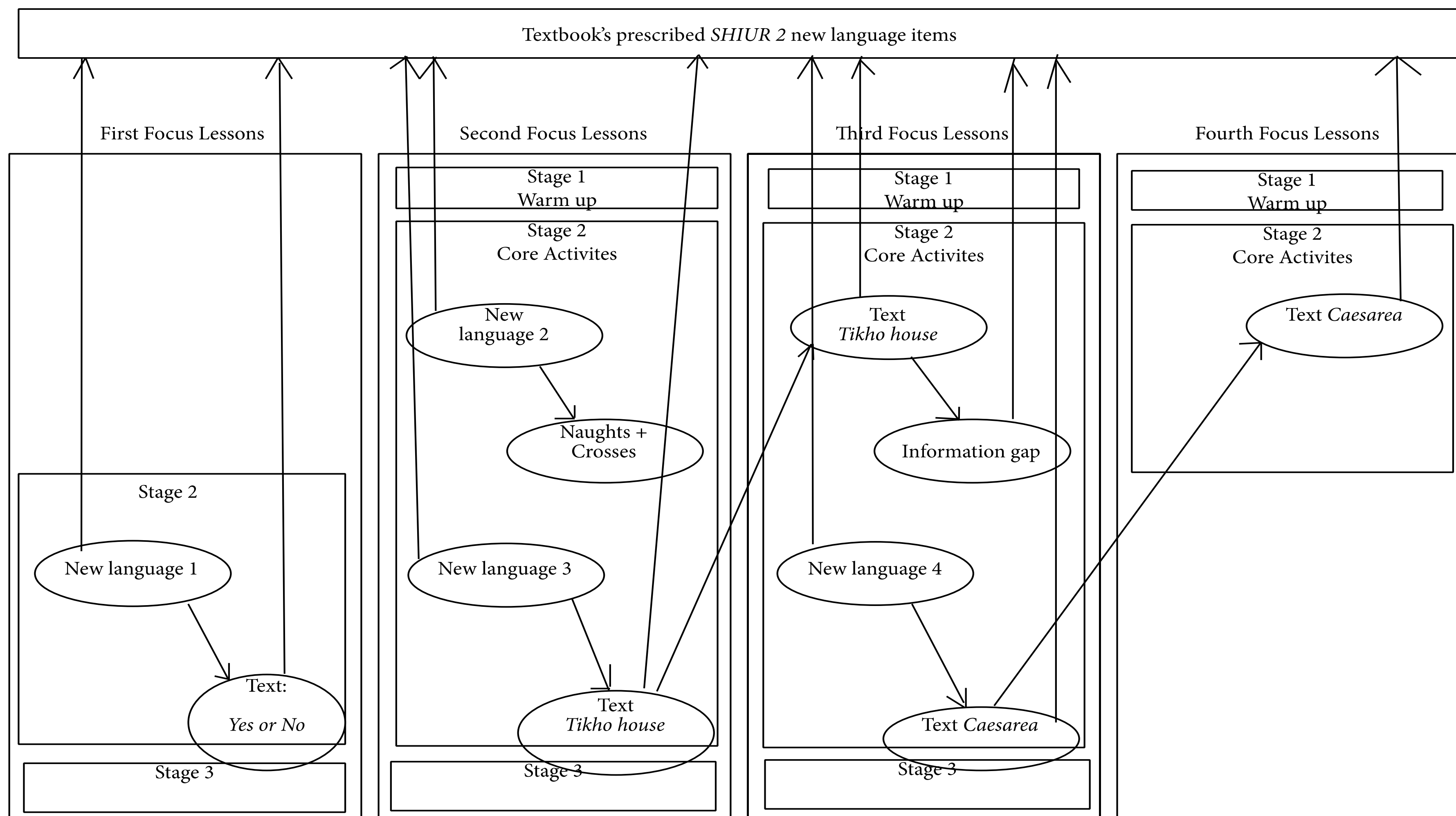


Figure 6.1 confirms the systematic internal structure of each of the four Focus Lessons. Each Lesson had a clear sequence of Stages. The teacher began each Lesson with a short Stage 1 Warm-up and/or a consolidation session, before beginning Stage 2's Core Activities; which focused on teaching and learning the prescribed new language. Finally, there was some variation in how Lessons ended – some included a final Stage 3 Wrap-up, others simply ended as the class ran short of time.

Figure 6.1 also provides insights into the nature of relationships within and between Lessons. Core Activities constituted the major part of each Lesson: here, new language was introduced, and students were provided with opportunities to practice it and build their knowledge of language previously introduced. The arrows within Figure 6.1 represent an attempt to capture the nature of cohesive relationships associated with the Core Activities. The Textbook is represented across the top of the diagram and the four Focus Lessons are positioned, left to right, across the page. Arrows highlight the link between the Core Activities in the Focus Lessons and the specified language structures and vocabulary in the Textbook unit. The arrows indicate that the content of each Activity was drawn directly from the Textbook. The pattern here is similar to that in Week 4 Lesson, and is consistent across the Focus Lessons. A major cohesive tie within and between Lessons thus would appear to be the orbital relationship that exists between individual Core Activities and the Textbook unit.

Figure 6.1 points to a second kind of relationship. In the first Focus Lesson, the language introduced in Activity 1 is reinforced in Activity 2 through students' participation in a dialogue. There would appear to be a linear relationship between the two Activities in the sense that the second builds directly on language introduced in the first. The second and third Focus Lessons are similar in that each Lesson introduces new language items (Activity 1) and then provides a follow up activity (Activity 2) with opportunities for students to consolidate and practice the language. However in these two Lessons there are four Activities. Activities 1 and 2 build on each other, and Activities 3 and 4 build on each other, but the two sequences in each Lesson link back to the Textbook's unit, rather than to each other. Thus cohesive relationships in the second and third Focus Lessons appear to be both linear and orbital: linear, in that some Activities build directly on what has gone before; and orbital, in that sequence of Activities link back to the Textbook. In the fourth Focus Lesson, Activity 1 is a

continuation of Activity 4 in the third Focus Lesson, and hence it builds in linear fashion on what has gone before.

It may seem obvious that Activities in sequences of lessons should be linked to form a cohesive whole, and in one sense Figure 6.1 simply confirms that there are links within and between the four Focus Lessons. However, an understanding of the nature of the cohesive links within a language program provides a basis for understanding how knowledge of the target language is systematically introduced and built on. In the four Focus Lessons it would appear that, overall, cohesion in the program derives primarily from following the Textbook unit, with most Activities drawing content and structure from that unit. Thus the organizing principle of grammatical structure that is evident in the Textbook also provides the organizing principle that shapes the structure of the Focus Lessons. But in addition, the cohesion of the program is strengthened by direct linear ties between some Activities, both within and between lessons. These linear ties appear to be especially important when the teacher improvises by introducing additional activities (Noughts & Crosses, Quiz, etc.). Here the teacher builds directly on what has gone before to provide students with access to additional practice of specific language structures. The coexistence of different kinds of cohesive links within the program appears to offer greater flexibility to the teacher in planning and sequencing tasks within and between Lessons.

In sum, like the Week 4 Lesson, the four Focus Lessons are clearly and systematically structured. They incorporate the RIS organizing principle of grammatical structure; they have a consistent three-stage structure of Warm-up, Core activities and (usually) Wrap-up. As in Week 4 Lesson, Core Activities constitute the major component of each Focus Lesson and each of these has a consistent internal structure, contributing to the overall recursive and predictable nature of lessons. Like Week 4 Lesson, the Focus Lessons have strong cohesive ties to the relevant Textbook unit, but, in addition, the Focus Lessons provide evidence of linear ties between some Lessons and some Activities. The consistent structure and organization of lessons across the program is significant in enabling students to predict how these will unfold, and what is expected of them in classroom interactions.

6.2.2 Introduction of new language items

Analysis of Week 4 Lesson pointed to the systematic way in which new language was introduced and the role of the three part Stage structure within lessons; and the three part Phase structure within Activities. The analysis also highlighted some of the specific ways in which this occurred: the teacher made use of visual and other supports to demonstrate meaning; he modelled sequences of language interaction prior to asking students to respond; he provided students with thinking time; and he provided opportunities for repetition of language. In addition, from first meeting the students, the teacher established the principle that Hebrew is taught and learned by using Hebrew. Thus, even when students had no knowledge of Hebrew, the teacher introduced and interacted with them primarily in Hebrew. In what follows, I investigate the extent to which these general and specific features are evident in the four Focus Lessons.

The principle, of introducing and teaching Hebrew by using the language, was evident in all Focus Lessons. It typically began in one of two ways. The teacher either invited the students to draw on language they already knew to 'conjure/guess' new language, or he modelled new items by saying and repeating them, then asking students to repeat them. Typically, the teacher also supported the introduction of new language with some kind of visual support (illustrations and/or gestures), and he usually wrote the new language on the board, thereby providing a model of the item's written form. The following Extracts illustrate these procedures. Extract 6.1 is from the beginning of Core Activity 1 in the first Focus Lesson.

Extract 6.1 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 1

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK, MA ZE'---------?*	*Ok, what's that--------?*	T points to the illustration in the Textbook
2 Tal	*[…] BAYIT??*	*house??*	
3 Ethel	*BAYIT*	*house*	Very quietly uttered; repeats to her-self?
4 T	*ZE […] BAYIT , OK, KEN, ZE BAYIT*	*that's […] a house, ok, yes, that's a house*	Uses intonation to imply this is not quite the required answer
5 Ethel	Ehh, it's an apartment	Ehh, it's an apartment	
6 T	*AH, OK, ZOT* an apartment, or unit, *EHH.. MA ZE BE-IVRIT* apartment*?! DIRA!*	*ah, ok that's* an apartment, or unit*, eh, what's that in Hebrew* apartment*?! apartment*	
7 Several	*DIRA = DIRA = DIRA*	*apartment = apartment = apartment*	Some English chatter
8 T	*DIRA, OK, DIRA---? DIRA---?, OK, […] DIRA---? DIRA AĤAT , HERBE' -----?*	*apartment. ok, apartment ---? apartment --- ? ok […] apartment--- ? one apartment, many----?*	T writes *DIRA* on board. Walks back to front of class; some class chatter.
9 Eliza	*DIROT*	*Apartments*	
10 T	*YOFI, DIROT. DIRA [-----] DIROT, KMO […] […] KITA [..] KITOT. DIRA DIROT.*	*Lovely, apartments. apartment [---], apartments, as […] class [---] classes. apartment, apartments.*	

As the Extract shows, the teacher introduced the new vocabulary item *apartment* first by pointing to the Textbook illustration of the apartment plan, and asking *what's that?* (move 1). He thus invited students to draw on language they already knew to guess the new word. Following Tal's offer of the Hebrew *BAYIT* (*house*) and Ethel's echoing of it (moves 2 and 3), which the teacher accepted with some reservation (as expressed by his intonation; move 4), Ethel then provided the English word 'apartment' (move 5). The context was then set for the teacher to introduce the new word, which he did by modelling *DIRA* (*apartment*) (move 6), then encouraging the students to repeat (move 7) and 'mirror' him (Wei 1999). The teacher then proceeded to elicit the plural form *DIROT* (*apartments*), which Eliza correctly provided (move 9). In response, the teacher emphasized that the newly introduced singular and plural forms *DIRA-DIROT* are similar to the already known forms *KITA-KITOT* (*class-classes*) (move 10). Thus in addition to introducing the L2, the teacher encouraged students to link new learning with previous knowledge. Yet, he did not explicitly point out that the two nouns have the same morphological structure. The teacher's pedagogic practice of pointing back to previous learning and building on it had been evident since early in the semester.

Extract 6.2 illustrates slightly different procedures for introducing new language. The Extract is also taken from Activity 1 in the first Focus Lesson, and it shows how adjectives are, for the first time, formally introduced. To remind readers, already in the Week 4 Lesson, the teacher had used adjectives in his own speech, making the most of a teaching moment (Hammond & Gibbons 2005) presented by a student's (Tony) speech; yet, he let that moment pass without diverting the exchange from its main focus, which was the introduction of the structure '*where to -> to…*'. On a number of occasions, the teacher used adjectives in his own speech, exposing and sensitizing the students to noun-adjectives phrases. Thus, whilst students had been exposed to discourse that included adjectives, Extract 6.2 represents the first time that adjectives, as noun modifiers, were formally introduced.

Extract 6.2 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 1

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*HA -[.] SALON, [..] HA-SALON, [..] ZE' ĤEDER* ***G-ADOL […] .*** *KEN [..], HA-SALON [.] ĤEDER GADOL. ZE'* [..] *ĤEDER LO GADOL, ZE […] ĤEDER* ***KA-TAN****,[..] KATAN [..]. ĤEDER [……] YESH MITBAĤ VE-[..] YESH ĤEDER, [..] MITBAĤ VE-ĤEDER.*	*the [.] living-room [..] the living-room [..] is a* ***big*** *room […]. yes? [..] the living-room [.] is a big room. this is* […] *not a big room , this is [..] a* ***small*** *room ,[..] small […]. room […]there's a kitchen and [..] there's room [..] a kitchen and a room..*	T holds Textbook in RH pointing to 'living-room' illustration with LH; gestures 'largeness' by opening both hands to the sides. Points to illustration's smaller *toilet/bathroom*; gestures 'small' by closing LH's thumb and fore/index finger; moves to board, writes *ĤEDER* and *MITBAĤ*.
2 Tal	I didn't get that	I didn't get that	Ss copy language; Tal's comment private speech?
3 T	*OK, AZ GADOL , KATAN,* [………] *[..], EHH [..], YESH, YESH BA-DIRA [..] SHEROUTIM. MA YESH BA- BA-****ĤE****DAR ----? BA-****ĤE****DER SHEL HA-SHEROUTIM?! […] BA-****ĤE****DAR [..] SHEL HA-SHEROUTIM, YESH SHEROUTIM […] VE-YESH GAM -----------? MA YESH GAM--------? YESH PO SHEROUTIM, VE-YESH GAM […] MAYIM [..], KEN?* ***MIKLAĤAT*** *[..] MIKLAĤAT-------?*	*ok, so, big, small* […………] *well [..], ehh [..], there, there's in the apartment [..] toilet/bathroom. what's in the* ***ro****om--------? in the toilet/bathroom room --------? in the toilet/bathroom [..] room, there's toilet/bathroom [..] and also---? what also----? here there's toilet/bathroom , and also […] water [..], yes? shower […]shower----------?*	T pauses for four seconds allowing students time to copy. T emphasizes the pronunciation of the guttural/pharyngeal חin ***ĤE****DAR,* flicks his LH in a beat when uttering *YESH SHEROUTIM.* Points to students, inviting to answer, none respond. Gestures 'running water' by moving LH fingers up and down above head several times to introduce new word *shower;* repeats *shower* utilizing questioning intonation
4 Tal	Shower?	Shower*?*	Questioning intonation
5 T	Shower *MIKLAĤAT [………] MIKLAĤAT*	Shower *shower […………] shower*	T moves to board and writes the word; students copy it.

At this point in the activity, students were familiar with items introduced shortly beforehand: *SALON* (*living-room),* *MITBAĤ* (*kitchen*), and *SHEROUTIM* (*toilet/bathroom*). The new items were the adjectives *DAGOL* (*big*) and *KATAN* (*small*), and the noun *MIKLAĤAT* (*shower*). As Extract 6.2 shows, the teacher's oral modelling of new items was embedded in language that was already familiar to students. In addition, his speech often included stressed intonation; slower pace; and, when feasible, supported by gestural cues. For example, in modelling the masculine-singular form of the new adjectives, *G-ADOL* (*big*) and *KA-TAN* (*small*) (move 1), the teacher's speech was slower and his pitch stressed. Concurrently, he used gesture to illustrate the concept of size by opening his hands to indicate 'big/large', and by closing his thumb and index finger to indicate 'small'. Soon after, he introduced the new noun *shower* by gesturing water running down onto his head (move 3). As well, in modelling words containing the pharyngeal (guttural) ח: ***ĤE****DAR* (*room*), *MITBAĤ* (*kitchen*), and *MIKLAĤAT* (*showe*r), he stressed this sound/consonant. He also wrote these words on the board (moves 1, 3 and 5, respectively), adding these to the previous items, hence relating the very 'new language' to the recently introduced and thus familiar language.

Extracts 6.1 and 6.2 provide examples of the teacher's typical and recursive manner of introducing new language. As these Extracts show, when introducing a new item, the teacher typically modelled the item, and often included stressed intonation and slower speech. He engaged students in sequences of predictable questions and answers where he moved from the known to the unknown.

The other Focus Lessons provide similar examples of ways in which new language items were introduced. These are consistent with the procedures identified in the Week 4 Lesson. Across the Focus Lessons there is evidence the teacher made consistent and systematic use of strategies such as modelling new language items, utilizing illustrations and gestures to support meaning, exploiting pacing and intonation patterns to emphasize new learning, and focusing on the pronunciation of new vocabulary. He first introduced new items in oral mode, but then provided written backup to aid memorization. He also systematically provided opportunities for students to link new language with language already familiar to them, and he encouraged them, often incidentally, to develop and build knowledge about language systems as lessons proceeded. He habitually used the

Textbook as a resource, but also supplemented it with his own materials and activities. The strategies identified here have been characterized by van Lier as ‘relating the new to the known’ (1995, p. 39), and constituting a process of ‘negotiation of meaning’ (2000, p. 247). These strategies enabled students to have time to hear, understand, and begin internalizing new and unfamiliar sounds, words and structures, while interacting with the teacher and other students and engaging in the target language.

6.2.3 Using Hebrew to teach Hebrew

As noted in Chapter 4, the principle of using Hebrew to teach Hebrew is one of the major informing principles of the RIS approach. The analysis in Chapter 5 of the Week 4 Lesson confirmed that this was also a key principle in the case study program, although there was some flexibility, with the teacher being prepared to use English on some occasions during the Lesson. In what follows, I investigate the extent to which the principle of using Hebrew to teach Hebrew is evident in the four Focus Lessons. Then in the following section (6.2.4), I address the related issue of code switching: at what points and why did the teacher and students switch between Hebrew and English, and how this impacted on students' learning.

As Chapter 5 has shown, from the very first encounter with students, the teacher established the principle that Hebrew is taught and learned by using Hebrew. The principle was evident in pedagogic practices across the case study program with the consequence that the great majority of classroom interaction between teacher and students took place in Hebrew. As discussed, this principle was clearly evident in the four Focus Lessons. Extract 6.3 from Core Activity 2 in the first Focus Lesson exemplifies some of the ways in which this principle was realized. As well, it illustrates ways in which other features worked together to enable students to learn Hebrew though the medium of Hebrew. Extract 6.3 represents part of ‘reading for understanding’ of the Textbook's *yes or no* dialogue (p. 125). The teacher began the Activity by reading the entire dialogue. He then asked questions using familiar language, to introduce the prescribed new and unknown adjectives *YASHAN* (*old*) and *ĤADASH* (*new*). In doing so, he provided a context where students could infer the meaning of these new adjectives as well as their function as noun modifiers.

Extract 6.3 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK, TOV, EHH, OK, AZ, EH […] AIZE* INFORMATZIYA AL HA-DIRA--? INFORMATZIYA, AL HA-DIRA? ZOT DIRA TOVA O LO TOVA-------?*	*Ok, well, eh, ok, so, eh* […] *what* information, information about the apartment--? information about the apartment? this apartment* {f.s} *is good* {f.s} *or not good* {f.s}*-------?.*	T. directs question generally to the whole cohort; introduces adjectives as noun modifiers for the first time; T. uses the non-grammatical *AIZE**{m.s} instead of *EIZO* {f.s} (this will be officially introduced in the third Focus Lesson
2 Lucy	[Undecipherable]	[Undecipherable]	possibly *don't know*, or *living room* in French accent
3 T	*LO, LO YODIM, LO YODIM. AT LO YODA'AT? OK, MA AT **KEN** YODA'AT, YODA'AT AL HA-DIRA?MA YESH BA-DIRA ---- ? MA YESH BA-DIRA -----? SALON, NAKHON, MA OD?MA YESH BA-DIRA?*	*Don't, don't know? don't know? you don't know? ok, what **do** you know, know about the apartment? what's in the apartment -----? living-room, yes, what else? what's in the apartment?*	T. directs question to Lucy; whilst using the appropriate feminine singular form
4 Sarah	*MITBAĤ?*	*Kitchen?*	Uncertain intonation
5 T	*NAKHON, YESH MITBAĤ. MA OD? [..] MA YESH OD------------? ĤEDER------------?*	*Correct, there's a kitchen. what else? [..] what else is there---------? room--------?*	T. uses cued elicitation and provides thinking time
6 Mic	*ĤEDER KATAN*	*Small room*	
7 T	*ĤEDER KATAN […] YESH ĤEDER KATAN. RAK ĤEDER KATAN?*	*Small room* […] *there's a small room. just a small room?*	T. confirms S's response
8 Tal	*VE-ĤEDER GADOL?*	*And a large room?*	
9 T	*VE-ĤEDER GADOL, NAKHON. YESH SALON, YESH ĤEDER KATAN, YESH MITBAĤ, MA OD YESH----? MA OD YESH BA-DIRA---------?*	*And a large room, correct. there's a living-room, there's a small room, there a kitchen, what else------? what else there's in the apartment-------?*	T. consolidates previous responses and provides cued elicitation to encourage students' further responses
10 Mic	*MIKLAĤAT*	*Shower*	
11 T	*MIKLAĤAT*	*Shower*	T. confirms S response
12 Mic	*IM, EH, SHEROUTIM*	*With, eh, a bathroom*	
13 A T 13 B T	*NAKHON, YESH MIKLAĤAT IM SHEROUTIM,[……] MIKLAĤAT IM SHEROUTIM,* *HA-DIRA **ĤADASHA** O **YESHANA**? **ĤADASHA** O **YESHANA**? [……………]* *ZE [.] SEFER LO ĤADASH,, ZE' SEFER*	*Correct, there's a shower with a toilet/bathroom, [……] shower with a toilet/bathroom* *the apartment is **new*** {f.s} *or **old*** {f.s} ***new** or **old**?[…………]* *this book* {m.s} *is not a new* {m.s}, *this book is old this [..] book is **new*** {m.s}. *this is old, old, yes. new,*	T. confirms S response and elaborates T raises his Textbook, whilst walking down the classroom towards Mike who's sitting at the end of the room. Picks up Mike's new Textbook to demonstrate *new*; alternating between raising his old Textbook and Mike's

	YASHAN. *ZE [..] SEFER* ***ĤADASH****. ZE YASHAN, YASHAN, KEN, ĤADASH, YASHAN* *OK, MA ZE' ĤADASH?*	*old,* *ok, what is 'new'?*	new Textbook to demonstrate *new* and *old* respectively. T. asks students to use English to confirm their understanding
14 Several	new	New	
15 T	*VE'-YASHAN?*	*And old?*	
16 Several	old	Old	
17 Tal	= that's cute		
18 T	*OK ĤADASH VE-YASHAN*	*Ok, new and old*	T. again confirms understanding in Hebrew

In Extract 6.3 the teacher began the dialogue by modelling the feminine-singular noun-adjective phrase *DIRA TOVA* (*good apartment*) (move 1). As both words were familiar, this phrase served as a further 'hook' for the teacher to draw in the more recently introduced items (moves 3, 5, 7 and 9, respectively). These cues produced: *kitchen* from Sarah; *small room*, *shower*, *toilet/bathroom* from Mic; and *big room* from Tal (moves 4, 6, 10, 12 and 8, respectively). The teacher then introduced the so far unknown adjectives *new* and *old*, by doing the following: he first modelled the feminine singular phrases *DIRA ĤADASHA* (*new apartment*) and *DIRA YESHANA* (*old apartment*); he then modelled the masculine singular phrases *SEFER YASHAN* (*old book*) and *SEFER ĤADASH* (*new book*), whilst concurrently gesturing to his 'old book' and Mike's 'new book' (moves 13). Thus, by using Hebrew, and 'hooking' the new and unknown to the known, the teacher modelled Hebrew's noun-adjective structure, both feminine and masculine without resorting to English. Only subsequently, did he check students' understanding by asking for the English equivalent of *new* and *old* (moves 13B-18).

Extract 6.4, from Core Activity 4 in the second Focus Lesson, provides further illustrations of ways in which the teacher used Hebrew to teach it. It formed part of the 'reading for understanding' of the text *Tikho House*. The 'reading' of this text followed a different process from that of the discussed above '*yes or no'* dialogue. Rather, in this Activity, the teacher asked one or two leading questions pertaining to the information in each paragraph, before either reading this portion of *Tikho House* out-loud or instructing the students to read it silently. In that way, the text unfolded progressively as the cohort worked together to comprehend its meaning. At the point where Extract 6.4 begins, the cohort was half way through reading the text, and had reached a section that contained the new and unknown adjective *NEĤMADA* (*nice/pleasant* {f.s}).

Extract 6.4 Second Focus Lesson – Core Activity 4

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	Souvenirs exactly, *BA-ĤANOUT YESH* souvenirs.. *OK AZ, YESH ĤANOUT, ĤANOUT KTANA [..] VE-YESH EHH TAL, YESH GAM ĤANOUT VE-GAM MISA'ADA, MISA'ADA, OK MISA'ADA MA---? MISAADA ---?*	Souvenirs exactly, *in the shop there's* souvenirs. *ok, so, there's a shop, small shop* [..] *and there's, eh, Tal, there's also a shop and also a restaurant, restaurant, ok. restaurant, restaurant what--? restaurant ---?*	T. confirms Ss responses and cues Ss to attempt to pronounce new word
2 Mike	*NEĤMADA*	*Nice* {f.s}	S responds to T's cue
3 T	***NEĤ--MA--DA,*** *NEĤMADA,; POSITIVI? NEGITIVI?; NEĤMADA*	***Ni--ce****, nice. positive? negative?, nice;*	T accepts S's response using slower and stressed intonation
4 Lucy	= What's *POSITIVI?*	= What's *positive?*	S speaks quietly
5 T	*= =POSITIVI O NEGATIVI? [.] NEĤMADA-----? POSITIVI* [..] So what can it be, *MISA'ADA NEĤMADA---?* Like what? *[…] POSITIVI, OK? MISA'ADA NEĤMADA, ,* what can it be? […]	*= = Positive, or negative, nice---? positive* [..] So what can it be, *nice restaurant----?* […] Like what? […] *positive, ok? nice restaurant,* what can it be? […]	
6 Tami	Great	Great	
7 Mic	*= TOV ME'OD*	*= very good*	
8 Mike	= = Special	= = Special	
9 T 10:48:28	*TOV, MEYOUĤAD, OK NEĤMAD, OK* Ok, have a look at page one twenty six, *YESH […] ISH GADOL, BESEDER, VE-YESH ISH KATAN [..] OK? HA-ISH HA-GADOL NEĤMAD, NEĤMAD,. HA-ISH HA-KATAN LO NEĤMAD, LO NEĤMAD,*	*Good, special, ok, nice* {m.s.}, *ok* Ok, have a look at page one twenty six, *there's* […] *a big man*, 126, *there's a big man, alright, and there's a small man* […], *ok? the big man is nice, nice. the small man is not nice. not nice*	T points to these who suggested meanings. The Textbook's illustrations are of a big smiling man and a small grumpy man.
10 Tal	=Ohhhhh	=Ohhhhh	Possibly understands
11 T	*== LO NEĤMAD, OK?*	*= = Not nice, ok?*	
12 Tal	Ohh	Ohh	Possibly understands
13 T	*HOU LO NEĤMAD*	*He's not nice.*	
14 Tal	No	No	
15 T	You're not even looking	You're not even looking	Reprimand intonation
16 Tal	No, the little person, I saw	No, the little person, I saw	
17 T	*KEN, HOU LO NEĤMAD. MA ZE' NEĤMAD?*	*Yes, he's not nice. what is nice?*	
18 Lucy	*SIMPAT** simpatique	*Simpat*,* simpatique	Heavy French accent

19 T	*SIMPATY, TOV,* simpatique, nice.	*Simpatic, good,* simpatique, nice.	

The teacher commenced the above exchange by recasting information students provided shortly before. He then used the known word *restaurant*, to elicit the new and unknown adjective *NEĤMADA* (*nice/pleasant* {f.s}; moves 1). Following Mike's correct conjecture (move 2), the teacher modelled the word whilst uttering it slowly, stressing each syllable, providing several repetitions, as well as supporting students' understanding by utilizing the borrowed English adjectives, *POSITIVI* (*positive*) and *NEGATIVI* (*negative*) (moves 3 and 5). The three responses: 'great'; '*very good'*, 'special' (moves 6-8) demonstrated the students understood the general meaning of the adjective, yet none provided the exact English equivalent. Continuing to draw out the precise English translation, whilst repeating *nice* five times, the teacher directed the students to look at the Textbook's illustrations on p. 126. These depicted three men, who, respectively, bore the captions '*big man*, '*good guy'*, and '*small man'* (move 9). He then repeated *not nice* twice (moves 11 and 13), as well as reprimanding Tal for not looking at the illustration (moves 15-16); before asking again *what is nice?* (move 17). Finally, the teacher utilized Lucy's conjuncture of the French word 'simpatique' (move 18) to provide the exact English equivalent 'nice' (move 19). As was evident in Extract 6.4, although the exchange was conducted primarily in Hebrew, the teacher was prepared to switch to English at strategic points to confirm students' understanding.

To sum up, these Extracts provide two of many examples from the Focus Lessons that illustrate the teacher's pedagogical practice of using Hebrew to model new language, to elicit Hebrew from the students, or even to 'push' (Hammond & Gibbons 2005), them to use new language. The exchanges that occurred in Extracts 6.3 and 6.4 were typical of many others in the Focus Lessons, and throughout the entire collected data. By using Hebrew to teach and learn the language, the teacher was able to model the language, first repeating it orally several times whilst supporting his speech with visual props, gestural cues, and then in writing, and then gradually handing over the usage to the students. In discursive interactions with students the teacher was also able to recast students' utterances, and to appropriate some of their answers by feeding these back into the discourse (Lyster & Ranta 1997). As Extract 6.4 shows, the interaction was conducted in Hebrew except for one brief moment where the teacher asked students to reply in English as a way of confirming their understanding. Here, the teacher incorporated students' English utterances into the learning process whilst ensuring that

Hebrew remained the matrix language. As the two Extracts have shown, the teacher was prepared to make brief use of English at certain points to maintain pace and ensure students' understanding.

The teacher's and students' views on the principle of using Hebrew to teach Hebrew are relevant here. As indicated in Chapter 5, this principle was central to the teacher's pedagogic approach, as he aimed to create a *Hebrew atmosphere* in his classrooms. Students also became very positive about this principle. In one of the mid-lesson interviews, the students provided feedback that strongly supported this principle, as well as the practice of involving them in the negotiation of meaning process. Examples of students' comments include:

Tal	I think it's important, like when he doesn't give us the word in English, it's like important for us to try and guess what the word is and put it in context, cause then by having to work it out in our own heads … we remember it more instead of going 'right this word is this' and it just kind of goes away, but if you work it out yourself, it's like you know this, and then you write it down and you remember it.
Tony	I think it's better to guess the meaning rather than to just translate to English cause it's like kids learn language.
Tami	It like makes the process of thinking, like you don't do as much translating from English like into a different language if you learn it in the context of that language to start with.

In their final group interview, students further commented on this principle:

Mic	I love being challenged**,** and I think it's really important that we are challenged in the class, because it's really the only place I'm being challenged. But I also get nervous that I misinterpret things, and would very much like to get an English interpretation provided, but it comes at the end of the class its fine. Yes, I like the challenge.
Eliza	…also if it's not hard, if it's all kind of spoon-fed, it's a waste of time. I'm saying that it's really good that he's always keeping it in Hebrew
Tami	I think it's good because once it gets into your head, even though it might take longer than its English explanation, you sort of keep it in your head for longer. But I like guess it's something I still don't know whether *HOLEKH* means 'to go' or 'to walk' specifically, .. because I knew what it meant in an abstract way so I knew how to use it in context. I was sort of like cool. It wasn't that much of an issue to me because everyone was using it in different contexts, so I just assumed that it meant 'going' than just specifically 'walking', you know what I mean?
Sarah	Yes when T. does explain and use the word in Hebrew, people don't know the exact meaning of the word. Like they'll understand the context and

	everything, but often if he doesn't afterwards say like, 'that [Hebrew lexis] literally means that [English]' people won't know the exact meaning. But I think the Hebrew is better because it's more interactive; instead of just writing a list this means this, this means this; it's a better way to learn.

6.2.4 Code switching: the strategic use of English

The principle of using Hebrew to teach Hebrew is central to both the RIS and the case study programs. However, as the discussion in Chapter 5 showed, and the analysis of Extracts 6.3 and 6.4 confirmed, the case study teacher was also prepared to make limited but strategic use of English to facilitate pace and clarity of lessons. Analysis of the Week 4 Lesson showed that although the teacher used Hebrew consistently in exchanges with students, he also made some use of English to provide instructions on tasks, or to clarify understanding of grammatical points. He also appeared to be more tolerant of students' use of English when they were engaged in more open classroom activities. The following section addresses the extent to which the use of English in the Focus Lessons is consistent with the findings of the Week 4 Lesson.

Confirming students' understanding and clarifying meaning of Hebrew

There were a number of instances across the Focus Lessons where the teacher had first introduced a new vocabulary item via the medium of Hebrew, but then confirmed students' understanding by asking them to provide its English equivalent. Examples of this included:

> Lesson 1: confirmed understanding of adjectives *new* and *old*; (Extract 6.3)
> Lesson 2: confirmed understanding of *old city*; *for example*; *garden*; and *sometimes*;
> Lesson 3: confirmed understanding of the word *weekend* (Extract 6.14A); the interrogative *which* {m.s}; as well as *question*; and *named after*;
> Lesson 4: confirmed understanding of *today*

Most of these instances involved a very short interjection in English to clarify or confirm meaning before the classroom interaction reverted back to Hebrew. These appeared to be instances 'when the cost of the TL [became] too great' (V. Cook 2001, p. 418), and they typically followed students' failure to understand the teacher's attempts to introduce the new item whilst using only Hebrew. Extracts 6.3 and 6.4 provided

examples where the teacher and/or students included a short English interjection. However, as Extracts 6.5A and 6.5B demonstrate, in one instance, code switching required a number of moves to clarify the meaning.

Extracts 6.5A and 6.5B are taken from the first Focus Lesson and, chronologically, they follow from the introduction of the four adjectival forms of *big* and *small* (Extract 6.2). Here, the teacher introduced the adjective *YAFA* {f.s}, which corresponds to English's 'pretty/beautiful/lovely'. The teacher attempted to elicit the meaning of *YAFA* by asking whether Nicole Kidman, and subsequently Julia Roberts, are beautiful, assuming the students would recognize the actresses as exemplifiers of 'beautiful women' and so realize the meaning of *YAFA*.

Extract 6.5A First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	***AVAL*** *HE LO ĤADASHA VE-LO YESHANA, AVAL HA-DIRA* ***YAFA. YAFA,*** *YAFA [..] NIKOLE KIDMAN YAFA?*	***But*** *she's* [the apartment {f.s}] *not new and not old, but the apartment is* ***beautiful. beautiful****. Beautiful [..] Nicole Kidman is beautiful?*	T writes *beautiful* on board
2 Tal	*LO*	*No*	
3 Mike	*= LO YAFA*	*=Not beautiful*	
4 T	*LO? TOV, BESEDRER.[..] YAFA -----?EHH MIC? [..] NIKOLE KIDMAN YAFA?---*	*No? well, alright.[..] beautiful---------? , ehh Mic,[..] Nicole Kidman is beautiful?*	
5 Mic	[….] ehhh	[…] ehhh	
6 Eliza	What's beautiful?	What's beautiful?	Private discussion Eliza-Tal-Tami
7 Tal	Like pretty or beautiful or something	Like pretty or beautiful or something	Private discussion Eliza-Tal-Tami
8 T	*LO--- ? TONY, NIKOLE KIDMAN YAFA?*	*No ---? Tony, Nicole Kidman is beautiful?*	Private discussion Eliza-Tal-Tami
9 Tami	To like, Tom Cruise, like seriously	To like, Tom Cruise, like seriously	Private discussion Eliza-Tal-Tami
10 Tal	I know, like	I know, like	Private discussion Eliza-Tal-Tami
11 T	*TONY, ATA YODE'A ME ZOT NIKOLE KIDMAN?*	*Tony, do you know who Nicole Kidman is?*	T addresses whole cohort- continuation of move 8
12 Tony	*LO*	*No*	Increased classroom discussion in background
13 T	*NIKOLE KIDMAN? OH [..] OK,* she's is an, ah, actress	*Nicole Kidman? Oh [..] ok,* she's an, ah, actress	
14 Hanna	*Ohhhh*	*Ohhhh*	Possibly understanding
15 T	*OK, JULIYA ROBERTS, JULIYA ROBERTS YAFA?*	*Ok, Julia Roberts, Julia Roberts is beautiful?*	
16 Eliza	Oh, I love her	Oh, I love her	Private discussion Eliza-Tal-Tami
17 T	*JULIA ROBERTS-----?*	*Julia Roberts-----?*	T addresses whole cohort- continuation of move 15
18 Tal	= She has like good teeth	= She has like good teeth	Private discussion Eliza-Tal-Tami
19 T	*= = JULIYA ROBERTS [.] YAFA?*	*== Julia Roberts [.] is beautiful?*	
20 Tony	Um, *YAFA* what does it mean?	Um, *beautiful* what does it mean?	
21 T	***YA-FA[AAA],*** *EH,EH, EM, EH [..] SYDNEY [..] IR YAFA; IR YAFA; HA-OPERA SHEL SYDNEY YAFA'; EH, HA-MONA LISA [..] YAFA?*	***Beautiful[lll]****, eh, eh, em, eh [..], Sydney [..] is a beautiful city; beautiful city; Sydney Opera House is beautiful, eh, the Mona Lisa [..] is beautiful?*	Stresses / elongating last syllable ***YA-FA[AAA];*** *IR (City), Opera House, Mona Lisa* are feminine nouns

As can be seen, the teacher's attempts in Hebrew to illustrate the meaning of the new item, *YAFA* (*beautiful/pretty/lovely*,{f.s}) by inquiring whether Nicole Kidman, and subsequently, Julia Roberts, are beautiful (respectively, moves 1, 4, 8, 11 and 15, 17, 19), were not understood by all students. Whilst Tal, Mike, and possibly Eliza (moves 2, 3, 6) appeared to have grasped the general meaning, Mic and Tony (moves 5, 12) appeared not to. The teacher's switch to English, 'she's an, ah, actress' (move 13), as his additional reference to Julia Roberts, failed to clarify the meaning of *YAFA* to Tony (move 20). Therefore, the teacher attempted to provide further exemplifications of *beautiful* {f.s} by referring to other feminine nouns: *city, opera*, *Mona Lisa* (move 21). Continuing with this line of dialogical exchange, he also asked whether Sydney, Paris, and Jerusalem are beautiful cities, but these elicitations were still not clear enough, as Tal (Extract 6.5B) required further English clarification:

Extract 6.5B First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Tal	What's the meaning like [..] I don't know […] *?*	What's the meaning like [..] I don't know […] ?	S asks in English
2 T	*MA?*	*What?*	T responds in Hebrew
3 Tal	of *YAFE'?*	Of *beautiful* {m.s*}?*	
4 T	*EH NIKOLE KIDMAN YAFA? AT, AT OMERET LO, NIKOLE KIDMAN LO YAFA*	*Eh is Nicole Kidman beautiful? You, you say no, Nicole Kidman is not beautiful*	T provides further elicitations
5 Tal	No but is is, is, is like beautiful?	No but is is, is, is like beautiful?	S insist on English clarification
6 T	*KEN* [……] Also can mean good, ok?	*Yes* [……] Also can mean good, ok?	T responds in English
7 Eliza	Is that the same as when someone says *YOFI*?	Is that the same as when someone says *YOFI*?	
8 T	*EM, KEN, YOFI […] OK, EM [..] OK, AZ HA-DIRA LO* ***ĤADASHA AVAL*** *YAFA, HA-DIRA YAFA, HA-DIRA YAFA VE'****-ME-YOU****–Ĥ****E-DET***	*Em, yes, lovely […]. ok, em […] ok, so the apartment is not* ***new but*** *beautiful. the apartment is beautiful. the apartment is beautiful and* ***spe-ci-al***	T leads discussion back to topic

As can be seen, it was a student (Tal) who initiated code switching here in order to seek further clarification of the Hebrew. It is likely that *YAFA,* which correlates with three different English words, 'pretty', 'beautiful' and 'lovely' caused confusion and resulted in the unusually extensive use of English. However, and significantly, even in this instance which required an extended interaction in English to clarify meaning, code-switching did not result in the interaction being diverted from the main purpose of introducing the new items *beautiful, special, excellent*.

Utilizing L1 to clarify students' knowledge of Hebrew culture / 'world knowledge'

As discussed earlier (Chapters 2 and 4) Jewish/Israeli cultural knowledge has always been intrinsically related to Hebrew instruction. In the case study, a second type of code switching between Hebrew and English occurred across the entire collected data at points where cultural understanding was enmeshed within language instruction. This type of code switching was evident in the Focus Lessons and included brief discussions and/or explanations of names that appeared in the Textbook: for example, Israel's first Prime Minister David Ben Gurion, leading reviver of Modern Hebrew Eliezer Ben Yehuda, and Israel's national poet Ĥayim Naĥman Bialik.

A further slightly longer diversion to English occurred in the second Focus Lesson during a discussion of the Jewish festival of *Hanoukah* (literally 'dedication', referring to the Jewish Festival of Lights). This spontaneous 'beyond-the-curriculum episode' (Christie 2002) emerged in relation to the Textbook's new language items: *ĤANOUKIYA YESHANA* (*old candelabrum*), *ĤANOUKIYA MODERNIT* (*modern candelabrum*) and *ĤANOUKIYA ATIKA* (*ancient candelabrum*). This relatively long episode lasted four minutes (other L1 cultural episodes usually lasted less than one minute). The fact that a number of the case study students did not come from a Jewish cultural background and were unfamiliar with the festival of *Hanoukah* and its customs, led the teacher to provide the additional cultural explanation.

At the point the discussion began in Extract 6.6, the teacher was standing in the front of the room looking at his Textbook and pointing to the pictures of the three *candelabra*.

Extract 6.6 Second Focus Lesson – Core Activity 3

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*AZ ANAĤNU BE-AMOUD EĤAD SHTAYIM SHMONE BA-SEFER. AMOUD EĤAD, SHTAYIM, SHMONE, BA-SEFER. MA YESH […],MA YESH BE'* [..],*MA YESH PO?. EHH RAK REGA, RAK REGA*	*So we're in page one, two, eight in the book; page one, two, eight in the book. what's in* […], *what's in* [..], *what's in here?. ehhh, a one moment, one moment*	
2 Tami	What page?	What page?	
3 T	*EĤAD, SHTAYIM, SHMONE,* […] *EĤAD, SHTAYIM, SHMONE,* *MA YESH PO? MA ZE'?*	*One, two, eight,* […] *one, two, eight*	T moves towards Tami, pointing to the pictures in her Textbook, then returns to front of room, pointing to pictures in his Textbook
4 Eliza	*ĤANOUKA* stuff.	*Ĥanouka* stuff.	
5 T	*ĤANOUKA* stuff. *MA YESH BE'-ĤANOUKA?*	*Ĥanouka* stuff. *what's in Ĥanouka ?*	
6 Several	*MENOROT; = MENORAA; = MENORA*	*Lamps; = lamp; = lamp*	
7 T	*MENORA* [..], *OK* […], *EIZO?*	*Lamp [..] ok [..] which?*	T gesticulates 'so-so' with his RH
8 Tami	*ĤANOUKIYA*	*Ĥanoukiya*	
9 T	*ĤANOUKIYA KEN, ĤANOUKIYA ZE SPECIFY [.] ĤA-NOU-KI-YA* *ZOT ĤA-NOU-KI-YA, ĤA-NOU-KI-YA, ĤANOUKIYA. Eliza* [..] *ZOT MENORA SHEL ĤANOUKA* […] *ĤA-NOU-KI-YA,* [……] *ĤA-NOU-KI-YA* *OK, TONY, MA YESH BE'- ĤANOUKA? MA YESH BE'-ĤANOUKA?*	*Ĥanoukiya, yes, ĥaonukiya is specific [.]ĥa-nou-ki-ya* *It's ĥa-nu-ki-ya, ĥa-nu-ka, ĥanoukiya. Eliza [..] it's a ĥanouka lamp […]ĥa-nou-ki-ya […]ĥa-nou-ki-ya* *Ok, Tony, what's in ĥanouka? what's in ĥanouka?*	Some class chatter whilst T writes *ĤANOUKIYA* on board
10 Tony	Emm	Emm	Probably thinking
11 T	You can say that in English. *MA YESH BE'-ĤANOUKA -?*	You can say that in English. *What's in ĥanouka?*	T invites S to provide an explanation in English
12 Tony	There's candles	There's candles	
13 T	Candles	Candles	T recasts
14 Tony	And […] like, diner with family	And […] like, dinner with family	
15 T	Dinner with family, [..] not exactly	Dinner with family, [..] not exactly	T laughs
16 Ethel	Light candles	Light candles	S provides further information
17 T	Light candles	Light candles	T recasts
18 Tony	Sing songs	Sing songs	

19 T	Sing songs; you eat specific foods, and you light the candles, each day you add a candle.	Sing songs; you eat specific foods, and you light the candles, each day you add a candle.	T recasts and adds information
20 Tami	*SHMONE'*	*Eight* {f}	S provides further information
21 T	All together eight. *NAKHON, SHMONA* {m} candles, *SHMONA NEROT BA- ĤANOUKIYA [..] ĤANOUKIYA, BESEDER? MIKE, ĤANOUKIYA BESEDER?*	All together eight. *correct, eight* candles, *eight* {m} *candles in the ĥanoukiya [..] ĥanoukiya, alright? Mike, ĥanoukiya, alright?*	candles *NEROT* is a masculine noun in Hebrew T confirms understanding
22 Mike	What does it mean exactly?	What does it mean exactly?	S asks for clear explanation
23 Tami	*ĤANOUKA*	*Ĥanouka*	S clarifies
24 T	*= YESH ĤANOUKIYA,* it's like a candlestick with a light. In *ĤANOUKA EHH*, it symbolizes, it symbolizes, the, the,	*= There's a ĥanoukiya,* it's like a candlestick with a light. In *ĥanouka, ehh* it symbolizes, it symbolizes, the, the,	T gesticulates the shape of a candle stick; possibly hesitates due to uncertainty of which information to provide rather than lack of knowledge – as seen in coming move
25 Ethel	When the Jews, when the Jews were trapped and they needed light for their lamps	When the Jews, when the Jews were trapped and they needed light for their lamps	S provides further information
26 Tami	To rebuild the	To rebuild the	S supplements
27 Ethel	Yeah,	Yeah,	
28 Tami	Yeah, and it lasted eight days.	Yeah, and it lasted eight days.	S provides further information
29 Hanna	Can you explain what *ĤANOUKA* is?	Can you explain what *ĥanouka* is?	S asks for clear explanation
30 T	*KEN, EHH,* [..] but [..] ok I'll say it in two words, you know the temple was destroyed in ancient time [..] And in the temple there was a big *MENORA* [..] You know what's *MENORA*?	*Yes, ehh,* [..] but [..] ok I'll say it in two words, you know the temple was destroyed in ancient time [..] And in the temple there was a big *menora* [..] You know what's *menora*?	T consents; utilizes gesture to illustrate 'big' and *MENORA*: opens and extends both arms to the sides for the former; uses both hands to gesticulate a bowl-shape for the latter
31 Mike	Which temple?	Which temple?	S side tracks discussion to focus on history of the Jewish Temple
32 T	*RAK REGA*	*Just a moment*	T moves to the board and draw a sketch of a traditional and prototypical *MENORA*
33 Eliza	*RAK REGA*	*just a moment*	S mirrors T
34 Mike	The Temple of Solomon	The Temple of Solomon	S provides incorrect info
35 T	Eh, yeah, I think [..] No the Second Temple, the Second Temple	Eh, yeah, I think [..] No the Second Temple, the Second Temple	T corrects info
36 Tony	The Second Temple	The Second Temple	S supports T's info
37 T	It was the Second Temple, but not Solomon's	It was the Second Temple, but not Solomon's	
38 Mic	Herod's	Herod's	S provides further correct info
39 T	Herod's, the Second but not Solomon	Herod's, the Second but not Solomon	T confirms

40 Mike	= No, no, no, the Second one is Solomon's. The first one was the Tabernacle of Moses.	= No, no, no, the Second one is Solomon's. The first one was the Tabernacle of Moses.	S argues against
41 T	No, the first one is Solomon's	No, the first one is Solomon's	
42 Mic	The Great Temple	The Great Temple	
43 Mike	The Second Temple	The Second Temple	
44 T	The First Temple was Solomon's	The First Temple was Solomon's	
45 Mike	Ok, I'm not Jewish	Ok, I'm not Jewish	S concedes; burst of laughter from other students
46 T	Ok. So, it's the Second and there was a *MENORA* and the Greeks destroyed the Temple and burnt it and also, eeh, and everything that was there. So they didn't have oil after the Greeks left, they didn't have oil to light the *MENORA*. So God made a miracle and they found a small jar with oil and the miracle was that it lasted for eight days instead of just one day. Ok, so that was the miracle, so we light the *ĤANOUKIYA*, we light the *ĤANOUKIYA*, why eight days----? It symbolizes that the oil lasted. That's the story actually. Emm, ok, so there's, *YESH PO KAMA ĤANOUKIYOT? KAMA ĤANOUKIYOT? KAMA ĤANOUKIYOT?*	Ok. So, it's the Second and there was a *menora* and the Greeks destroyed the Temple and burnt it and also, eeh, and everything that was there. So they didn't have oil after the Greeks left, they didn't have oil to light the *menora*. So God made a miracle and they found a small jar with oil and the miracle was that it lasted for 8 days instead of just one day. Ok, so that was the miracle, so we light the *ĥanoukiya*, we light the *ĥanoukiya*, why eight days----? It symbolizes that the oil lasted. That's the story actually. Emm, ok, so there's, *there's here how many ĥanoukiyot? how many ĥanoukiyot? how many ĥanoukiyot?)*	T accompanies speech with LH gesticulation. Some class chatter in background

As can be seen, the teacher first tried to draw from the students the knowledge pertaining to *Ĥanouka* and its customs using Hebrew (moves 1, 3, 5, 7 and 9, respectively). Realizing such knowledge might be beyond some students' world knowledge and beyond their knowledge of Hebrew, the teacher invited Tony to speak in English (move 11). As the transcript demonstrates, it was through a collaborative team-effort, primarily in English but also in Hebrew, that the required world knowledge was developed (moves 11-46). Following this quite extended exchange, the introduction of the new language resumed. Again, it is significant that the English code-switching in this event facilitated, rather than diverted the classroom conversation from the main focus of the activity- the introduction of the new item *candelabrum/a.*

Developing students' meta-linguistic understanding of Hebrew

A third instance of code-switching occurred when teaching and learning centred on developing students' meta-linguistic awareness and understanding. However, the usage of a new language structure always preceded its formal instruction, and code switching mainly functioned as a communicative tool 'to convey in one language what has been expressed in another' (V. Cook 2001, p. 417). Typically, the teacher used the new structure, treating it as a vocabulary item, then handed over usage to the students, and finally provided a functional explanation, with Hebrew preceding English.

Code-switching into English to support students' meta-linguistic awareness and understanding occurred across all four Focus Lessons. Examples of this included: explicit explanation of gender and agreement (across all Focus Lessons); explicit explanation of Hebrew adjectives and their modifying role (first Focus Lesson); discussion of 'tools' to identify the gender of nouns and, consequently, to modify adjectives (first and third Focus Lessons). Quite often, code-switching involved the utilisation of just a single word or short utterance in English: this occurred, for example, in the second and third Focus Lessons where the teacher used the English words 'feminine', 'masculine', 'singular', 'plural', 'gender', 'suffix', and the phrase 'adjective after the noun', to reinforce students' understanding of particular grammatical features.

Extract 6.7 illustrates the pattern that was evident in the Focus Lessons, and across the program as a whole, of learning Hebrew followed by learning about Hebrew. It also illustrates the role of code switching to consolidate students' metalinguistic awareness.

Extract 6.7 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK, RAK REGA, ANI OMER, ANI OMER ĤEDER GADOL […] ĤEDER GADOL, OK? AVAL DIRA GDOLA. LAMA? LAMA--? ĤEDER GADOL AVAL DIRA GDOLA?*	*Ok, just one moment, I say, I say, large room* […] *large* {m.s} *room, ok? but, large* {f.s} *apartment. Why--? why large room but large apartment?*	T pushes Ss to articulate, hence develop, knowledge about Hebrew as a system
2 Tal	*DIRA* is female	*Apartment* is female	S supports L2 utterance with L1
3 T	*DIRA female VE- ĤEDER----?*	*Apartment* female, *and room----?*	T recasts and pushes for further information
4 Mike	Masculine	Masculine	S provides answer available only in L1
5 T	Masculine, feminine. *AZ, ĤEDER GADOL, DIRA GDOLA. YESH KORELATZIYA*. Noun, adjective. *YESH KORELATZIYA BE-IVRIT.* It's very, very, very important. Tami, it's very important. You must internalize it. Please. Otherwise it will make a lot of problems in the future.	Masculine, feminine. *so, large* {m.s} *room, large* {f.s} *apartment. there's correlation* . noun , adjective. *there's correlation in Hebrew*. It's very, very, very important. Tami, it's very important. You must internalize it. Please. Otherwise it will make a lot of problems in the future.	T provides explanation with language tools available to the Ss T stresses the crucial element of agreement, hence drip-feeds for future learning and development
6 Eliza	Can you repeat that?	Can you repeat that?	
7 T	Because it's very different than English. Right? *ĤEDER GADOL ELIZA, AVAL DIRA* […] *LO DIRA GADOL, DIRA GDOLA BE-ANGLIT* it's different. *NAKHON* Eliza, *BE-IVRIT YESH KORELATZIYA. ĤEDER GADOL, DIRA GDOLA.* Fem* masculine; masculine; feminine; feminine. […] It's very, very, very, very important.	Because it's very different than English. Right*? large* {m.s} *room Eliza, but large* {f.s} *apartment* […] *not large* {m.s}, *apartment, large* {f.s} *apartment. in English*, it's different. *correct, Eliza, in Hebrew there is correlation. large* {m.s} *room, large* {f.s} *apartment.* fem masculine; masculine; feminine; feminine. […] It's very, very, very, very important.	T re-articulate agreement convention
8 Tami	So you have to always agree the adjective with the noun?	So you have to always agree the adjective with the noun?	
9 T	Exactly, the same set […] *KEN, ĤEDER GADOL, DIRA GDOLA.* […] *VE-ĤADARIM, ĤADARIM ---?*	Exactly, the same set […] *yes, large room, large apartment […] and rooms, rooms?*	T moves from explanation to modelling an example in singular, pushing Ss to provide plural form
10 Mike	*GDOLIM*	*Large* {m.pl}	
11 T	*ĤADARIM?*	*Rooms* {m.pl}?	T cues full utterance
12 Several	*GDOLIM*	*Large* {m.pl}	

13 T	*VE-DIROT?*	*And apartments*{f.pl}*?*	
14 Several	*GDOLOT; = GDOLOT* ; = *GDOLOT*; = *GDOLOT*	*Large* {f.pl}*; = large*; = *large*; = *large*	
15 T	= *GDOLOT* {f.pl}. Very different than English. Remember it. Write it on the wall on your bedroom next to your bed. Because otherwise I'm telling you, […] *TOV* [..]. *ĤEDER GADOL, DIRA GDOLA.OK*	= *Large* {f.pl}. Very different than English. Remember it. Write it on the wall on your bedroom next to your bed. Because otherwise I'm telling you, […] *well [..] large* {m.s} *room, large* {f.s} *apartment. ok.*	Third time that T repeats agreement convention, and stresses it crucial importance

The higher proportion than was typically the case of L1 utilization in this example, may be explained by the fact that the teaching and learning had reached a ‘key-point’ (Jacobson in V. Cook 2001, p. 412) – in this case, the teaching of the Hebrew grammatical convention of noun-adjective agreement. However, as the Extract shows, the teacher maintained his pedagogic practice of endeavouring to draw from the students themselves rules governing noun-adjective agreement, rather than provide them himself. In doing so he utilized both Hebrew and English (moves 1, 3, 9, 11, and 14). He then provided the explanation, first in Hebrew *there is correlation in Hebrew* (moves 5 and 7, respectively), then adding strong emphasis in English (moves 5, 7 and 15, respectively).

From Tal’s and Mike’s responses to the teacher’s explicit explanation of noun-adjective structure in Hebrew (moves 2 and 4, respectively), it appeared that both understood the notion of gender agreement between nouns and adjectives. Other students, such as Eliza (move 5), and possibly Tami (move 8), appeared less aware of this rule. Nonetheless, once the teacher provided the explanation in English, other students joined in the exchange, suggesting that the code switching clarification enabled them, at least implicitly, to understand the modifying nature of Hebrew adjectives (moves 12 and 14, respectively).

Students’ perspectives on the value of code switching are relevant here. During a mid-lesson interview, students were asked ‘whether the notion of agreement was clear to them prior to the teacher’s explanation?’ A number of students responded they had understood the teacher’s Hebrew explanation of adjective/noun agreement:

Tal	Adjective/noun correlation was clear, similar to verb /personal pronoun correlation
Tony	I’ve already known the using of adjectives before T told us. It’s from Hebrew Bible
Tami	Yes I understood what T was saying about grammar because it’s the same in most languages and common sense, and I’m doing it in French at the moment
Mic	I knew this, but T’s warning was an important reminder
Sarah	The correlation between the masculine and feminine when adding an adjective to a noun was already quite clear to me that it has to be done. However, when I am writing or speaking I don’t always remember
Mike	The adjectives and nouns should assimilate in almost all the Semitic languages, therefore I know

However, other students reported that the teacher's explicit English explanation was imperative to their understanding of gender agreement:

Eliza	gender correlation was not clear before T explained, but as soon as he did I knew the grammar rule from other languages
Ethel	Still really not clear didn't understand at first when T was telling us
Lucy	I understood immediately when he explained in English

As indicated earlier, all four Focus Lessons were built around the Textbook's same unit-of-work (*Shi'ur 2*), which focused on Hebrew's key grammatical feature of agreement in number and gender between adjectives and nouns. Extract 6.7 and the students' responses in the mid-lesson interview indicated that by the end of the first Focus Lesson, students had quite a good understanding of this language structure. In the second and third Focus Lessons the teacher continued emphasising number and gender agreement between adjectives and nouns by providing single words or short utterances in English to remind students of the relevant aspects of this structure. However his English explanation of adjective-noun agreement in the fourth Focus Lesson took the explanation a step further.

Extract 6.8 Fourth Focus Lesson: Core Activity 1

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
T	*AZ REĤOVOT KTANIM , OK REĤOVOT KTANIM […] REĤOVOT KTANIM […] OK,* because we have lots of exceptionals [sic], automatically you can't write the adjective; you have to think about it, you have to change it first to the singular form and make sure its ehh, ehh feminine or masculine. For example if you see the word *NASHIM* […] you won't immediately say *NASHIM YAFIM** […] *ISHA […] AVAL ISHA, ISHA, ISHA , ISHA YAFA, ISHA YAFA, […] OK ?* […] Not always, it won't help you always, sometimes, even, even the singular is exceptional, but lots of it helps, ok? *TOV, AZ, REĤOVOT KTANIM ;, ARMON----? ARMON----? ARMON----?*	*So small* {m.pl} *streets* {m.pl}*, ok, small* {m.pl} […] *small* {m.pl} […] *ok,* because we have lots of exceptionals [sic], automatically you can't write the adjective; you have to think about it, you have to change it first to the singular form and make sure it's ehh, ehh feminine or masculine. For example if you see the word *women* {f.pl} […] you won't immediately say *pretty* {m.pl} * *women* {f.pl} […] *woman* {f.s} […] *but woman, woman, pretty* {f.s} *woman* […] *pretty women* […] *ok?* […] Not always, it won't help you always, sometimes, even, even the singular is exceptional, but lots of it helps, ok? *well, so, small* {m.pl} *streets* {m.pl}*, palace*{m.pl}*----?palace ---? palace---?*	

Extract 6.8 shows the teacher providing students with a 'tool' to identify the gender of nouns: 'you have to change it [the noun] first to the singular form and make sure it's…feminine or masculine'. As the students progressed from the first Focus Lesson to the fourth Focus Lesson, they had multiple opportunities to visit and revisit the key feature of noun-adjective word order and agreement. These opportunities were available to them through their use of Hebrew during activities: through the teacher's strategic code-switching to emphasize and clarify understanding, and through their own code-switching in asking for further clarifications. Thus, students who initially had trouble understanding this key feature had multiple opportunities to build and practice their knowledge. In addition, as Extracts 6.7 and 6.8 showed, as students' usage and knowledge of Hebrew increased and developed, the teacher's explanations provided further details and meta-linguistic information. Thus, it appears that code-switching provided a valuable resource for supporting students' developing understanding of Hebrew.

Students' use of English to support L2 development

As discussed previously, while the teacher consistently insisted that classroom interactions be primarily carried out in Hebrew, analysis of Week 4 Lesson suggested that he was tolerant of students utilizing some English when they were engaged in more open activities involving group and / or pair-work: that is, when the activity was 'handed-over' to the students to work with peers, the teacher allowed them to make more frequent use of English. Analysis of the four Focus Lessons indicates that this was a consistent feature across the program. Thus, a further type of code-switching involved students switching between Hebrew and English during open Activities, to support their learning of Hebrew. While at times students engaged in off-task discussions in English (of weekend activities; television programs etc.), generally when they switched to English, it was to facilitate completion of tasks. This was evident, for example, in pair-work during the first and third Focus Lessons and in the Noughts & Crosses game activity in the second Focus Lesson.

Extract 6.9A and 6.9B are from Core Activity 2 in the first Focus Lesson. In this activity, the students, working in pairs, were engaged in role-playing to create independent conversations based on the Textbook's *yes or no* dialogue and the

magazine pictures of apartments and houses that the teacher provided. During the role-play, one student took the part of an inquirer and the other the part of a landlord (respectively the roles of *Uri* and *Yoseph* in the Textbook). As occurred in Week 4 Lesson, the noise level increased significantly during the pair-work task. As Tami and Tal sat closer to the recording device, their exchange was the clearest. Here, Tami plays the role of the inquirer, and Tal plays the landlord.

Extract 6.9A First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Tami	[……] *SHALOM* […] *ZE BEKESHER LA-DIRA*	[……] *Hello* […] *it's regarding the apartment*	Mirrors Textbook's opening utterance
2 Tal	*ZE' [...]*	*It's* [……]	
3 Tami	*YESH ĤADASH?*	*There's new?*	
4 Tal	*KEN, YESH [...] SHLOSH [...] HADASH*	*Yes, there's* […] *three* […] *new* {m.s}	
5 Tami	No it's wrong	No it's wrong	Tami's intonation suggests self-correction rather than response to Tal (move 4)
6 Tal	*ĤEDER*	*Room* {m.s}	
7 Tami	*GADOL** […] I want to say	*Big* {m.s}* […] I want to say	
8 Tal	*GADOL*	*Big*	
9 Tami	But is it meant to have […] how do you say […],Ok, so I say *ZE ĤADASH* it's new	But is it meant to have […] how do you say […], Ok, so I say *it's new* it's new	L1 supports L2 utterance
10 Tal	Yeah, *KEN* how do you say [undecipherable]	Yeah, *yes* how do you say [undecipherable]	The rest of Tal's utterance was in Hebrew but is undecipherable
11 Tami	How do you say what?	How do you say what?	
12 Tal	*YESH* […] *em* […] *DIRA ĤADASH* VE-DIRA GADOL**	*Yes* […] *em* […] *apartment* {f.s} *new** {m.s} […] *and apartment* {f.s} *big** {m.s}	Lack of noun-adjective gender agreement
13 Tami	*KEN [...] ZE ĤEDER* […] how do you say again? […] ok, I'll just say instead […]	*Yes* […] *it's a room* […] how do you say again? […] ok, I'll just say instead […]	L1 supports L2 utterance
14 Tal	*ZE' SHEROUTIM*	*It's* {m.s} *toilet/bathroom* {m.pl}	
15 Tami	*IM MIKLAĤAT*	*With a shower*	
16 Tal	*SHEROUTIM,* isn't it toilet? Isn't *MIKLAĤAT* shower?	*toilet/bathroom*, isn't it toilet? Isn't *shower* shower?	L1 supports L2 utterance
17 Tami	Does *SHEROUTIM* mean bathroom, or is it just toilet?	Does *toilet/bathroom*, mean bathroom, or is it just toilet?	Seeks peer support
18 Tal	Oh […] I'm not sure, hold on hold on	Oh […] I'm not sure, hold on hold on	S turns to look through her Textbook
19 Tami	Can I say *YESH ĤEDER SHEROUTIM [...] IM [...] MIKLAĤAT?*	Can I say *there's toilet/bathroom room* […] *with* […] *shower?*	Seeks peer support
20 Tal	Does the room with the toilet has [sic] a shower? Oh […] hold on	Does the room with the toilet has a shower? Oh […] hold on	Laughs; and turns to consult the Textbook

The co-constructed conversation between Tami and Tal began mainly in Hebrew (moves 1-4), but at points when their knowledge of Hebrew was strained, then initially Tami (moves 5, 7, 9) and then Tal (moves 10, 16, 18, 20) switched between Hebrew and English. Hebrew was used to advance the role-play: '*it's toilet/bathroom'; 'with a shower*'; while English was used to negotiate the required Hebrew phrases or vocabulary: 'how do you say…'; 'isn't it toilet'; 'I'm not sure, hold on'. English was also used to negotiate adjective-noun agreement (moves 9-12). As the role-play progressed, the pair engaged in further negotiation about the specific meaning of *SHEROUTIM* (*toilet/bathroom*) (moves 17-20) and increasingly switched to English.

At that point in their exchange the teacher intervened, and, addressing the entire cohort, clarified the following: firstly, that in Israel, the number of rooms in a home includes all rooms, not just bed-rooms; and secondly, possibly in response to Tami's uncertainty (move 19), that *SHEROUTIM* {m.pl} means both toilet and bathroom. Tami and Tal then resumed their exchange:

Extract 6.9B First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Tami	*[...] BA-SHEROUTIM YESH MIKLAĤAT*	[……] *In the toilet/bathroom there's a shower*	
2 Tal	*YESH MIKLAĤAT AĤAD* VE- SHEROUTIM YA—FIM*	*There's one** {m} *shower* {f} *and beau--tiful toilet/bathroom*	The masculine form of the numbers has not been introduced, yet Tal, incorrectly, uses it.
3 Tami	A good, *TOV. HA-MITBAĤ, YASHAN O ĤADASH?*	A good, *good. the kitchen , new or old?*	
4 Tal	*HA-MITBAĤ [...] ĤADASH*	*The kitchen is* […] *new*	
5 Tami	*GAM ĤADASH [...] WOW* Ok, do you want to ask me because there is nothing else to ask, is there?	*Also new* […] *wow* [……] Ok, do you want to ask me because there is nothing else to ask, is there?	Tal laughed and a short pause follows
6 Tal	*EIFO HA-DIRA?*	*Where's the apartment?*	
7 Tami	[…] Oh, where is the apartment?	[…] Oh, where is the apartment?	
8 Tal	ehem, make something up	Ehem, make something up	
9 Tami	*EMM, HA-DIRA BE' [...] BE'*-Balmain west	*Emm, the apartment is* […] *in* Balmain west	
10 Tal	*ZE LO TOV ANI LO ROTZA HA-DIRA*	*It's no good I don't want the apartment*	laughs

Tami and Tal were much more effective in this second attempt. They successfully used the newly acquired noun-adjective phrases *beautiful toilet/bathroom* {m.pl} and *kitchen new or old?* {m.s}(moves 2-5), even though Tal's use of numbers was non-grammatical '*one* {m} *shower* {f}'. Having run out of information to provide, Tami declared in English 'there is nothing else to ask' (move 5). Tal suggested a further question to continue the dialogue in Hebrew (move 6); however, both again switched to English to support their Hebrew speech (moves 7-10).

This pair-work activity provides some insight into the value for students of being able to work between languages. The role-play, which required the use of Hebrew, provided students with opportunities to practice new language. However, the freedom to discuss details in English while they co-constructed the dialogue provided them with opportunities to negotiate and clarify their meta- understanding of relevant aspects of Hebrew. That is, in the role-play activity, code-switching provided opportunities for students to reflect on and enhance their own Hebrew language development, and provided opportunities to integrate use of language with knowledge about language.

Utilizing L1 to manage classroom interaction and task instructions

A final type of code switching that occurred in the case study program was essentially regulative (Christie 2002) whereby the teacher briefly switched to English in order to direct students to sections of the Textbook, to explain specific tasks, to organise pair or group work, or to explain self-study requirements. While overall reliance on English to manage classroom procedures progressively decreased as the semester progressed, the Focus Lessons provide evidence of the teacher's fluctuating use of English and Hebrew in his regulative speech.

The use of English to regulate was perhaps most obvious when the teacher explained self-study. Typically assignments were discussed at the end of lessons, with the teacher giving clear instructions on what the tasks were and how to complete them. Extracts 6.10, 6.11 and 6.12 illustrate ways in which the teacher switched between languages to explain self-study (homework) tasks.

Extract 6.10 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	Comments
T	Em, guys, you don't have more time, we have to continue with it eh, next lesson, what I want you to do at home, em, read again the dialogue, it's a difficult dialogue, a lot of new words, ok, read it again, make sure you understand it, and then, write an ad, it's here the instructions, write an ad for this apartment according to the dialogue above. So you write an ad that includes all the information, all the details. Use as many adjectives as you can, and make sure […] it's, it's in the right form; feminine, masculine, plural, singular, ok? Think about it, it's not simple. [………] Ok so you have to write an ad, and em, eh, shh Mic, and I want you to describe your house, and use the words that we studied ok? Nouns and adjectives, describe your apartment, your home, your house, your room, whatever […] ok? Describe it and try to use as many words as you can, nouns and adjectives, and in the right form, ok, think about it.	T

Extract 6.11 Second Focus Lesson – Core Activity 4

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*EH OK, AZ LIFA'AMIM YESH KONTZERTIM SHEL MOUZIKA KLASIT. BESEDER, YOFI; EH* at home I want you to do page one hundred and thirty, the next page, eh, ok *MA YESH BE'-BEYIT TIKHO;* and I also want you to write about, eh, house, eh, a museum, or a *BAYIT-MUZE'ON*, that's actually the second exercise. Exercise *BET* and exercise *GIMEL*. Exercise *GIMEL* they're asking you to write about a museum you know, or maybe a house-museum, *BAYIT-MUZE'ON*, ok, that you know. [……………………] *OK, AZ ATEM KOTVIM BA-BAYIT AL BAYIT-MUZE'ON, BAYIT-MUZE'ON,* and maybe use the text that we just read as a model to your writing, ok? Try to make it similar with words that you know, ok? So that's, I want you to write around eh, a hundred words. Like an essay, so […]	*Eh, ok, so sometimes there's concerts of classical music. Alright lovely, eh,* at home I want you to do page one hundred and thirty, the next page, eh, ok *what's in Tikho House;* and I also want you to write about, eh, house, eh, a museum, or a *house* the second exercise. Exercise B and exercise C. Exercise C they're asking you to write about a museum you know, or maybe a house-museum, *house-museum*, ok, that you know. [……………………] *ok, so you write at home about a house-museum, house-museum,* and maybe use the text that we just read as a model to your writing, ok? Try to make it similar with words that you know, ok? So that's, I want you to write around eh, a hundred words. Like an essay, so […]	T's utters self-study instructions in whilst code-switching between Hebrew and English
2 Tami	= How many words? A thousand?	= How many words? A thousand?	
3 T	Exactly, a thousand […] a hundred.	Exactly, a thousand […] a hundred.	

Extract 6.12 Third Focus Lesson-Core Activity 4

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
T	*TOV, BA-BAYIT, BA-BAYIT* Last thing that I'm asking you to do, eh, it's, ahh […] exercise *BEIT* on page *AĤAT, SHALOSH, ARBA.* You just have to write *MA BA-IR HA-ATIKA VE'-MA BA-IR HA-ĤADASH, EHH ,[…] AĤAT, SHALOSH, ARBA […], EHH ,BEIT ARMONOT. TOV, GAM […]*	*Well, at home, at home* Last thing that I'm asking you to do, eh, it's, ahh […] exercise *B* on page *one, three, four.* You just have to write *what's in the ancient city, and what's in the new city, eh,*[…] *one, three, four* […], eh *B* […] *palaces. well, also*	T's utters self-study instructions in Writes page and exercise number on board
Eliza	*= BE-VAKASHA*	*= Please*	S reminds T of 'magic word'
T	**[…]** ok, so that's it. *TODA RABA […] LE'HITRAOT BE'- […] YOM ĤAMISHI,* Thursday. […………] Of course you have to read the text again before answering it.	**[…]** Ok, so that's it. *thanks very much […] see you on […] Thursday,* Thursday. […………] Of course you have to read the text again before answering it.	

As seen in Extracts 6.10, 6.11 and 6.12, there was significant use of English by the teacher when handing out self-study tasks. A number of factors are relevant here. Where students lacked the necessary understanding of Hebrew, the teacher utilized English to convey instructions. By using English, he could ensure that the self-study tasks were absolutely clear. He could also save time, a relevant factor since self-study was typically given-out at the end of lessons. The other point to note is that across the four Focus Lessons the teacher's utilization of English decreased: instructions in the first Focus Lesson, to write an advertisement based on the Textbook's *yes or no* dialogue, were entirely carried out in English; in the second Focus Lessons, instructions to write another *BAYIT-MOUZEON* (*house-museum*) text, and to complete the Textbook's exercises, were uttered in a mixture of English and Hebrew; in the third Focus Lesson, the teacher's instructions were entirely in Hebrew.

To sum up, findings from analysis of the Focus Lessons, in regard to use of English in the case study program, confirm the outcomes from Week 4 Lesson that code-switching played a consistent and important role across the program in supporting students' learning of Hebrew. Moreover, analysis of the Focus Lessons provides further insights into the quite nuanced ways in which code switching juxtaposed students' language development, by showing that both teacher and students consistently instigated use of English at various points and for specific reasons. Table 6.2 provides a summary of the major types of code switching that were evident in the Focus Lessons.

Table 6.2: Summary of code switching in the focus lessons

Teacher's instigation and use of English	Students' instigation and use of English
To confirm understanding and/or clarify meaning of a Hebrew language item	To clarify meaning/ confirm comprehension (and to ask help from teacher and/or peers)
To clarify/extend knowledge of Hebrew culture	To fill gaps in knowledge about Hebrew culture
To support learning about Hebrew as a language (metalanguage development)	To support their own metalanguage development
	To negotiate understanding of Hebrew vocabulary and grammar (in open tasks)
To regulate classroom instruction	To clarify instructions

As this summary suggests, there was a close relationship between the teacher's and students' purposes for code-switching to English. Both used English: to confirm understanding of specific language items (most frequently); to build or clarify

understanding of relevant aspects of the cultural context; to clarify or extend students' metalinguistic understanding of Hebrew as a system; and to explain or clarify how to complete tasks. In these cases, usually the teacher made more extensive use of English than students. However, when engaged in more open-ended and independent tasks, the students made frequent use of English to negotiate and clarify their understanding of specific features of Hebrew. Code-switching in such tasks provided opportunities for practicing the language, as well as opportunities to learn about the language.

Students' own views are relevant here as they testify to the value of English in teaching and learning Hebrew. In the Final Group Interview, students' comments on the issue of code switching included:

Hanna	For me I think it's very, very hard if he doesn't explain in English When he introduces one new word like a verb or something, he often uses four or five times and still I tend not to understand what he's talking about. Then if he doesn't explain, if he doesn't confirm the meaning in English then I'll get lost for the rest of the class. … And I think for me English translation, I don't want T to say one word and like literally translate it I think it will be helpful if he actually use it a lot and then confirm this in English so I definitely understand what he's talking about.
Ethel	I have to say the same as Hanna. I mean sometimes if he points at something or like he uses a word that I recognise like *HOLEKH MISA'DA* well its ok you're obviously like eating something or doing something. But yeah sometimes I'll have to look at the summary or ask somebody and it just disrupts the lesson unless I specifically say 'what does it mean in English?'

Students also commented on the role of English in completion of open tasks:

Tal	We can't like carry a conversation in Hebrew as yet, so if we have to discuss an idea or something we can't construct a conversation about it, so yes
Ethel	Yeah, I have to agree. It helps your understanding it; if like you put it into English and then you translate it back to Hebrew and then you go yeah that means that.

6.2.5 The role of handover

A further finding that emerged from the analysis of the Week 4 Lesson indicated that handover was a significant feature in the way the teacher supported and encouraged students in their learning. From the sequencing of activities from closed to more open, it was evident that handover took place from one lesson to the next, and from one Activity

to the next. There was also evidence, with the internal phase structure of Activities, that handover took place within the one Activity as students moved from one phase to the next. In this section, I address the extent to which handover is also evident in the Focus Lessons, and the extent to which it is significant in the program as a whole.

Handover between lessons

The selection of four Focus Lessons for follow up analysis provides the possibility of addressing evidence of handover between lessons in the case study program. The overview summary of the Focus Lessons presented earlier in the chapter (Section 6.1) is relevant. It showed the Focus Lessons were built around the Textbook's *Shi'ur 2* and its key teaching point of noun-adjective agreement. Much of the work in these Lessons addressed the grammatical convention of noun-adjective order and agreement, and was 'situated' in descriptions of homes / dwellings and their rooms (although later Activities in the third and fourth Focus Lessons included more diverse topics). The Focus Lessons' summary showed related purposes between Lessons: of introducing vocabulary relevant to the topic of homes / dwellings and of introducing the grammatical structure of adjective-noun agreement with a focus on word order and inflection (First Lesson), then ongoing consolidation of the principles of word order and inflection, and of vocabulary practice (Second and Third Lessons). The summary thus provides evidence of overall cohesion between the Lessons, and, as argued earlier, it also provides evidence that this cohesion was primarily based on a combination of linear and orbital relationships (Christie 2002) between the Lesson and the Textbook's unit. Although the summary is too general to provide strong evidence of handover between Core Activities from one lesson to the next it does point to the significance of the initial Warm-up (Stage 1) in each lesson in opening up opportunities for handover.

As with Week 4 Lesson, the teacher began each of the Focus Lessons with a Warm-up session, and, in turn, began each Warm-up session by posing questions related to students' daily experiences. Usually he opened with the question *MA ATEM OSIM BE-SOF SHAVOUA?* (*what are you doing on the weekend?*) (using present, rather than past tense, as students had not yet learned past tense). By the time of the Focus Lessons (weeks 10-11 of the semester), students were familiar with this routine: many voluntarily responded to the teacher's lead questions and needed little prompting to join

in the discussion. Significantly, the Warm-ups which were a prominent feature in the case study were not referred to explicitly or implicitly in any of RIS' publications.

Extract 6.13, taken from the beginning of the second Focus Lesson, illustrates the opportunities for handover that were provided by the Warm-up sessions. To remind the reader, students had been introduced to noun-adjective agreement in the first Focus Lesson. This included whole cohort introduction of new language study, mini handover, pair-work activities, brief explicit English explanations, and self-study.

Extract 6.13 Second Focus Lesson – Stage 1 Warm-up

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*EH, BESEDER, AZ YESH, YESH SERET., SERET---?*	*Eh, alright, so there's, there's a movie. movie---?*	
2 Eliza	*SERET?*	*Movie?*	*movie* -first introduced in Week 4 Lesson (Extract 5.3B)
3 T	*SERET. MA ZE' SERET-----?*	*Movie, what is movie----?*	
4 Several	movie= movie	Movie; = movie	
5 T	Film. *YESH SERET* ***IM [..]*** *RICHARD GERE VE'-JULIYA ROBERTS*	Movie. *there's a movie* ***with*** *[..] Richard Geer and Julia Roberts*	
6 Several	Pretty Woman	Pretty Woman	Shouting answer
7 T	*BE'-IVRIT [..], BE'-IVRIT HA-SERERT---?*	*In Hebrew [..], in Hebrew the movie ---?*	
8 Several	*YAFE'* = YAFA ISHA*= YAFA ISHA**	*Pretty* {f.s}**= woman pretty* = woman pretty **	Follow English's adjective-noun order
9 T	*EHH, SLI ĤA, SLI ĤA?*	*Ehh, excuse me, excuse me?*	
10 Several	*YAFA ISHA**	*Woman pretty**	Follow English's adjective-noun order
11 T	*ISHA---- ?*	*Woman---?*	T cuing Hebrew's noun-adjective order
12 Lucy	*ISHA YAFA*	*Pretty woman*	Correct noun-adjective order
13 Sarah	*ISHA YAFA*	*Pretty woman*	
14 T	*LO, YAFA ISHA*, BE'-ANGLIT YAFA ISHA. BE'-IVRIT---?*	*Not woman pretty*, in English woman pretty*. in Hebrew---*	T gestures 'no' with his RH
15 Mike	*ISHA YAFA*	*Pretty woman*	
16 Several	*ISHA YAFA*	*Pretty woman*	
17 T	*ISHA YAFA, LAMA?* Why?	*Pretty woman, why?* why?	T pushes
18 Lucy	Because the adjective is after the noun	Because the adjective is after the noun	
19 T	*KI BE'-IVRIT, BE'-IVRIT* the adjective comes after the noun […], not like in English. *ISHA YAFA*	*Because in Hebrew, in Hebrew,* the adjective comes after the noun […], not like in English. *pretty woman*	

As can be seen, the teacher used the Warm-up session to consolidate students' developing internalization and usage of Hebrew's noun-adjective order. He built on previous discussion from the first Focus Lesson by referring to the movie 'Pretty Woman' starring Richard Geer and Julia Roberts. Here, rather than uttering the movie's Hebrew title *ISHA YAFA*, he tried drawing it from the students (moves 1-7). They responded by uttering *YAFA ISHA,* incorrectly using the English structure of adjective before the noun. The teacher interceded, providing further cues (moves 9 and 11, respectively), but allowing space for the students to provide the correct title *ISHA YAFA* (move 12, 13, 15 and 16, respectively). He then highlighted the relevant grammatical rule while engaging in brief strategic code-switching (moves 17-19). Here, in contrast to the interaction that occurred in the first Focus Lesson's Core Activity (Extract 6.7), the exchange was relatively open. Although the teacher still initiated and intervened in the interaction, he provided more space for students to practice newly learned structures and, predictably, to make 'incorrect' utterances (as discussed in Chapter 2). The provision of such space afforded students with further opportunities for consolidating usage and knowledge of relevant language.

The shift from the more tightly structured interaction in the first Focus Lesson to the relatively open-ended exchange at the beginning of the second Focus Lesson represents at least partial handover of responsibility for learning to students. It provided them with opportunities to experiment with and practice this structure while being guided and supported as necessary by the teacher.

Extracts 6.14A and 6.14B show a different, and a more open-ended, kind of handover that was available in other Warm-up sessions.

Extract 6.14A Third Focus Lesson – Warm-up

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*YOFI, TOV, EH [..] MA [..] MA[..] ATEM […] OSIM [..] BE'-SOF-HA […] SHAVOU'A----? MA [.] ATEM [.] OSIM [.]BE'-SOF-HA-SHAVOU'A-----? SOF-SHAVOU'A--------?*	*Lovely, well. eh [..], what [..], what [..] do you* {m.pl} *[…] do* {m.pl} *[…] on the weekend? what [.] do you [.] do [.] on the weekend----? weekend-------?*	Slow speech T confirms meaning of *weekend* is understood
2 Several	Weekend	Weekend	Ss confirm understanding
3 T	Week**end**. *KEN, SOF-HA-SHAVOU'A […] MA [.] ATEM [.] OSIM [.] BE'-SOF-HA-SHAVOU'A* I hope you remember it.	Week**end**. *yes, the weekend* […] *what* [.] *do you* [.] *do* [.] *on the weekend?* I hope you remember it.	T re-confirms
4 Tal	*SHOTA HARBE'*	*Drink a lot*	
5 T	*SHOTA HARBE' […] KOL SOF-SHAVOU'A […] SHOTA HARBE'----------? KOL SOF-SHAVOU'A-------------? ZE' […]*	*Drink a lot […] every weekend…] drink a lot? every weekend--------------? Its […]*	
6 Tal	It's pretty much it	It's pretty much it	
7 T	*OK, KAMA? KAMA ZE' HARBE'----? KAMA--? KAMA ZE' HARBE---'?*	*Ok, how much? how much is a lot------? how much--? how much is a lot----?*	
8 Tal	Um [..] I don't know	Um [..]I don't know	
9 T	*BIRA AĤAT?, SHTAY BIROT?, SHALOSH BIROT? […]* ***ĤA****MESH BIROT?*	*One beer? two beers? three beers? […]* ***five*** *beers?*	
10 Tal	We haven't learnt to count that high	We haven't learnt to count that high	
11 T	Ok, you were not in a state that you can count, [..], *OK. OK* [..] *AZ, AT SHOTA [.] BIRA? YAYIN--? MA AT SHOTA--?*	Ok, you were not in a state that you can count, *[..], ok, ok [..] so you drink. beer? wine?*	
12 Tal	[…] Vodka	[…] Vodka	Hesitate intonation
13 T	*VODKA [..] WOW, OK [..] VODKA […] VODKA IM TAPUZIM?*	*Vodka?* [..] *wow, ok* [..] *, vodka* […]*, vodka with orange?*	
14 Tal	Um […] *OULAY,* sometimes, I don't know	Um […] *maybe,* sometimes, I don't know	
15 T	Sometimes? Sometimes ---?	Sometimes? Sometimes ---?	T prompts Hebrew word
16 Lucy	*LIFA'AMIM*	*Sometimes*	
17 T	*LIFA'MIM, [.] LIFA'MIM TAPUZI M LIFA'MIM---?*	*Sometimes, sometimes, oranges, sometimes --?*	
18 Several	[undecipherable]	[undecipherable]	
19 T	*LO, LIF-A-MIM […] LIFA'AMIM […]*	*No, some---times […], sometimes […]*	Writes word on board
20 Tal	That's what I said [………………] Oh, that's what I thought I had	That's what I said [………………] Oh, that's what I thought I had	

21 T	*OK, AZ TAL AT SHOA. IM ĤAVERIM? O LE'VAD---? O, [.] O RAK TAL?*	*Ok, so Tal, you drink with friend? or alone? Or [.] or just Tal?*	
22 Tal	Oh, that would be awful. No, *IM ĤAVERIM*	Oh, that would be awful. No, *with friends.*	
23 T	*IM ĤAVERIM. OK [.] ANI, [..] BESEDER. [..] AT SHOTA IM ĤAVERIM. [.]. IM ELIZA---?[.]. IM ELIZA---?*	*With friends. ok, i, [.] alright.[..] you drink with friends. [.] with Eliza--? with Eliza--?*	
24 Tal	Ah, no, *BA**- Newcastle.	Ah, no, *in the** Newcastle.	

As Extract 6.14A shows, the conversation topic, drinking on the weekend, was introduced by Tal (move 4) and then continued for the remainder of this exchange. The teacher intervened to prompt students to elaborate their responses (moves 5, 7, 11, 13) and also to prompt the use of specific Hebrew vocabulary (moves 15, 19). Otherwise the exchange proceeded, with some banter (moves 10, 11), with almost equal contributions from students and teacher. The teacher then addressed Ethel with the same question, but, as Extract 6.14B shows, Ethel diverted from the path thus far set, by relating that she studied on the weekend:

Extract 6.14B Second Focus Lesson – Warm-up

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*VE'-ETHEL, MA AT SHOTA BE-SOF SHAVOU'A?*	*And Ethel, what do you drink on the weekend?*	T poses question about drinking in the weekend
2 Ethel	*SHOTA?*	*Drink?*	
3 T	*MA AT SHOTA BE—SOF SHAVOU'A?*	*What do you drink on the weekend?*	T repeats question
4 Ethel	*LO, LO ANI […] LOMEDET*	*No, no, I […] study*	S changes topic of exchange
5 T	*HMM, ANI LO SHOTA, ANI ---?*	*Hmm, I don't drink, I ----?*	T prompts full sentence
6 Ethel	*ANI LO SHOTA, ANI LOMEDET*	*I don't drink, I study*	
7 T	*HMM, MA AT LOMEDET---------? AT ETHEL, AT ETHEL, AT ETHEL TALMIDA TOVA [.] AT TALMIDA METZOUYENET*	*Hmm, what do you study? you Ethel, you Ethel, you are a good pupil. [.] you are an excellent pupil.*	
8 Ethel	Yes	Yes	
9 T	*KEN*	*Yes*	
10 Ethel	*KEN*	*Yes*	

The teacher then continued asking each student '*what are you doing on the weekend?,* with each choosing what to relate: Tami discussed her weekend job; Mike related his Church activities; Hanna related eating in a restaurant; Tony reported on his supermarket shopping; Lucy recounted her trip to the Blue Mountains; Mic discussed his university assignments, as well as the fact that he sang in the shower; and Sarah reported that she worked in a café.

As Extracts 6.14A and 6.14B show, while the teacher initially took the leading role in the Warm-up session, he then relinquished control, allowing each student to choose the discursive path s/he wished to follow. In doing so, students were 'pushed' (Hammond & Gibbons 2005) to draw on their existing Hebrew language resources to make meaning. As the semester progressed, although retaining the same pattern of interaction, the Warm-up sessions became lengthier. Such interactions were co-constructed by teacher and students (Wells 1999): in Dörnyei & Murphy's words (2003, p. 96), they were 'a teacher led activity [where] learners are autonomous in choosing what to speak about and what language to use in their turn as the designated dialogical partner'.

As Extracts 6.14A and 6.14B showed, the teacher also continued to support students' use of Hebrew by repeating words or expressions several times, by recasting students' utterances, and by insisting on complete sentences rather than a one word response. In this sense the teacher continued to lead the interactions and provide support at strategic points, but at the same time he enabled students to take more initiative and responsibility for the interaction. The open-ended nature of such interactions represented substantial handover for students to experiment with their developing knowledge of the target language. In his final interview, the teacher explained the value of this kind of handover as follows:

> At Levels Aleph [A] and Bet [B] it's a way of revising words, so for me it's a type of revision. Usually, I include in it what we've learned in the previous lessons and it is not just 'what you did on the weekend' I often direct them to things we learned previously… So it is both 'what you did on the weekend' and maybe other things that I direct to. And the third thing is that it connects me to my own view that speaking is a learning need. It is very important to speak and [speak] something that is theirs. That is, they need to speak, it is important to speak and it's a way for speaking and it is something that they have chosen, not repeating a dialogue from the text or something intentional. They can choose

what to speak about and slowly, slowly it [speaking] also improves I think at [Level] Aleph.

Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

In sum, analysis of the four Focus Lessons provides evidence that handover between lessons occurred regularly in the case study program. This was most obvious in the connection between the content of one lesson and the Warm-up stage in following lessons. As Extract 6.13 shows, at times this involved direct practice of previously introduced language items, or as Extracts 6.14A and 6.14B show, at other times it involved a more open-ended discussion where students were encouraged to draw more broadly on the range of their L2 resources. In both instances, the open-ended nature of the interactions provided opportunities for students to initiate and experiment with language, to use it correctly and incorrectly and learn from both. Although in those interactions the teacher 'stepped back', it was significant that he continued to intervene to provide support, with both vocabulary and/or grammar, as necessary to ensure the interaction proceed with quick pace and ease.

Handover within lessons and within activities

Analysis of the Week 4 Lesson indicated that handover from teacher to students occurred within the one lesson. This was facilitated in particular by the sequencing of Core Activities within Stage 2 (the major component) of lessons. It was also facilitated by the three-part Phase structure within Core Activities. In this section, I address the question of whether handover was similarly evident within the Focus Lessons.

The sequencing of Core Activities in the Focus Lessons provides evidence that at the overall level of planning, there was space for handover to occur. The sequencing of Core Activities in the first Focus Lesson provides an illustration of this. (For the sake of brevity, I restrict discussion here primarily to this Lesson.) The first Focus Lesson began with introduction of vocabulary relevant to rooms in an apartment, the situation of renting an apartment, and the key grammatical structure of noun adjective agreement, as prescribed in the Textbook unit (*Shi'ur 2*). Extracts 6.1 and 6.2 were both from Core Activity 1, and demonstrated the ways in which the teacher introduced new language items. In each of these Extracts (6.1 and 6.2) the teacher dominated the interaction with

sequences of IRF exchanges. As the teacher introduced new language, students' responses were tightly controlled – there was typically only one appropriate response to the teachers' questions, and these were restricted to one or two words (Section 6.2.2).

This was followed by Core Activity 2, in which students were required to use the newly introduced language. First they engaged in a whole cohort discussion about the merits of the apartment. Extracts 6.3, 6.5A and 6.5B demonstrated a shift in the nature of interaction between teacher and students with the teacher's questions becoming more general (T: *what information about the apartment?*). Here there was not just one correct response, and although in these Extracts students' responses in Hebrew were still minimal (usually only a few words), they were required to draw on their developing knowledge of Hebrew to participate in the interaction. Students were also able to switch to English at certain points to clarify word meanings or grammatical rules. As Activity 2 progressed, the interaction became slightly more open ended. Extracts 6.9A and 6.9B, which are from a later point in Activity 2, demonstrated what happened as students engaged in pair-work activity and role-play around the renting of an apartment. Here students' turns were longer, and they switched more frequently between Hebrew and English. As they engaged in this open dialogue, students needed to draw on all their available Hebrew resources, as well as the peer support provided by their English negotiations. Although students were engaged in a more open task as they worked to construct their dialogue, the teacher continued to have an important role, both to ensure students remained on task, and to provide support as necessary. Extract 6.15, shown below, is part of Tal and Tami's pair-work (and, chronologically followed Extracts 6.9A and 6.9B) in Activity 2. Here they swapped roles: now Tal was the inquirer and Tami the landlord. While they considered the magazine picture of another apartment, they briefly turned to English (due to the increased noise level, this was undecipherable). The teacher noted their English exchange and approached them:

Extract 6.15 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*HA-DIRA ĤADASHA? YESHAMA? [.]* you asked?	*The apartment's new? old? [.]* you asked?	T approaches pair
2 Tal	We just turned the pages	We just turned the pages	
3 Tami	=We did this one already	=We did this one already	
4 T	*EHH, OK*		
5 Tal	*HA-DIRA [...] ĤADASH*?*	*The apartment*{f.s} *is new** {m.s}?	
6 Tami	*=KEN, HA-DIRA ĤADASH**	=*Yes, the apartment* {f.s} *is new** {m.s} [……]	
7 Tal	= We're having such an exciting conversation can you imagine over the phone: Is the apartment big? Yes, the apartment is big. Is the apartment old?	= We're having such an exciting conversation can you imagine over the phone: Is the apartment big? Yes, the apartment is big. Is the apartment old?	Both laugh T walks away to attend a different dyad
8 Tal & Tami	No the apartment is not old/ new	No the apartment is not old= new	Speak simultaneously and laugh
9 Tami	*KEN HA-DIRA YAFA* […………] Did I say tree?	*Yes the apartment is beautiful* [……………] Did I say tree?	
10 Tal	*KEN,* there is a tree, *YESH* tree	*Yes* there is a tree, *there's a* tree	
11 Tami	*[...]YESH TERASIYA*,*	*[...] There's a terrace*,*	S ''creates'

As can be seen, the teacher's approach and question (move 1) redirect the pair back to the task at hand. Following their English response (moves 2 and 3), they continue with the task (moves 5-11) switching between Hebrew and English. The interesting feature here is Tami's creation of the word *TERASIYA* (*terrace;* move 11). Whilst such a word does not exist in Hebrew, Tami applied the suffix *A,* which is a common suffix for nouns borrowed from English (Section 4.3.2). As Ortega points out, in 'creating' such language, students apply an 'interim systematic solution' (2009, pp. 33-34), which at times may result in non-grammatical language.

In this Activity 2 pair-work there was evidence of change in the relationship between teacher and students. The teacher continued to be in overall control of the lesson's proceedings with the ultimate responsibility of ending the activity. However, within the task itself, the relationship changed as students moved from one phase to the next. Initially, when introducing the dialogue task, interaction with students was very much controlled by the teacher. However, as students moved into pair work and construction of their own dialogues, they became increasingly autonomous in their interactions. The role of the teacher became one of background support. He remained ready to assist and support students' emerging Hebrew discourse, while being more accepting of students' use of L1. He reported:

> Firstly, it's [pair-work] a wonderful tool for practice/consolidation, and without the whole class listening. It's more relaxed; there is no fear of making mistakes as sometimes happens in a whole class forum. Again it's practice at speaking in various situations and dialogues, also it's an opportunity for them to do so in their own pace, faster or slower. Also an opportunity to clarify in English, which is good in my opinion, and also it's an opportunity to involve me. I don't let them work on their own, I continuously walk around and see their work (I'm totally connected to their work) as everybody has to speak and I hear them and I can correct their work. And they call me all the time to ask questions that they wanted before but did not manage to or did not come up before. It is an opportunity to receive personal attention from the teacher and for me to see them is very important.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

In such tasks, the students had more flexibility to set their own discursive path. As they did so, their L2 speech fluctuated between grammatical and non-grammatical discourse.

Moreover, during pair work, they sometimes created idiosyncratic language which was based on their current grammatical knowledge. The nature of the exchanges in Activity 2 of the first Focus Lesson was clearly different from the exchanges that occurred in Activity 1. I would argue, these shifts represent quite substantial handover within the one lesson.

The other three Focus Lessons showed similar evidence of handover within Lessons as students moved from one Activity to the next, and as they moved from one Phase within Activities to the next. As with the first Focus Lesson, the second Focus Lesson, following Stage 1's Warm-up session (Extract 6.13), began with teaching of new language (in this case new adjectives) as well as reinforcement of the noun-adjective convention. This involved tightly structured sequences of IRF exchanges, but as students moved into the next Core Activity – a game of Noughts & Crosses, patterns of interaction became more open-ended and students' participation increased. In the third Focus Lesson, following Stage 1's Warm-up session, Core Activity 1 began with a semi-open task of continuing to read the text *Tikho House*; followed by a considerably more open information-gap task in Core Activity 2. As students moved from one task type to the next, their patterns of interaction changed significantly, and they became more autonomous in their use of Hebrew. These shifts between tasks, I would argue, constitute consistent examples of handover.

To sum up, the analysis in chapter 5 indicated that handover was a key feature in the teaching of the case study cohort. Analysis of the four Focus Lessons provided evidence that this feature was also significant in other lessons within the case study program. As in the Week 4 Lesson, handover occurred in the Focus Lessons at a number of levels: between lessons; within lessons as students moved from one Core Activity to the next; and within Core Activities as students moved from one Phase to the next.

Shifts between and within Activities allowed for increased student control over the discursive content and the language employed, and provided the students with increasing opportunities to use the language and develop their independent speaking skills. As this occurred, students' responses became less predictable; their turns became longer; and they were increasingly required to draw on their knowledge of Hebrew. At such times, there was increased tolerance of students' code-switching between Hebrew

and English. There was also more open use of resources. In the more structured Activities in each lesson, typically where new language was introduced, the teacher worked exclusively with the resource of the Textbook, but in subsequent Activities he also used his own resources (e.g., pictures of apartments, flash cards, information-gap worksheets, and games).

However, there was also evidence that handover between and within lessons was not a simple linear process. Activities were sequenced so that structured tasks were always followed by more open tasks, but the level of openness varied: for example, text reading tasks were more structured than pair interactions. In addition, even when students were engaged in the more open tasks, the teacher continued to monitor their progress and to intervene as necessary to address points of difficulty, as well as to ensure they remained focused. He intervened at strategic points, then drew back, to enable students to continue negotiating meanings in Hebrew. He thus continued to provide guidance and support across Activities and Phases, but this support was choreographed with a light touch: it allowed space for students to experiment and practice new language, and to support each other while doing so.

6.2.6 Feedback, and feedforward

The fifth key teaching and learning feature identified in this case study is that of feedback, which also functions as feedforward, as well as early sensitization/*TIFTOUF*. In Week 4 Lesson, there was evidence that the teacher regularly provided feedback to students on their progress in learning Hebrew, as one would expect in a language learning class. This included feedback to students during class interactions, as well as responses to individuals and pairs during independent work. This feedback also acted as feedforward to future learning (discussed shortly). In addition, there was evidence in Week 4 Lesson that the teacher introduced, in an incidental way, a number of new language items that would be more explicitly taught in future lessons. Having conceptualized this practice as sensitizing students to future learning, and referring to it as *TIFTOUF* in Hebrew (literally translated as *sprinkle / drizzle* of water), I discussed this with the teacher. In response, he suggested that this could be understood as *RIKOUĤ* (*softening*), as early exposure to language that will be formally instructed at a later stage:

> You can call it *RIKOUĤ* (*softening*) I don't [..] [call it softening] but you can call it softening,[…] that you soften the blow that follows (laughs). That is, it is some kind of exposure to something that softens the forthcoming encounter. If it is already familiar, it is less threatening [……] is eases into the work that will follow. They already know that there is such a thing. Their approach is more open, more accepting less 'wow what is it? [..] We have used it already'. So it is less threatening.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

This process of feeding forward, as well as feeding back, was quite subtle. This section addresses the question of whether, and to what extent, similar features were evident in the follow up Focus Lessons.

As in Week 4 Lesson, feedback in the Focus Lessons typically occurred in conjunction with other features such as use of L1, and code switching. In the discussion of Focus Lessons thus far, there have been many examples of ways in which the teacher supported students' learning and development of Hebrew by providing them with feedback. Feedback in the Focus Lessons, as in Week 4 Lesson, was evident in the following ways:

- immediate responses to students' usage of Hebrew during whole-cohort discussions
- individual feedback during pair-work activities

In addition, in the Focus Lessons, feedback was evident in

- whole cohort feedback sessions, in the form of provision of explicit information about Hebrew as a language system

In what follows, these different types of feedback are discussed. Because of the overlap with other features, some of the examples presented below are from same sections of transcriptions that have been used previously to illustrate key features in the Focus Lessons.

Immediate responses to students' use of Hebrew during whole-cohort discussions

Possibly the most consistent way in which the teacher provided feedback to students was through his immediate response to their use of Hebrew as they engaged with him in

whole class interactions. Extract 6.16 illustrates ways in which the teacher utilized the IRF pattern of exchange to provide feedback:

Extract 6.16 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 1, Phase 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	Again. *MA YESH BA-DIRA? MA YESH BA-DIRA---? MA YESH BA-DIRA---? KEN; MA YESH BA-DIRA---?*	Again. *what's in the apartment? what's in the apartment---? what's in the apartment---? yes; what's in the apartment-----?*	T begins IRF exchange , questioning Ss whilst pointing to illustration
2 Sarah	*MITBAĤ*	*Kitchen*	S responds uncertain/questioning intonation
3 T	*MITBAĤ, MA OD---?MA OD YESH BA-DIRA!?YESH MITBAĤ. MA OD YESH BA-DIRA----? MA YESH BA-DIRA-----? YESH MITBAĤ, KEN, EH LUCY?*	*Kitchen. what else----? what else is there in the apartment?! there's a kitchen. what else in the apartment-----? what's in the apartment-----? there's a kitchen, yes, eh, Lucy?*	3rd move of IRF exchange. T. provides feedback by confirming S's correct response, and then initiates a further exchange through his questions
4 Lucy	*ĤEDER*	*Room*	S responds
5 T	*ĤEDER, EHH, ĤEDER GADOL VE-GAM, ĤANNA? YESH ĤEDER GADOL VE-YESH GAM--------?*	*Room, ehh, large room. and also there's, Hanna? there's a large room and there's also--?*	3rd move, confirms S's response; but models a more extended response; then opens further exchange
6 Hanna	*KATAN?*	*Small?!*	S provides only adjective
7 T	*YESH ĤEDER GADOL VE-YESH GAM ---- ? OD-----? OD ĤEDER----------, ĤEDER --------? MA YESH BA-DIRA? MA YESH BA-DIRA---? YESH, TAL OMERET YESH MITBAĤ BA-DIRA. LUCY OMERET YESH* ***ĤEDER GADOL*** *SALON. MA OD--? MA OD---? HMM--------?*	*There is a large room and there is also-----? Another----------? another room, room* […] *what's in the apartment? What is in the apartment---? there's, Tal says there's a kitchen in the apartment. Lucy says there's a* ***large room****, a living room. what else--------? what else-------? hmm------------?*	3rd move: T. responds by prompting further information. T models extended responses and elaborates S's response, then initiates further exchanges via cued elicitation

In this Extract, from Phase 2 of Core Activity 1- in the first Focus Lesson, students were encouraged to use the new language introduced by the teacher shortly before (Extracts 6.1 and 6.2). The teacher began the IRF exchange (move 1) with the initiating question (*what's in the apartment?).* Students' responses in this short exchange are minimal – only one word. The teacher variously responded by confirming the students' rather tentative responses (moves 3 and 5), by modelling part of the required responses (moves 3 and 5), by extending and elaborating students' responses (moves 5 and 7), and at times by correcting students' responses (move 7). In this exchange, which lasted only a few seconds, the teacher's use of the third move in the IRF exchange enabled him to draw on a range of strategies to provide immediate feedback on students' initial attempts to use the new language. He was thus able to give realistic feedback, but also to support and encourage students to take their rather tentative first steps in their use of new language. The interaction between the teacher and students, which is evident in Extract 6.16, was typical of many other interactions that occurred in the Focus Lessons, as well as in the entire case study program.

The kind of exchange illustrated in Extracts 6.16 was very typical of other interactions across the Focus Lessons. The use of IRF exchanges, and particularly the third move in these exchanges, was consistently used by the teacher to provide immediate feedback to students. The value of such exchanges was that they utilized strategies, such as modelling, repetition, confirmation and elaboration of students' responses, to provide students with feedback on their attempts to use the new language. The feedback was contextualized in ways that supported students, and demonstrated appropriate grammar and pronunciation. Thus students were encouraged to approximate use of the language, rather than being 'corrected' for any non-grammatical speech. The exchanges were brief and characterized by the teacher's 'light touch' but were also consistent. Students were encouraged to take risks in their learning, they were supported, and they received consistent feedback on their efforts.

Personal and individual feedback during pair work activities

In addition to providing brief and immediate feedback during whole-cohort interactions, the teacher provided students with personal and individual feedback during their pair-work activities. During these more open-ended activities, the teacher occupied a more

peripheral advising role. As he stated in his interview (Section 5.1.1) this allowed him to provide students with specific and individual support or to answer queries arising out of earlier whole-cohort discussions.

Extract 6.17 illustrates the kind of feedback that was typically provided by the teacher during these pair-work activities. It is taken from the first Focus Lesson, Core Activity 2: it forms part of Tal and Tami's exchange in which they engaged in the construction of a simulated dialogue between landlord and potential tenant, based on a magazine-picture and the Textbook's *yes or no* text (discussed in Extracts 6.9A, 6.9B and 6.15). Whilst students were engaged in a more open task, constructing their own 'landlord-tenant' dialogues, the teacher continued to have an important role: both to ensure students remained on task, and to provide support as necessary. As seen below, Extract 6.17 presents a point where Tal and Tami became side-tracked with a discussion of unfamiliar vocabulary. At this point, the teacher joined their discussion.

Extract 6.17 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*MA YESH BA-DIRA?*	*What's in the apartment?*	T questions pair as a way of directing them back to the task
2 Tami	We don't know how to say towel-rack	We don't know how to say towel-rack	S responds to unstated directive by explaining the problem they face
3 T	*OK, MA YESH BA-DIRA?*	*Ok, what's in the apartment?*	T. repeats question, implicitly prompting to take the dialogue in a different direction
4 Tami	*YESH SHEROUTIM IM MIKLAĤAT*	*There's toilet/bathroom with shower*	S responds appropriately
5 T	*SHEROUTIM IM MIKLAĤAT, NAKHON […] MA HA-SITOUATZYA SHEL HA-SHEROUTIM? HA-SHEROUTIM ----------- ?*	*toilet/bathroom with shower, correct […] what's the situation of the toilet/bathroom? the toilet/bathroom is ----?*	T. repeats and confirms S's response. He pushes S to elaborate her response by eliciting USAGE of adjectives
6 Tal	*Ummm ĤADASH**	*Ummm new** {m.s}	S responds
7 Tami	*=ĤADASH**	= *New** {m.s}	second S repeats response
8 T	*SHEROUT**IM** [..]* so what can it be?	*toilet/bathroom**s** [..]* so what can it be	T provides feedback on response by using intonation to emphasize the correct ***IM*** suffix
9 Tami	*ĤADASHIM*	*New* {m.pl}	S responds with appropriate form
10 T	*YOFI SHEROUTIM ĤADASHIM*, plural, you can say it only in plural, *KEN, HA-SHEROUTIM ĤADASHIM, VE-YESH --------?*	*Lovely, new toilet/bathrooms,* plural, you can say it only in plural, *yes new toilet/bathrooms, and there's -------- ?*	T confirms response and then explicitly reinforces the grammatical feature in English

Extract 6.17 picks up well into Tal and Tami's exchange, at a point where they had turned off-task and, joined by Eliza, had begun to converse in English. The teacher must have noticed this and thus turned to them as a way of guiding them back to the task at hand by asking '*what's in the apartment?*' (moves 1 and 3, respectively). Rather than directly responding to Tami's English response (move 2), the teacher prompted and 'pushed' the pair to expand their answer to include adjectives (moves 4 and 5). Both Tal and Tami understood that an adjective was required, yet both provided the incorrect singular masculine form *ĤADASH* (*new*; moves 6 and 7). The teacher cued the required form, first by using emphatic intonation and, then by briefly switching to English: '*SHEROUT**IM*** {m.pl} so what can it be?' (move 8). This cue resulted in Tami providing the required form of the adjective (move 9). The teacher then gave a brief English meta-grammatical clarification '*SHEROUT**IM*** {m.pl}) is 'plural*,* you can say it only in plural' (move 10). This provided more specific and somewhat more detailed feedback than was typically the case in rapid whole class exchanges.

A second Extract further illustrates the kind of feedback provided by the teacher during pair-work activities. Extract 6.18 is from the third Focus Lesson, Core Activity 2. Here students were engaged in an information-gap activity, which required them to combine irregular nouns and adjectives. (The noise level during this pair-work task made it difficult to transcribe the exchange in full.)

Extract 6.18 Third Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Ethel	So *BAĤOURA*{f}* is a young man?	So *young woman** is a young man?	
2 T	*BAĤOUR* is a young man, or a guy [..] *BAĤOURA* is a, a young woman	*Young man* is a young man, or a guy [..] *young woman* is a, a young woman	
3 Tami	[undecipherable] girls before *BAT MITZVA?*	[undecipherable] girls before '*bat mitzvah'* ?	Coming-of-age ceremony at age 13 for girls
4 T	No, no, no, [undecipherable] even in the thirties	No, no, no, [undecipherable] even in the thirties	T refers to age range of *young man/woman*

Just before Extract 6.18 picked up, Ethel had been listening to an exchange between the teacher and another dyad where he had explained the difference between the noun *BAĤOUR* (*young man*) and the name *BAROUKH*. Ethel's question (move 1) and the teacher's response (move 2) continued that conversation. The teacher had begun the explanation to other students in English, and when he joined in the discussion with Ethel and Tami, he continued in English. The exchange then shifted to other issues (moves 3 and 4).

Despite difficulties with transcription, it is evident that this exchange was mainly conducted in English. In this, it was typical of other exchanges that occurred during pair-work tasks. Because of the more open nature of these tasks, students quite often initiated comments (Extract 6.17, move 2) or questions (Extract 6.18, move 1), and generally these were in English. At times the teacher responded in Hebrew, but more frequently, he responded in English or a combination of English and Hebrew. As these Extracts (6.17 and 6.18) show, code switching enabled the teacher to provide students with quite detailed explanations of grammatical features at the point of need: as students were attempting to use these features to construct dialogues, or in other exchanges with each other. The feedback provided in pair-work tasks was thus targeted, but more detailed and explicit than that provided in whole group interactions.

Whole cohort feedback sessions – provision of explicit information about Hebrew as a language system

The third and most explicit type of feedback provided by the teacher consisted of extended explanation of specific grammatical points. Typically these took place after students had been attempting to use these language structures, both in whole class interactions and in more open-ended pair or group tasks. These explanations provided students with feedback on their oral and written language, but in addition, they constituted whole-cohort correction sessions when the teacher felt that the majority of the students were having difficulty with a specific language feature that may have become evident during a class task or examination. Extract 6.19, which is a shortened version of Extract 6.7, provides an example of this kind of feedback.

Extract 6.19 First Focus Lesson – Core Activity 2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK, RAK REGA, ANI OMER, ANI OMER ĤEDER GADOL […] ĤEDER GADOL, OK? AVAL DIRA GDOLA. LAMA? LAMA--? ĤEDER GADOL AVAL DIRA GDOLA?*	*Ok, just one moment, I say, I say, large room* […] *large* {m.s} *room, ok? but, large* {f.s} *apartment. Why--? why large room but large apartment?*	T pushes Ss to articulate, hence develop, knowledge about Hebrew as a system
2 Tal	*DIRA* is female	*Apartment* is female	S supports L2 utterance with L1
3 T	*DIRA female VE- ĤEDER----?*	*Apartment* female, *and room----?*	T recasts and pushes for further information
4 Mike	Masculine	Masculine	S provides answer available only in L1
5 T	Masculine, feminine. *AZ, ĤEDER GADOL, DIRA GDOLA. YESH KORELATZIYA*. Noun, adjective. *YESH KORELATZIYA BE-IVRIT.* It's very, very, very important. Tami, it's very important. You must internalize it. Please. Otherwise it will make a lot of problems in the future.	Masculine, feminine. *so, large* {m.s} *room, large* {f.s} *apartment. there's correlation* . noun , adjective. *there's correlation in Hebrew*. It's very, very, very important. Tami, it's very important. You must internalize it. Please. Otherwise it will make a lot of problems in the future.	T provides explanation with language tools available to the Ss T stresses the crucial element of agreement, hence drip-feeds for future learning and development
6 Eliza	Can you repeat that?	Can you repeat that?	
7 T	Because it's very different than English. Right? *ĤEDER GADOL ELIZA, AVAL DIRA* […] *LO DIRA GADOL, DIRA GDOLA BE-ANGLIT* it's different. *NAKHON* Eliza, *BE-IVRIT YESH KORELATZIYA. ĤEDER GADOL, DIRA GDOLA.* Fem* masculine; masculine; feminine; feminine. […] It's very, very, very, very important.	Because it's very different than English. Right*? large* {m.s} *room Eliza, but large* {f.s} *apartment* […] *not large* {m.s}, *apartment, large* {f.s} *apartment. in English*, it's different. *correct, Eliza, in Hebrew there is correlation. large* {m.s} *room, large* {f.s} *apartment.* fem masculine; masculine; feminine; feminine. […] It's very, very, very, very important.	T re articulate agreement convention T started to say feminine ,then self-corrected to masculine

To remind the reader, Extract 6.19 took place in the first Focus Lesson, Core Activity 2. It followed the reading of the Textbook's *yes or no* dialogue (end of Phase 1) and before the commencement of the pair-work (Phase 2). Before handing over the activity to the dyads to create their own 'landlord-potential tenant' dialogues, the teacher drew their attention to the distinction between masculine and feminine forms of *large* (moves 1-4). He then went further to emphasise the importance of this grammatical feature (move 5), and to contrast Hebrew with English (move 7). As the explanation became more explicit, he switched to English. Feedback here was provided as a way of preparing them specifically for the coming activity.

Extract 6.19, which was typical of others in the Focus Lessons, illustrates feedback in which students are encouraged to draw on their experiences of using the language, limited though that might be, to reflect on Hebrew, and to begin developing an understanding of how the language works as a system. Thus, Extract 6.19 had the twofold function of providing feedback on language previously learned, and feedforward to future language development. As indicated earlier, feedforward was also evident in other more subtle ways, both in the Week 4 Lesson, and in the lead up to the four Focus Lessons.

Forward feeding -*TIFTOUF*

As discussed in Chapter 5, in Week 4 Lesson there was evidence that the teacher introduced a number of new language items, including both vocabulary and grammatical features that would be explicitly taught in future lessons. This practice, of sensitizing students to new language items well before their formal instruction, was characteristic of other lessons in the case study program. The teacher introduced, mainly structures, in an apparently incidental way as he interacted with students in Hebrew. He appeared to 'sprinkle' or 'drizzle' these language items through his speech. As indicated, I have introduced the term *TIFTOUF* (the Hebrew word, literally translated as *sprinkle* or *drizzle* of water) to refer to this practice of forward planting new language items before they are explicitly taught.

Thus, the findings show that as well as providing feedback, which also functioned as feedforward to future learning and development, the teacher also provided early

sensitization to language that will only be introduced formally at a later stage. As discussed previously (the concluding paragraphs in Section 2.2.3), I refer to such preparation for future language learning as *TIFTOUF*, which is forward feeding**,** rather than and as different from feedforward.

Analysis of the case study program indicated that *TIFTOUF* occurred across all recorded lessons. In what follows, I focus on ways in which *TIFTOUF* occurred in the lessons leading up to the Focus Lessons, and, in particular, on the ways in which the teacher 'drizzled' noun-adjective phrases in these lessons. Thus, students were exposed to multiple instances of Hebrew's noun-adjective word-order and agreement conventions well before using such language in their own speech and explicitly learning it in the Focus Lessons. Initially, the use of noun-adjective phrases appeared to occur spontaneously in the teacher's speech; however, as lessons proceeded, he appeared to be more deliberate in using noun-adjective phrases, and doing so more frequently. For this reason, I have divided discussion of this feature under the headings of Spontaneous and Planned *TIFTOUF*.

Spontaneous *TIFTOUF*

The first time during the data collection period that adjectives were present in the teacher's speech was in Week 4 Lesson during whole-cohort practice of the new grammatical structure '*where to -> to…*' (Extract 5.3B, moves 27-31). There, the teacher's talk included noun-adjective phrases, *SERET DOCOMENTARI* (*documentary movie*)*, SERET BRITI* (*British movie*)*, SERET SINI* (*Chinese movie*), *SERET YAPANI* (*Japanese movie*), *SEERET YISRA'ELI* (*Israeli movie*), *SERET AMERICANI* (*American movie*). The use of these combinations appeared to emerge spontaneously in the teacher's talk, well before he consciously set out to sensitize students to this Hebrew structure.

The second appearance of noun-adjective phrases occurred two weeks later (Week 6 of semester). Major activities in this lesson centred on the consolidation of Hebrew's *YESH* + noun (literally, *there is* + noun) and *EYN* + noun (literally, *there isn't* + noun) structures, and the introduction of the new consonants *VET, KHAF, FE* [ב כ פ]. The first time during Week 6 that a noun-adjective phrase was embedded in the teacher's speech

occurred during the whole-cohort consolidation of these '*there is/isn't'* structures. Extract 6.20 illustrates the teacher's incidental use of *good coffee* during this exchange.

Extract 6.20 Week 6

Move & Speaker	**Classroom Transcript**	**English Translation**	**Comments**
1 T	*MA OD YESH BA-ONIVERSITA-----? MA OD----- ?[………………………] YESH BA-ONIVERSITA SHEL SYDNEY EHH KAFE' [..] TOV? [..] YEHS BA-ONIVERSITA SHEL SYDNEY KAFE' TOV?[..]*	*What else is there in the university-------? What else --- ----------? […………….] there's in the university of Sydney good coffee?[..] there's in the university of Sydney good coffee? [..]*	T flicks through his notes
2 Mic	*LO*	*No*	T indicates 'no' with his head
3 T	*MIC [..] OSE' LO*	*Mic is doing no*	
4 Mic	*AYIN* [..] BE-ONIVERSH*ITA SHEL KAFE' [.] TOV*	*There isn't* in the university* good […] coffee*	S pronounces *isn't** and *university** incorrectly
5 T	*= EYN-----------*	*There isn't*	T recasts
5 Mic	*AYIN* KAFE' [.] EYN U*NIVERSHI […]*	*There isn't*coffee [.] there isn't *university*	S self correct *AYIN* to *EYN* but pronounces **university* incorrectly
7 T	*= BA-------*	*In the------------*	T recasts
8 Mic	*EYN BA-UNIVERSH*ITA […] YESH*	*There isn't in the university* […] there is*	S pronounces **university* incorrectly
9 T	*= EYN, EYN KAFE' TOV----------?*	*There isn't, there isn't good coffee-----?*	T's genuine question
10 Mic	*EYN KAFE'[..] TOV*	*There isn't good [..] coffee*	S
11 T	*BA-ONIVERSITA----*	*In the university*	T prompts a full utterance

The teacher's use of the phrase *KAFE' TOV* (*good coffee*) appeared to have been spontaneous; arising from the conversation topic: *what is/ isn't at the university of Sydney*. In this exchange between the teacher and Mic, the pedagogical emphasis was on supporting Mic's erroneous pronunciations of *ONIVERSITA*, and *EYN* (moves 4-8 and 9) rather than on the quality of the coffee. The teacher, who introduced this line of exchange, was also the one who ended it. Nonetheless, this event exposed the students to a Hebrew noun-adjective phrase.

Some twenty minutes later, as part of the introduction of new language items relating to the consonants *VET, KHAF, FE* [ב כ פ], noun-adjective phrases were again embedded in the teacher's speech. These new items exemplified the difference between the sounds '*B'* and '*V*', *'K'* and *'KH*', and *'P'* and *'FE*', and included the following: *BOKER TOV* (*good morning*), *EREV TOV* (*good evening*), *MAZAL TOV* (meaning *congratulation*, yet literally, *luck good*), *OHEV* (*love/like*), and *AVAL* (*but*). Although the teacher's main aim at this point of the lesson was to emphasize the difference between *BET* [בּ] and *VET* [ב], he also sensitized students to noun-adjective word order and agreement conventions in Hebrew. As the lesson progressed, the students continued to engage in short exchanges whilst further using and consolidating the structures *there is/isn't* + noun. Significantly, while it was the teacher who first introduced noun-adjective phrases in his speech, as the lesson progressed the students also began to include adjectives in their own respective utterances, thus creating *there is/isn't* +noun +adjective phrases. As Extracts 6.21, 6.22 and 6.23 show, there is evidence of students' developing awareness of this grammatical feature.

Extract 6.21 Week 6

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	comments
1 T	*MA EYN BE'-TEL-AVIV----------?*	*What's not in Tel-Aviv-----------?*	T
2 Hanna	*[………] LO** Korean* *MISA'ADA*	*No** Korean* *restaurant*	S follows the order of English
3 Mike	*EYN*	*There's no*	S recasts,; demonstrates 'teacherly behaviour' (Lantolf & Thorne 2006, p. 257)
4 T	*LO? [..] LO MISA'ADOT?*	*No? [..] not restaurants?*	
5 Hanna	Ehh *LO** Korean *MISA'ADOT*	Ehh*, no** Korean *restaurants*	S follows the order of English
6 T	*MMM BE'-TEL-AVIV YESH MISA'ADOT [.]BE'-TEL-AVIV ----------------?*	*Mm .. in Tel-Aviv there are restaurants* [..] *in Tel Aviv ---?*	
7 Eliza 10:14:10	*EYN*	*There's no*	
8 Hanna	ahh ok	Ahh ok	
9 T	*BE'-TEL-AVIV EYN, EYN, BE'-TEL AVIV EYN MISA'ADOT KORE'ANIYOT. [..]* That's not true, *YESH MISA'ADOT KORE'ANIYOT* not as many as in Sydney but *YESH, YESH MISA'ADOT KORE'ANIYOT BE'-TEL-AVIV.*	*In Tel-Aviv there isn't, there isn't, in Tel-Aviv there aren't Korean restaurants*. That's not true, *there are, there are Korean restaurants*, not as many as in Sydney but, *there are, there are Korean restaurants in Tel-Aviv.*	T models Hebrew's noun-adjective order, whilst refraining from providing further explanation

As Extract 6.21 shows, it was Hanna who introduced adjectives into her speech, modifying the Hebrew noun *MISA'ADA* (*restaurant*) with the English adjective 'Korean', whilst adhering to the English adjective-noun order (moves 2 and 5). As the focus of this exchange was the consolidation of the structures *there is / isn't* + noun, the teacher's initial response was to recast Hanna's utterance without elaborating further on the issue of agreement (moves 4 and 6). In bringing this exchange to a close, he added the information that '*there are korean restaurants in tel aviv but fewer than in sydney*' (move 9).

Some minutes later, the cohort progressed to posing 'riddles' regarding *what there is* or *isn't in Australia*. Mic's response to the teacher's 'riddle' is shown in Extract 6.22.

Extract 6.22 Week 6

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*YESH, YESH HARBE' KROKODILIM BE'-----------? YESH ARBE' KRO-KO-DI-LIM---------?*	*There's, there's many crocodiles in------? there are many cro-co-diles -----?*	T prompts response
2 F?	*Darwin *YESH*	*Darwin *there is*	S' utterance lacks preposition
3 T	*YESH HARBE' KROKODILIM----?*	*There are many crocodiles---*	
4 Mic	*BE'* territory north?	*In* territory north?	S' uncertain & questioning intonation**;** uses correct preposition *BE'* (*in*)

Although Mic's utterance was a hybrid of Hebrew and English, it exemplified two important points. Firstly, Mic adhered to the normative Hebrew syntax of *BE'* (*in*)+ location (move 4), while the student in move 2 had omitted it. Secondly, in following the Hebrew, rather than the English, noun-adjective order, Mic demonstrated an early realization that in Hebrew adjectives follow their head nouns.

A further instance of a student introducing an adjective into his speech occurred some minutes later. Here Mic responded to the teacher's introduction of the verb *OHEV* (*love/like*) by adding the following:

Extract 6.23 Week 6

Move & Speaker	**Classroom Transcript**	**English Translation**	**Comments**
1 Mic	*ANI OHEV jazz […] AVAL LO* jazz modern*	*I like jazz* […] *but not* jazz modern	S adheres to Hebrew's noun-adjective order but does not apply Hebrew's suffix ***I*** for English borrowed adjectives
2 T	***NI***, *TOV, AVAL LO JAZ MODERN**NI** [..] MIC [..] OHEV JAZ [..] AVAL LO JAZ MODERN**NI***	*Well, but not modern jazz [..] Mic [..] likes jazz, [..] but not modern jazz*	T emphasizes intonation of ***I*** suffix

Noteworthy in this exchange is Mic's use of Hebrew word order of noun-adjective, despite his use of English in the utterance 'jazz modern'. The teacher responded to Mic's English utterance by recasting it in Hebrew, emphasizing the Hebrew pronunciation of the suffix *I* in *MODER**NI.*** Although he did not have the Hebrew vocabulary for *jazz modern*, Extract 6.23 indicates that Mic was beginning to develop awareness of the required Hebrew structure at this early stage in the learning.

At a later point in the lesson students moved into pair-work mode, where they asked their dyad partner '*what do you like/love?*' and later reported the partner's response to the cohort. During this activity, students included adjectives in their respective utterances – although not all students appeared to have worked out the appropriate Hebrew word order.

By the end of the Week 6 lesson, there had been ten instances where noun-adjective phrases were included in the classroom discourse: six initiated by the teacher, and four initiated by the students. Initially, students followed the word order of English rather than Hebrew, but, as Extracts 6.21, 6.22 and 6.23 show, there appeared to be progression during the lesson where at least some students showed evidence of increasing awareness of this convention. During Week 7, when the teacher asked about students' weekend activities, he further reinforced their awareness of the noun-adjective structure by posing the question: '*you [go[16]] to a movie, you to a good movie?*'

Planned *TIFTOUF*

As the lessons got closer to the four Focus Lessons (weeks 10-12), the instances of using noun-adjective phrases became more frequent. By this time, the use of such phrases appeared to be less incidental and more deliberate and the teacher's language more richly featured this structure. By Week 8, which marked the halfway point in the semester, the teacher's speech included numerous instances of noun-adjective phrases. During Week 8, as a way of modelling the difference between Hebrew's personal and impersonal structures (discussed above in Section 4.3.7), the teacher posed the questions: '*what buying in the supermarket?*'; and *'what/where are you buying?'*

[16] Hebrew has a verb for 'go', but the teacher did not use it; he followed the format of '*LE…* (*to*)' discussed in Section 5.2.2

Extract 6.24 illustrates the exchange that followed, which again had Mic as the teachers' dialogic partner:

Extract 6.24 Week 8

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*MIC, EYFO, EYFO, EYFO ATA KONE' PASTA TOVA?*	*Mic, where, where, where do you buy good* {f.s} *pasta* {f.s} *?*	T questions
2 Mic	*ANI KORE'* KOVE'* KONE' PASTA TOV**	*I buy* buy* buy good* {m.s}** pasta* {f.s}	S responds
3 T	*PASTA TOVA*	*Good pasta*	T recasts
4 Mic	*TOVA… BE'-BISTRO SOPRANO*	*Good* {f.s} *… in bistro soprano*	S corrects himself
5 T	*BE'-BISTRO SOPRANO*	*Go bistro soprano*	T prompts full answer
6 Mic	*BE'-BISTRO SOPRANO*	*In bistro soprano*	S mirrors
7 T	*AZ BE'-ELIZABET YESH PASTA TOVA?*	*So in Elizabeth* {street} *there is good pasta?*	T's presumably genuine question
8 Mic	*METZO..*	*Excel..*	S attempts constructing adjective *METZOUYAN* (excellent) which has not been officially introduced as yet/ S stumbles over unfamiliar pronunciation
9 T	*=METZOUYENET*	*=Excellent*	T models
10 Mic	*METZOUYENET*	*Excellent*	S mirrors
11 T	*SPAGHETTI METZOUYAN. PASTA METZOUYENET [..] SPAGHETTI TOV, PASTA TOVA […]* so we take five minutes break	*Excellent* {m.s} *spaghetti* {m.s} *excellent* {f.s} *pasta* {f.s} *[..] good* {m.s} *spaghetti* {m.s}, *good* {f.s} *pasta* {f.s} *[…]* so we take five minutes break	T models phrases, both masculine and feminine

As Extract 6.24 shows, the teacher posed the question *EYFO ATA KONE' PASTA TOVA? (Where do you buy good* {f.s} *pasta* {f.s}*?)* (move 1). Mic's responses, initially *PASTA TOV* *(*good* {m.s}* *pasta* {f.s}) (move 2), and later *METZOUYENET* (*excellent* {f.s}) (moves 8 and 10) demonstrate that he understood the question. He also responded with the correct noun-adjective order, even though he was unaware of the required gender agreement at this point, uttering the ungrammatical *PASTA TOV* (*good* {m.s} *pasta* {f.s}).

Extract 6.24 also demonstrates the first time that the teacher juxtaposed a masculine and a feminine noun-adjective phrase in the one sentence (move 11) where he emphasized '*SPAGHETTI METZOUYAN, PASTA METZOUYENET [..] SPAGHETTI TOV, PASTA TOVA (excellent* {m.s} *spaghetti* {m.s} *excellent* {f.s} *pasta* {f.s} *[..] good* {m.s} *spaghetti* {m.s}, *good* {f.s} *pasta* {f.s}) (move 11). Up till this point, the use of such language in the teacher's speech had been limited to either masculine phrases or feminine phrases, with only one gender represented in the one sentence. Even so, at this point the teacher appeared to make the judgment that students were ready for additional input regarding this grammatical structure, and he deliberately emphasized the need not only for appropriate word order in the noun-adjective phrases but for gender agreement.

At that point in the lesson, I requested a hold on the instructional procedures so I could conduct a mid-lesson interview. In it I asked the students about their perceptions on 'why did the teacher say *PASTA TOVA, SPAGHETTI TOV?*'. Their responses indicated they had varying levels of understanding; whilst all students had noticed the fact that *SPAGHETTI* was modified by *TOV* (*good* {m.s}), whilst *PASTA* was modified by *TOVA* (*good* {f.s}), they gave a range of reasons for this modification:

Sarah	because spaghetti is masculine, but pasta is woman
Tal	I had exactly the same thing, one masculine, one feminine, you need to change *YOFI* and whatever you use was feminine
Eliza	wops, I thought it's because spaghetti is one type of pasta and pasta is plural ; spaghetti is one thing and pasta all the types of pasta; I thought
Tami	I basically wrote down gender but I don't know why
Lucy	it was to show plural and singular ; I don't remember, I was yes I don't remember… yes, it was mescula [sic] and femina [sic]
Mic	yes, I was with singular specific and pasta general, spaghetti is a specific item pasta is general
Hanna	I though the same as Eliza, I thought that spaghetti was one kind and sing and pasta was plural

Tony	it's the difference between *TOV* and *TOVA* I think it's the grammar, grammar things, one is past tense, one is present; we did not learn?

As can be seen, they all noted the difference between *good spaghetti* {m.s} and *good pasta* {f.s}. Nonetheless, they differed in their understanding of the distinction between the two, and therefore attributed different interpretations to this variation. As well, not all were able to articulate the nature of the difference between the two.

The next time noun-adjective phrases were present in the classroom discourse was during a Warm-up session in Week 9. Here the teacher asked '*what are you doing on the* weekend?' The following Extracts (6.25 A-D) were all taken from this Warm-up.

Extract 6.25A Week 9

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK, AT HOLEKHET […] LE'-MISA'ADA IM ĤAVERIM. […] LE'-----MISA'ADA SINIT […] TAILANDIT?*	*Ok, you're going* […] *to a restaurant* {f.s} *with friends.* […] *to ----- Chinese* {f.s} *restaurant?* […] *Thai* {f.s}	
2 Sarah	*TAILANDIT*	*Thai*	
3 T	*TAILANDIT […] OK BE'-SYDNEY […] YESH […]* ***HARBE'*** *[…]* ***OKHEL TAILANDI*** *[………] NAKHON?[..] YESH HARBE' OKHEL […] ANI LO OHEV OKHEL TAILANDI, […] LO, LO OHEV OKHEL TAILANDI. OK, VE-LUCY MA AT OSA?*	*Thai […] ok, in Sydney […] there's […]* ***much*** *[…]* ***Thai*** {m.s} ***food*** {m.s},*[……] correct?[..] there's much Thai food […] i don't like Thai food, […] no, don't like Thai food, ok, and Lucy, what do you do?*	

Extract 6.25B Week 9

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Tony	*EH, EH ANI LOMED IVRIT BA-BAYIT VE- ANI HOLEKH EMMM […] HA-MIS, MIS MISA'ADA*	*Eh, eh I study Hebrew at home and I go emmmm […] the res, res restaurant*	
2 T	*ANI HOLEKH--------?*	*I go-----?*	T prompts preposition *LE'* (*to*)
3 Tony	*LE'*	*To*	
4 T	*KEN, LE'-----?*	*Yes, to----?*	T further prompts
5 Tony	*LE'-MISA'ADA SHEL SINI*	*The restaurant of Chinese* {m.s}	S incorrectly uses *SHEL* (*of*)
6 T	*AIZO, AIZO MISA'ADA?*	*Which? which restaurant?*	T
7 Tony	*SHEL SINI*	*Of Chinese*	S again uses *SHEL* (*of*)
8 T	*MISA'ADA SIN**IT** [.] LO SHEL.* ***[..]*** *MISA'ADA SINIT*	*Chin**ese*** {f.s} *restaurant* {f.s} *[.], not of.* [..] *Chinese restaurant.*	T models correct usage, emphasizing feminine-singular suffix *IT* ;without providing explicit explanation
9 Tony	*= MISA'ADA SINIT*	*=Chinese restaurant*	
10 T	*ANI HOLEKH LE'-MISA'ADA SINIT, KEN, OK […] OK, OKHEL TOV? […] MA, MA ATA OKHEL? […] BA-----MISA'ADA? […………] MA [..] ATA [..] OKHEL […] BA-MISA'ADA?*	*I go to a Chinese restaurant, yes, ok. […] ok, good food? […] good food? […] what, what do you eat? […] in the restaurant? [……………] what [..] do [..] you [..] eat [..] in the restaurant?*	T continues with original line of questioning about Ss weekend activities

Extract 6.25C Week 9

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Mike	*LOMED, OVED, VE'-LOMED [..] IVRIT VE'-HOLKH LA-MISA'ADOT*	*Study, work, and study* [..] *Hebrew and go to the restaurants*	
2 T	*HARBE' MISA'ADOT?*	*Many restaurants?*	
3 Mike	*OKHEL* [...] HARBE'*	*Food [...] much*	S laughs
4 T	*HARBE' OKHEL. EIZE' OKHEL? OKHEL SINI ? [.] TAILANDI?*	*Much food. which food? Chinese food? Thai?*	
5 Mike 9:11:15	*LO, EHH, ĤUMUS, TABOULI,* Eastern, […] how do you say this?	*Mo, eh, hummus, tabouli,* Eastern, […] how do you say this?	
6 T	*OK, OKHEL LEVANONI*	*Ok, Lebanese food*	
7 Mike	*=LEVANONI*	*= Lebanese*	
8 T	*MITZRI*	*Egyptian*	
9 Mike	*= MITZRI,[.] ISRAELI*	*Egyptian, [.] Israeli*	

Extract 6.25D Week 9

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*HAEBE' SRATIM?*	*Many movies?*	
2 Hanna	Oh [………] just one	Oh [………] just one	
3 T	*AZ, ANI HOLEKHET LE'-SERET, LE'-SERET; ANI HOLEKHET LE'-SERET, OK, TOV [..] SERET TOV -------?*	*So, I go to a movie, to a movie; I go to a movie. ok, well [..] good movie-----*	
4 Hanna	Um *[...] TOV*	Um *[...] good*	
5 T	*KEN? OK, SERET [...] AMERICANI ----------?*	*Yes? ok, American* [……] *movie---------------?*	
6 Hanna	Ahem, *KEN*	Ahem, *yes*	

Extracts 6.25A-D provide further examples of the *TIFTOUF* process of sensitizing the students to Hebrew's noun-adjective structure. Here, the more open-ended nature of exchanges during the Warm-up provided students with opportunities to choose how to respond to the teacher's question. These Extracts show that while students were aware of the noun-adjective structure, they continued to need considerable support in their use of it. While Sarah, Tony, Mike and Hanna in their respective responses were able to mirror the teacher's language, they were not yet able to respond without support. In the following week's first Focus Lesson, the teacher embarked on the explicit instruction of noun-adjective phrases. By this time, the students were well prepared to engage with this structure.

To sum up, Extracts 6.16, 6.17, 6.18 and 6.19 provide evidence that feedback and feedforward played important roles in supporting students' learning. Students were provided with immediate feedback during their class interactions (Extract 6.16), and with personal individual feedback in response to their more open pair-work activities (Extracts 6.17 and 6.18) In addition, analysis of the Focus Lessons showed that feedback was provided to the whole cohort via extended explanations of the specific grammatical points that are especially challenging for L1 English speakers (Extract 6.19). I have argued that this kind of feedback also functioned as a way of providing feedforward to students, by enabling them to develop metalinguistic understandings of Hebrew as a system, thereby preparing them for future learning.

In addition, a further means of forward feeding, of providing students with early sensitization to new and unknown language, was evident in the case study program. The Week 4 Lesson showed that the teacher pointed forward to future learning (Extract 5.3B). Moreover, analysis across a number of lessons provided further insights into this feature, which I have labelled *TIFTOUF*. This analysis showed that in the lead up to the Focus Lessons, the teacher sensitized students to specific Hebrew structures, in this case, noun-adjective word-order and gender agreement, by sprinkling/drizzling examples of the structure into his classroom-talk well before its formal introduction (Extracts 6.20, 6.21, 6.22, 6.23, 6.24 and 6.25A-D). This process of *TIFTOUF* was channelled through the teacher's speech and his use of such phrases in natural, 'real world' talk. This preparation/sensitization process was done in two-phases: firstly through apparently spontaneous use in the teacher's talk (Extracts 6.20, 6.21, 6.22, 6.23

and 6.24), and later, closer to the point where the structure was explicitly taught, the process of *TIFTOUF* intensified, providing the students with increased sensitization to the existence of specific language features in preparation for their explicit introduction in the coming lessons (Extracts 6.25A-D). As the discussion of the example of noun-adjective structure has indicated, use of Hebrew always preceded learning about Hebrew. The explicit teaching of the language feature was then presented in the Focus Lessons first in Hebrew and then and only if needed, in English.

6.2.7 Affective and social classroom environment

The final key feature of the case study is the affective and social environment of the classroom. As discussed earlier (Section 2.2.6), the importance of affective and social factors for successful language learning and learning more generally has long been acknowledged in the literature. Classroom environments where students feel supported, valued and respected as learners, provide a more effective basis for successful learning. The significance of classroom environment was clearly acknowledged in the case study program. The Week 4 Lesson provided evidence of a positive and supportive classroom atmosphere, and this was confirmed by both the teacher and the students in their respective interviews. This final section of the chapter addresses the extent to which this environment was typical of the program as a whole. In many ways, because of its diffused nature, this feature is the most difficult of all the key features to document. In the following discussion, I therefore draw on the analysis of lessons, as well as on the teacher's testimony.

Constructing a positive classroom environment

Interviews with the case study teacher provided evidence that he was very conscious of the importance of creating a positive and supportive classroom environment whereby students could develop as active participants in the teaching and learning process. As indicated in chapter 5, the teacher believed students needed to *warm up* at the start of a lesson as it helped them '*enter a learning environment'* and it contributed to the creation of '*pleasant* [classroom] *environment*' (Teacher Interview). He was concerned to maintain students' interest in their learning, and systematically included a range of activities and resources in his lessons. He spoke very positively about his relationship

with the cohort of students enrolled in the case study program, and commented that, although this was one of his first experiences in teaching a beginners' Hebrew class, he was especially impressed by the students' achievements and genuinely enjoyed this particular cohort:

> Overall with this class I was very surprised and very happy with them. Their questions were very good, these [grammar questions asked] in English, testified to their understanding. From their questions I noted that they understood what I was talking about and how things are constructed. I very much liked their questions I was very pleased with this class it was very pleasant for me I think that they learned well.
>
> Teacher Interview (translated from Hebrew)

Although teacher and students co-construct the classroom environment and relationships within the cohort, it was inevitably the teacher who set the initial tone. As is evident from the first classroom encounter (Section 5.1.4), in which the teacher encouraged the students to address him by his first name, he established interactional teaching and learning norms that were positive, collaborative and relaxed. Moreover, and as was evident in the Week 4 Lesson, he encouraged them to ask him clarifying questions during all activities, to relate their own activities in the Warm-Up sessions, and to inquire about his own weekend activities (Section 5.2.2).

Once these social and language learning behavioural norms had been set, they spread with a ripple effect among the student-cohort. Although the teacher set the classroom tone, the students actively maintained and deepened the affective social interactions both in the classroom and beyond. The comradeship that developed was evident in the interpersonal relations the students demonstrated during the lessons, as well as out of the class. Laughter and jocular exchanges were common occurrences in all classroom activities. As previously indicated, at the commencement of the semester, the members of this 'community of learners' (Lave & Wenger 1991) did not know each other (except for two students who had attended the same secondary school). But from the analysis of Week 4 Lesson, the friendly atmosphere in the classroom was evident. As the weeks passed, the interpersonal relations between students became stronger, leading to a highly cooperative learning environment. A number of researchers (for example, Dörnyei & Murphy 2003; Senior 1999, 2001, 2006) have argued that students' active participation in classroom activities is one of the hallmarks of cohesive and effective

learning groups. In the case study, such cohesive, and cooperative characteristics were evident in both the students' L2 discursive achievements and in their social interactions both in and out of the classroom. The students reported that they regularly met after lessons: and one of the students organized a dinner to which all students, the teacher, the Department Chair, and myself were invited;

Despite the relative informality of the class, the teacher also established clear expectations of students' behaviour: submission of self-study tasks on time, not being late, turning off mobile phones and so on. Rules of behaviour were clear, but were established and maintained with a light touch. In what follows, I tease out some of the elements that contributed to the positive learning environment.

Episodes of humour

An element that contributed to the friendly classroom environment in the case study was humour. This was typically manifested in very short spontaneous jocular exchanges, or 'episodes of humour' that typically took place in the midst of the whole-cohort discussion, and were almost always uttered in English. There were a number of humorous episodes across the four Focus Lessons, as well as throughout the semester. Extracts 6.26 and 6.27A-B provide some flavour of these episodes.

In the second Focus Lesson, while introducing the adjective *special*, the teacher referred to James Bond's car by saying:

Extract 6.26 Second Focus Lesson – Warm-up

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
T	*MEYOU-ĤEDET , YESH LO MEKHONIT MEYOUĤEDET, MEKHONIT ĤADASHA* , at the beginning, at the beginning *MEKHONIT ĤADASHA,* at the end [……] it's not existing anymore, ok?	*Speci-al* (f.s) *he has a special* (f.s) *car* (f.s). *a new* (f.s) *car* (f.s) at the beginning, at the beginning *a new car,* at the end [……] it's not existing anymore, ok?	

In the third Focus Lesson's Warm-up, responding to Tami's account of her weekend job, the teacher said:

Extract 6.27A Third Focus Lesson – Warm-up

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
T	*YESH HARBE' DOLLARIM. TOV,* if I'll need a loan, then I know, I know who to ask.	*There are many dollars, well,* if I'll need a loan, then I know, I know who to ask.	

Lastly, responding to Mike's account that he studies Aramaic in the weekend, the teacher said:

Extract 6.27B Third Focus Lesson – Warm-up

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
T	Aramaic. So if you meet an Aramaic person on the street you can communicate, [..] I'm just joking. Um, *ARAMAIC, ARAMAIC.* Aramaic, it's an ancient, [………] em, language.	Aramaic. So if you meet an Aramaic person on the street you can communicate, [..] I'm just joking. Um, *Aramaic, Aramaic,* Aramaic, it's an ancient, [………] em, language.	

Much of the humour in these episodes was dependent on the context in which they took place, yet they illustrate the light touch brought to classroom exchanges. The fact that the teacher switched to English suggests that, at these points, his concern was with group membership rather than with details of language learning. By switching to English, as 'an expression of common knowledge and common loyalties' (Edwards & Westgate 1994, p. 33), the teacher appeared to be establishing a more equal positioning him and the students.

Classroom management

As stated above, the teacher expected the students to abide by a number of basic classroom conventions. He expected students to attend all lessons, to arrive promptly, to have switched off their mobile phones before class, and to complete all self-study tasks. These expectations were clearly manifested, yet lapses were handled sensitively and gracefully. The following examples illustrate this point.

The teacher regularly made known to the cohort his awareness of cases when students came late to class. He did not explicitly reprimand them on their late arrival, but acknowledged lack of punctuality either by greeting late students upon their entry, or by choosing them as the next dialogic partner in the Warm-up session.

No such instances occurred in the Focus Lessons, but some did occur in other lessons. Extract 6.28 provides an example of this. While not commenting on Eliza's late arrival, as she entered the classroom the teacher addressed the cohort in the following way:

Extract 6.28 Week 12

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*SHMONA STOUDENTIM, [..] YESH AKHSHAV SHMONA STOUDENTIM, [..] SHMONA STOODENTIM, STOUDENTIM [..] NASHIM OHHH [..] KAMA AKHSHAV YESH--------?*	*Eight* (m) *[……] students , now there's eight students, [.]eight students[.] students [.] women ohhh […] how many students now?*	Eliza walks in
2 Tami	*TISHA'A*	*Nine*	
3 Mike	*= TISHA'A*	*=Nine*	
4 T	*TISHA'A, [.] AKHSHAV YESH TISHA'A […] HA-KOL BESEDER?*	*Nine,[.] now there's nine students […] is all alright?*	directed to Eliza
5 Eliza	My bike tire went flat […] it's not funny I had to walk my bike here.	My bike tire went flat […] it's not funny. I had to walk my bike here.	general burst of laughter amongst students
6 T	*ZE' LO SYMPATY, ZE LO NEĤMAD,* ***ZE*** *[.] LO [.] NEĤMAD [..] LO NEĤMAD*	*It's not sympathetic, its not nice,* ***its*** *[.] not[.] nice, [..] not nice,*	uttered in response to laughter
7 Eliza	Yeah	Yeah	
8 T	*ZE' LO NEĤMAD* […]	*It's not nice* […]	writes *NEHMAD* on board
9 Eliza	*LO*	*no*	
10 T	*LO NEĤMAD, AZ AKHSHAV YESH TISHA'A STOUDENTIM BA-KITA.* One angry student and rest is[.] *EH* tired, so *SHMONA'A , AZ AKHSHAV YESH TISHA'A STOUDENTIM.*	*Not nice, so now there's nine students in the classroom.* One angry student and rest is [.] ehh tired, so *eight. So now there's nine students.*	

As can be seen, Eliza was clearly aware that her late arrival had not gone unnoticed, but resented the implication that her lateness was intentional, so the teacher addressed this instance with a light touch.

Another aspect of classroom conduct to which the teacher was strongly opposed was the ringing of mobile phones during lessons. A lapse of the ‘no mobile’ rule, took place in the Second Focus Lesson - Core Activity 3, during the individual completion of an exercise from the Textbook. The teacher addressed this lapse as follows:

Extract 6.29 Second Focus Lesson – Core Activity 3

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	What's going on with your cell phone? You know the rule. […...] You know the rule?	What's going on with your cell-phone? You know the rule. […...] You know the rule?	T hears mobile ringing
2 Ethel	Oh, if your cell phone goes off you have to bring a […] cake	Oh, if your cell phone goes off you have to bring a […] cake	S recalls 'mobile rule'
3 Tal	Well, Eliza stopped that	Well, Eliza stopped that	S refers to ringing
4 Eliza	I'm bringing a cake on the last day so	I'm bringing a cake on the last day so	
5 T	What do you mean the last day? You're not the one to decide Eliza, for next class.	What do you mean the last day? You're not the one to decide Eliza, for next class.	General laughter from Ss
6 Eliza	Woo, but I can't bake	Woo, but I can't bake	
7 Lucy	How do you say the word for gateau?	How do you say the word for gateau?	French word
8 T	*OUGA*	*Cake*	
9 Tami	So, you have to bring a cake?	So, you have to bring a cake?	
10 T	sorry about it but you have to bring a cake	Sorry about it but you have to bring a cake	
11 Mic	*LO OUGA, BIRA*	*Not a cake, beer*	S jokingly suggests a different 'consequence'
12 T	you must buy one, and a good one	You must buy one, and a good one	
13 Lucy	I will just buy a little one	I will just buy a little one	S refers to Week 4 Lesson when her mobile rang and T announced this 'mobile rule' (chapter 5, p. 22)
14 T	*LO OUGA GDOLA BEVAKASHA […] OOGA [.] GDOLA*	*No, a big cake please […] big [.] cake*	
15 Lucy	but it was the first time	But it was the first time	
16 T	no, no, sorry	No, no, sorry	

As can be seen, this 'no mobile' rule was, once again, explicitly stressed, and the teacher's irritation made clear, but this was achieved through humour and good-natured acknowledgement of the disturbance, rather than explicitly reprimanding or publically shaming students (for other pedagogic techniques of managing class rules through humour, see Senior 2001, p. 49). Indeed, the teacher displayed the kind of behaviour that van Lier has described as:

> [T]he promotion of what Max van Manen (1991) calls "pedagogical thoughtfulness" or "tact", a mindful, understanding orientation in dealing with students and the ability to act wisely.
>
> van Lier (2001a, p. 103)

The teacher dealt with other infringement of classroom rules – when students missed lessons or when they failed to submit their self-study tasks on time – in similar fashion. Students were clearly aware of these expectations: they knew when they were out of line; and they were aware there would be some minor retribution, which, nonetheless, was administered with humour and a light touch. At no point during the data collection did the teacher explicitly articulate the expected social interactional norms of classroom behaviour. Rather, he modelled the desired classroom-interactional norms in a way that made these norms clear and highly transparent. Hence the classroom practices he established were easily understood, enabling the students to follow them without difficulty.

To sum up, the classroom environment reflected the teachers' positive attitude towards the students and his enthusiasm for teaching. This was evident from his and the students' comments about the program, and was also evident from the patterns of interaction that were characterized by humour and warmth. Classroom norms were firmly established and adhered to by students, but these norms were established and maintained with a light touch.

6.3 Conclusion to Chapter 6

Chapter 6 has provided a detailed analysis of key features that characterized lessons in the case study program. The analysis in Chapter 5 of the Week 4 Lesson, which was considered typical of others in the case study, identified these features as contributing in

significant ways to the overall success of this program. The purpose of Chapter 6 was to investigate the extent to which these features were also evident in the Focus Lessons, and hence the extent to which these were characteristic of lessons in the program as a whole. To this end, the chapter has focused on the ways in which the features unfolded across four Focus Lessons (weeks 10-11 of the case study program). This analysis of the Focus Lessons represents the third level of analysis in the thesis.

Key features investigated in this chapter were:

- Systematic and predictable structure of lesson and activities
- Introduction of new language items
- Use of Hebrew to teach Hebrew
- Code switching
- The role of handover
- Feedback and feedforward,
- Affective and social factors

The analysis in this chapter confirmed that key features evident in Week 4 Lesson were also evident in the Focus Lessons. This analysis also revealed a consistency in the ways these features functioned across all lessons. Additionally, analysis of the Focus Lessons provided further insights into ways in which the key features unfold across time. The third level of analysis has thus enabled more detailed understandings of ways in which these key features contribute to students' learning.

In particular, the third level of analysis supports, and thus contributes to recent calls for a paradigm shift in the long-standing debate on the use of learners' L1 in the L2 classroom (for example, Butzkamm 2003; Butzkamm & Caldwell 2009; G. Cook 2010; Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher 2006, 2009; Ferguson, 2009; Kim & Elder 2005; Macaro 2005; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain 2009a). The literature indicates the call for a reconceptualization of the relationship between the L2 and L1, and the limited and controlled use of the L1 by both teachers and learners, is based on two major factors: firstly, on a fresh understanding of the role the first language plays in humans' cognitive ability to learn additional languages; and secondly, on recent research in the areas of

classroom language learning, on naturalistic bilingual speech, and on the juxtaposition of these two areas. With regards to the latter, a number of empirical classroom-studies have demonstrated the variable nature of L1 usage in L2 'communicative' classrooms:

> Observational studies (e.g. Castellotti, 1997; Duff & Polio, 1990; Macaro, 1997; Polio & Duff, 1994; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002; Turnbull, 1999, 2005) clearly show teachers vary in terms of the quantity and quality of target language used, even in contexts that are based on principles of communicative language teaching and exclusive target language use.
>
> Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain (2009b, p. 4)

While it is beyond the scope of this thesis to discuss the cognitive benefits of using the L1 in L2 teaching and learning, or to consider bilingual speakers' code-switching behaviours, the thesis does contribute to research on functions and uses of L1 in L2 language learning. Analysis of lessons in this chapter showed the following functions and uses of L1 and L2:

L1 in L2 - teacher	L1 in L2 – students
Confirm understanding and/or clarify meaning of a Hebrew language item	Clarify meaning/ confirm comprehension (and to ask help from teacher and/or peers)
Clarify/extend knowledge of Hebrew culture	Fill gaps in knowledge about Hebrew culture
Support learning about Hebrew as a language (metalanguage development)	Support their own metalanguage development
	Negotiate understanding of Hebrew vocabulary and grammar (in open tasks)
Regulate classroom instruction	Clarify instructions
Use of humour to establish equal group positioning and membership	

While the functions identified in this thesis are closest to Macaro's five areas of teachers' codeswitching (2005, p. 69); and Ferguson's three broad pedagogical-function categories (2009, pp 231-232), this research contributes further to the accumulated knowledge in this area. It does so by increasing our understanding of knowledge on the language choices made by teachers (for example, Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher 2009; Ferguson, 2009; Forman 2012; Kim & Elder 2005; Macaro 2005); and more significantly, by contributing to our knowledge on the language choices made by learners. Apart from Macaro's reference to the fact that codeswitching is an entirely

natural phenomenon in learners' language (2005, p. 67), students' codeswitching choices have, to date, received relatively little academic attention.

The feature of function and use of L1/L2, as well as the other key features identified within the RIS lessons, are revisited in the following final chapter of the thesis (Chapter 7). In this concluding chapter, the nature and significance of key features are addressed in relation to the research questions posed in Chapter 1.

Chapter 7
Conclusions and contributions of research

7.1 Review of purposes and design of research

The purpose of this study has been to contribute to the field of teaching and learning of Hebrew as an additional language (THAL) through a focus on a successful beginner-level Modern Hebrew program in an Australian university. My aim has been to raise awareness of the context and instructional circumstances of the teaching and learning interactions that took place between teacher and students in this program. A further aim of the research has been to contribute more generally to understandings of teaching and learning practices of Hebrew and the place of such practices within the broader field of L2 education.

As I have argued previously, THAL has traditionally been a practice driven discipline rather than one that is scholarly or research focused. In recent years there have been calls to address this issue by increasing scholarly attention into THAL, and by improving Hebrew teachers' knowledge of wider theories and teaching approaches and methods within the field of L2 education (Bolotzky 2009; Feuer 2009; Raizen 2002; Shohamy 1999). These appeals to establish a stronger research-based agenda, by conducting empirically based investigations and by overall professionalization of the discipline, are aimed at moving THAL above and beyond teaching and learning; and positioning it within the broader field of L2 research and scholarship.

As explained in Chapter 1, the specific impetus to carry out this research resulted initially from my own experiences of teaching Hebrew within an Australian university. Following my appointment at my university, I experimented with a range of approaches to the THAL before initiating introduction of the curriculum and pedagogy developed at the Rothberg International School for Overseas Students (RIS). Following the implementation of the RIS curricula and resources, there was consistent experience-based evidence that pointed to students' increased proficiency in using Hebrew and their increased enjoyment in studying the language (Gilead 2004). There was also evidence of increased satisfaction amongst the teaching staff. As the person primarily responsible for implementation of the RIS curricula, I was keen to undertake research

that would help me better understand the factors that contributed to the overall success of the changes. My further interest lay in investigating the complexities of classroom based teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew in one context, but in ways that could potentially inform other contexts and other teachers.

In pursuing these purposes and aims, the research has addressed three major questions. To remind the reader, these are:

Research Question 1

What is the teaching and learning context, and the typical patterns of classroom interaction, which contribute to students' success in one particular Hebrew language program?

- *What is the context of teaching and learning?*
- *What are the typical patterns of classroom interaction?*

Research Question 2

What is the value of a close analysis of classroom interactions in understanding students' L2 learning and development?

- *What is the value of making explicit the classroom-based interactions that routinely and recursively occur, yet are most often below teachers' conscious awareness?*

Research Question 3

What implications can be drawn from the analysis of a case study of one Hebrew language program?

- *What implications can be drawn for other Modern Hebrew programs, both locally and abroad?*
- *What implications can be more generally drawn for L2 teaching, learning and research?*

These questions have been addressed through a qualitative and ethnographically oriented case study. As discussed in Chapter 3, the research was located within a sociocultural-ecological world view. Such a world view called for an all-inclusive

approach to research that captured the fullness of the investigated situation; embraced the many elements that made up the research site; and took into account the complex and multilayered connections amongst and between these elements (Lantolf 2000b; LeCompte & Preissle 1993; Packer 2011; van Lier 2004). It required data to be collected from different sources via a range of data collection techniques; and over a prolonged period of time (Chamot 2001; Christie 2002; Cohen et al. 2004; DuFon 2002; Mackey & Gass 2005; Packer 2011; van Lier 2004).

In line with sociocultural-ecological perspectives, the case study was designed in an attempt to 'look at the entire situation and ask(s) what is it in this environment that makes things happen the way they do?' (van Lier 2004, pp. 11-12). Thus, while primarily a case study of a beginners-level Modern Hebrew program, the research also addressed its broader context. Since the program was based on the RIS curricula framework and pedagogical practices, the research included an analysis of those curricula. The research design thus involved data collection from different sources: curricula and pedagogical resources from the RIS program; video recordings of lessons within the beginners-level program; interviews with teachers and students; and collection of teaching resources.

A major feature in the design of the research has been its three levels of analysis. The first of these addressed the nature of the RIS program. Here, analysis of the RIS curriculum and pedagogical resources enabled identification of major (and largely implicit) principles and theories underpinning that program. The second and third levels of analysis addressed the case study. The second level of analysis introduced the case study program and presented a detailed analysis of Week 4 Lesson. It resulted in identification of a number of key characteristic features of the program. The third level of analysis focused on four follow-up Focus Lessons and addressed the extent to which key features (identified in the Week 4 Lesson) were characteristic of the program as a whole. The three levels of analysis enabled insights at increasing levels of detail into the ways in which the teachers and students interacted within the program. They also provided insights into the theoretical and pedagogical significance of key characteristic features within the program.

Major findings from the three levels of analysis, are presented in the following sections. Discussions of findings, their contributions and significance, and their implications are addressed in response to the three research questions of the thesis. This discussion constitutes the major part of the chapter. The final section of the chapter addresses limitations of the research, and suggestions for future research.

7.2 Major findings from research

The first research question of the thesis addressed the teaching and learning context and the typical patterns of classroom interaction within the case study program. Findings across the three levels of analysis are relevant to this question. A major outcome from the analysis across all levels was that key features identified in the RIS program were also consistently evident in the case study program. This consistency indicated that teaching and learning practices within the case study program were closely aligned with RIS principles and procedures. However, the more detailed analysis, first of the Week 4 Lesson in Chapter 5, and then of Focus lessons in Chapter 6, provided additional insights into how these RIS principles were brought to life and implemented in one classroom. The second and third analysis levels pointed to the interplay between the general RIS features and a range of additional and more specific features that enabled their implementation in the case study program. These analyses also indicated that the interplay between general and more specific features enabled implementation of RIS features in ways that effectively supported students' learning. The second and third analysis levels also showed that the case study teacher was prepared to be flexible in how key features were implemented and that he incorporated additional features and resources if, and when, they were deemed appropriate. In what follows, I elaborate these arguments.

Key features and their implementation

A key feature of the RIS program that emerged from the first analysis level was the systematic and structured nature of the program as a whole and of individual lessons. The second analysis level confirmed that a systematic and predictable structure was a major feature of the Week 4 lesson, and the third analysis level showed that the four Focus Lessons were also clearly and systematically structured. They incorporated the

RIS organising principle of grammatical structure; they had a consistent Three-Stage structure of Warm-up, Core activities and (usually) Wrap-up. As in the Week 4 Lesson, Core Activities constituted the major component of each Focus Lesson, and each of these Core Activities had a consistent internal three part Phase structure, contributing to the overall recursive and predictable nature of lessons. Like the Week 4 Lesson, the Focus Lessons had strong cohesive ties to the relevant Textbook *Shi'ur 2* unit-of-work, but in addition the Focus Lessons provided evidence of linear ties between some Activities and Lessons. The consistent structure and organisation of lessons across the program was significant in enabling students to predict how individual lessons would unfold, and what was expected of them in classroom interactions.

A second major feature of the RIS program that was also evident in the Week 4 Lesson was the predictable way in which new language items were introduced. Analysis of the four Focus Lessons confirmed that this feature was characteristic of the case study program as a whole. When introducing new language items, the teacher typically modelled the items, he often included stressed intonation and slower speech. He engaged students in sequences of predictable questions and answers where he moved from the known to the unknown (van Lier 2000, 2004). Across the Focus Lessons there was evidence the teacher made consistent and systematic use of modelling of new language items, of illustrations and gestures to support meaning, of pacing and of intonation patterns to emphasise new language items and to focus on pronunciation of new vocabulary. He first introduced new language items in the oral mode, but then provided written backup of these items to aid memorisation. He also systematically provided opportunities for students to link new language items with those already familiar to them, and he encouraged students, often incidentally, to develop and build knowledge about language systems as lessons proceeded. He used the Textbook as a resource, but also supplemented it with his own materials and activities. These strategies enabled students to have time to hear, understand, and begin internalising new unfamiliar sounding words and structures, while engaging in interaction with the teacher and other students in Hebrew.

One of the most characteristic features of the RIS program, and one that was evident in the Week 4 Lesson, was that of using Hebrew to teach Hebrew. This feature was also clearly evident in the Focus Lessons. Analysis of these Lessons illustrated the teacher's

pedagogical practice of using Hebrew to model new language items, and to elicit use of these new items from the students. By using Hebrew to teach and learn Hebrew, the teacher was able to model the language, first repeating it orally several times whilst supporting his speech with visual props, gestural cues, and then in writing; then gradually handing-over the use to the students. In discursive interactions with students, the teacher was also able to recast their utterances, and to appropriate some of their answers by feeding these back into the discourse. Interactions were typically conducted in Hebrew, although the analysis showed the teacher was prepared to make brief use English at certain points to maintain pace and ensure students' understanding.

The fact that the teacher was prepared to code switch was significant. Analysis of the Week 4 Lesson provided evidence of some strategic use of English, and analysis of the Focus Lessons confirmed this to be the case. In the Focus Lessons, code switching played a consistent and important role in supporting students' learning of Hebrew. The analysis showed that both teacher and students consistently instigated use of English at various points and for specific functions. There was a close relationship between the teacher's and the students' purposes for code-switching: both used English to confirm understanding of specific language items (most frequently); to build or clarify understanding of relevant aspects of cultural context in order to understand language; to clarify or extend students' metalinguistic understanding of Hebrew as a system; and to explain or clarify how to complete tasks. In these cases, usually the teacher made more extensive use of English than students. However, when engaged in more open ended and independent tasks the students made frequent use of English to negotiate and clarify their understanding of specific features of Hebrew. Code switching in such tasks provided opportunities to clarify exact meaning of certain language items as well as opportunities to learn about the language. Analysis across the Focus Lessons provided further insights into the quite nuanced ways in which code switching supported students' language learning.

A feature that overlapped with code switching was that of handover. Handover emerged as an important feature in the Week 4 Lesson, and there was evidence that it occurred at a number of levels. Analysis of the Focus Lessons confirms this was a key feature in the teaching in the case study program as a whole.

As in the Week 4 Lesson, handover occurred in the Focus Lessons at a number of levels: between lessons, within lessons as students moved from one Core Activity to the next; and within Core Activities as students moved from one Phase to the next. Handover between lessons was most obvious in the connection between the content of one lesson and the Warm-Up stage in following lessons. At times this involved direct practice of previously introduced language items, and at other times it involved more open ended discussion where students were encouraged to draw broadly on the range of their Hebrew resources. In both instances, the open-ended nature of interactions provided opportunities for students to initiate and experiment with language; and to use ungrammatical language and learn from such use.

There was evidence that handover between and within lessons was not a simple linear process. Activities were sequenced so that structured tasks were always followed by more open tasks, but the level of openness varied (for example, text reading tasks were more structured than pair interactions). In addition, even when students were engaged in the more open tasks, the teacher continued to monitor their progress and to intervene as necessary to ensure they remained focused and to address points of difficulty. He intervened and provided feedback at strategic points, then handed over responsibility to students by drawing back to enable them to continue negotiating meanings in Hebrew. He thus continued to provide guidance and support, but this support was choreographed with a light touch - it allowed space for students to experiment and practice new language, and to support each other while doing so. In this sense it constituted significant handover.

Another interrelated feature was that of feedback and feedforward. Analysis of the Week 4 Lesson pointed to the fact that feedback played an important role in supporting students' learning, and this was confirmed with analysis of the Focus Lessons. Across all lessons, students were provided with immediate feedback during their class interactions; and with personal individual feedback in response to their more open pair work activities. In addition, analysis of the Focus Lessons showed that feedback was provided to the whole cohort via extended explanations of specific grammatical points that were causing difficulties. This feedback also functioned as a way of forward-feeding students, by enabling them to develop metalinguistic understandings of Hebrew as a system; thereby preparing them for future learning.

A further means of preparing/sensitizing students to future learning was evident in the case study program. While there was some evidence in the Week 4 Lesson that the teacher pointed forward to future learning, the analysis across a number of lessons provided further insights into this feature. The analysis showed that in the lead up to the Focus Lessons, the teacher sensitised students to specific Hebrew structures (the example discussed in relation to the Focus Lessons was noun-adjective word order and gender agreement) by sprinkling/drizzling such phrases into his classroom talk well before formal introduction of noun-adjective phrases. This process of *TIFTOUF* was channelled through the teacher's speech in his classroom talk. This preparation was initially apparently spontaneous, but closer to the point where the structure was explicitly taught the process of *TIFTOUF* became more deliberate. Within the process of *TIFTOUF*, use of Hebrew always preceded learning about Hebrew. Thus, this process of 'softening' (teacher's word) the students intersected with the feature of use. As indicated earlier, although the teacher was prepared to switch to English, the majority of instruction occurred in Hebrew. However, because students were already sensitised to specific language, the teacher was better positioned to teach it through use of the language.

Finally, the classroom environment was important. This was given some emphasis in the RIS curriculum and resources, but had more prominence in the case study program. Analysis of the Week 4 Lesson pointed to a positive and supportive learning environment, and this was confirmed in the follow up Focus Lessons. Classroom norms were firmly established and adhered to by students, but these norms were established and maintained with a light touch. As in other learning contexts, the existence of a positive and supportive classroom environment underpinned the students' successful learning (Dörnyei & Murphy 2003; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie 2002; Ortega 2009; Senior 2001); it enabled students to feel comfortable in class, and confident to experiment in their language use.

To sum up, the findings from the thesis' three levels of analysis have shown that major RIS principles were clearly evident in the organisation of the case study's lessons and activities, and in the typicality of teaching and learning interactions. However, the second and third analyses levels provided more detailed insights into how these features were implemented and how they contributed to students' learning and development.

These analyses also showed that the case study teacher worked flexibly with these features and that, to further his pedagogical purposes, he introduced his own variations at certain points in the program. This summary of findings provides the basis for discussion of the second research question regarding the value of a close analysis of classroom-based interactions.

7.3 The value of close analysis of classroom based interaction

The second research question of the thesis addresses the value of close analysis of classroom-based interactions of the kind undertaken in this thesis. As indicated, a major impetus for this research has been the fact that the discipline of THAL has been primarily practice driven, and that it is under-researched and under-theorised. Given the relative success of programs such as the RIS in assisting students to learn the language, it could be argued that there is little to be gained by attempts to provide a stronger theoretical basis for the discipline. In response, I would argue that research of the kind undertaken in this thesis is of value, and that it provides insights that are likely to contribute to successful teaching and learning of Hebrew with other teachers and in other contexts. In addition, I argue that such analysis contributes to the overall professionalising of the discipline of THAL in three major ways: a better understanding of pedagogical practices; a stronger theoretical understanding of how and why practices are likely to be effective (or not); and, at a more general level, a better understanding of broader debates in the field of L2 education and their implications for teaching and learning of Hebrew. In what follows, I elaborate this argument, and in doing so, I also address contributions of the thesis.

7.3.1 Better understanding of pedagogical practices

As indicated in Chapter 4, the approach to teaching that is (at least implicitly) proposed by the RIS curricula and resources is in many ways a traditional one. The curriculum is organised around sequences of grammatical items that are located in relation to general topics and vocabulary relevant to those topics. While the topics and the specified vocabulary have been chosen to try to reflect issues of broad interest or relevance to potential students, they primarily provide a ‘context’ for the teaching of the grammatical items. As analysis of the systematic structure of the Week 4 Lesson and follow up

Focus Lessons has shown, cohesion between lessons results primarily from sequencing of grammatical items, rather than from sequencing of topics. Thus it could be argued that the RIS program represents a traditional structured-situational approach to language teaching.

The value of the kind of analysis undertaken in this research is that it enables understanding of teaching and learning interactions to go beyond simple labels of one kind of approach or another. While the first analysis level confirmed that the RIS curricula is based on a structured-situational approach, it provided greater insights into the range of features that characterise the RIS approach, and, more importantly, it provided insights into the very subtle and nuanced ways in which such features were given life in the case study's classroom. As I argued in the previous section, it was the interplay between the more general features and a range of more specific features in the classroom interaction that provided effective support for students' learning. The example of handover in the case study program serves to illustrate this point.

As indicated in Chapter 2, the concept of handover comes from sociocultural literature, and especially from the literature on scaffolding (Bruner & Watson 1983; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Mercer & Fisher 1998; Michell & Sharpe 2005; van Lier 2004). While not specifically addressed in the RIS resources, the concept of handover is implicit in the sequencing of lessons and tasks within the Textbook's prescribed curriculum. Thus the Textbook's organisation works with the assumption that learning of new grammatical structures and vocabulary will build sequentially on what is already known. Tasks are also sequenced from those that are 'closed', in the sense that they are teacher directed and structured, to those that are more open, in the sense that they enable students to interact with the teacher or with each other in more active and flexible ways. The shifts between tasks thus provide opportunities for handover.

The place of handover in both the Week 4 Lesson and the follow up Focus Lessons was confirmed in the second and third analyses levels. As the above discussion of key findings has shown, handover occurred on a number of levels: between lessons as students practiced language they had previously learned; within lessons as students moved from one Core Activity to the next; and within Core Activities as students moved from one Phase to the next. The systematic nature of the RIS program and its

implementation in the case study program facilitated handover particularly as students moved from closed to open tasks where they were able to initiate and experiment with language; and to use ungrammatical language and learn from such use. The analyses also showed that handover was not a straightforward or linear matter, and that the teacher continued to monitor students' progress and to intervene as necessary, to provide feedback and then to draw back to enable students to continue negotiating meanings in Hebrew.

It is significant that the case study teacher was unfamiliar with the literature on sociocultural theories and scaffolding. However, because of his experience of 'what works in practice' he was in fact implementing this feature. I suggest the that value of the analysis of classroom interaction here is that it brings to consciousness a key feature that played a pivotal role in effectively supporting students' learning. In doing so, it provides insights for the case study teacher into his own teaching practices, and it enables other teachers to learn from the example provided by the case study. Insights into the nature of other key features, I suggest, are of similar value.

There is a further advantage of detailed analyses of classroom interactions. They enable identification of features that at least to some extent transcend any one approach to language teaching and learning. Perhaps most obviously, the benefits of features such as systematic and predictable structures are evident not only in structured-situational approaches, but in any good approach to language teaching (Lightbown & Spada 2006; Ortega 2009) and a warm and supportive learning environment is relevant in any language classroom (Edwards & Westgate 1994; Lave & Wenger 1991). But in addition, I suggest less obvious features such as handover, code switching; feedback and feedforward, are also relevant to different approaches in language teaching and that their significance lies in the ways that they are implemented at the level of classroom interaction. While it remains important to understand the theoretical and pedagogical basis of different approaches to language teaching, it is also important to address ways in which such approaches are 'recontextualized' (Bernstein 2000) in the actual classroom – and this includes understanding of how key features, such as those identified in this research, function in classroom interactions.

7.3.2 Theoretical contribution

As indicated in Chapter 2, sociocultural and ecological perspectives have informed the overall approach to analysis of data and interpretation of findings in the thesis. Key constructs introduced in the chapter that are particularly relevant to this discussion include *affordances* and *emergences* (van Lier 2000) and the notion of scaffolding (Bruner & Watson 1983; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Mercer & Fisher 1998; Michell & Sharpe 2005). To remind the reader, in van Lier's terms (2000, p.252), 'an affordance is a particular property of the environment that is relevant … for an active perceiving organism in the environment … If the language learner is active and engaged, she will perceive linguistic affordances and use them for linguistic action'. van Lier (2000, p. 257) suggests that the notion of *affordance* is a more appropriate term than *input* in understanding language learning. He also argues that language learning cannot be understood as a linear process of acquisition, but rather must be considered as *emergence* where 'relatively simple elements combine to form a higher order system' that is 'not only more than the sum of its parts, it is of a different order system' (van Lier, 2000, p. 252).

van Lier's notions of *affordance* and *emergence* sit comfortably within Vygotskian theories of learning and particularly with the notion of scaffolding. As indicated in Chapter 2, although not used by Vygotsky himself, the term scaffolding very much derives from his work. Within the extensive amount of work in the field of education on the notion of scaffolding, the work of Hammond & Gibbons (2005); and of van Lier (2004) has been particularly relevant to this thesis. In the following discussion, I address the place of scaffolding in the case study program and then return to notions of affordance and emergence.

Scaffolding and affordances for learning

As indicated in Chapter 2, in their analysis of teaching-learning practices with second language learners in mainstream school classes, Hammond & Gibbons (2005) distinguished between Designed-in scaffolding (decisions made by teachers in their processes of program planning that 'designed-in' support for students) the Contingent scaffolding (the strategies used by teachers to support students' learning in the actual teaching moment). In similar vein, van Lier (2004) distinguished between macro level

scaffolding (decisions made at the level of program planning); meso (decisions in lesson planning) and micro (support in the teaching moment). The argument behind these distinctions was that without careful pre-planning, scaffolding in the teachable moment was untargeted and not necessarily helpful. That is, the researchers argued that for Contingent, micro level scaffolding to genuinely support students' learning, it needed to be located within clearly planned programs, and it needed to reflect program goals and lesson purposes. Otherwise, scaffolding became a 'hit and miss affair' (Hammond & Gibbons 2005, p. 20). Such distinctions between levels of scaffolding are highly relevant for understanding the nature of scaffolding in the case study program in this research.

As analysis in the thesis has shown, there were a number of key features that were consistently significant in both the organisation and implementation of the case study program. The notion of scaffolding with distinctions between pre-planned and spontaneous-as-required levels enables the interrelation between the RIS resources and the nature of support within the classroom interactions to be teased out in further detail. Here I draw particularly on van Lier's (2004) three-way distinction of macro, meso and micro scaffolding, and on Hammond & Gibbons' (2005) distinction between designed-in and contingent scaffolding.

Within the case study (and I would argue also within other programs that draw directly on textbooks and resources prepared by external writers) macro-level program-planning decisions were made by the RIS teacher-writers Chayat, Kobliner & Israeli. Thus decisions (evident from the first analysis level) regarding the grammar based curriculum, the systematic and predictable structure of lessons, with their shifts from closed to more open tasks, were made by them. Decisions about the use of Hebrew to teach Hebrew; and the primary focus on the oral mode of the language were also made by Chayat, Kobliner & Israeli, as these are in line with the RIS enunciated pedagogy. These macro-level decisions were designed-into the overall framework and approach to teaching provided by RIS. As the second and third analyses levels have shown, the case study teacher worked closely with the RIS framework and its macro-level features, but he worked creatively to elaborate these features and bring them to life in ways that maximised students' opportunities for learning. Thus at a meso level, the teacher took account of the specific abilities and needs of students in his class, he modified the

Textbook's prescribed curriculum (as well as the supplementary guidelines presented in the Guidebook) by introducing a Warm-up stage in each lesson, and at various times he added additional tasks. These creative variations typically provided students with opportunities for open-ended and playful use of language, thereby enhancing opportunities for further practice and consolidation of language features. As his interview showed, the teacher was also prepared to work flexibly with features such as feedback and feedforward; use of Hebrew to teach Hebrew; and with code switching to support students' learning. Thus at the level of meso/designed-in scaffolding, there was evidence of flexible interpretation of the framework provided by RIS.

The case study program offers further insights into ways in which spontaneous-as-required (micro-level/contingent) scaffolding worked to support students' learning. The second and third analyses levels in the thesis provide evidence of the consistent and systematic but nuanced way in which the teacher worked with students to support their learning. For example, when introducing new language items, there was evidence of modelling of the language; repetition, recasting students' responses, cued elicitation to encourage students' responses and opportunities for students to practice use of the language. Further examples were evident in the teachers' use of code switching and in his provision of feedback/feedforward – because of their importance in the case study program I elaborate these examples in more detail.

As indicated above, the teacher was prepared to code switch between Hebrew and English to support students' learning. While, in itself, this is not unusual (V. Cook 2001 2002a, 2002b; Turnbull & Arnett 2002; van Lier 1995), the analysis in the thesis provides evidence that code switching on the part of both teacher and students was systematic and consistent. Thus while the majority of classroom interaction took place in Hebrew, at certain times and for specific purposes, both teacher and students systematically and consistently switched to English. As analyses showed (summarised in Table 6.2, and also discussed above), the teacher used English: to confirm students' understanding and/or to clarify the meaning of a Hebrew language item; to clarify or extend knowledge of Jewish/Israeli cultural issues relevant to language learning; and to support students' metalinguistic understanding of aspects of Hebrew grammar. He also used English to ensure smooth management of class routines, maintain expected codes of behaviour, and at times to contribute humour to the class. Students used English to

clarify meaning of a Hebrew language item and/or to confirm comprehension (in interaction both with teacher and with peers); to fill gaps in knowledge about Jewish/Israeli culture and to support their metalinguistic development. Students, as well as teacher, initiated use of English for these purposes. The strategic use of code switching, I argue, constituted an important component of the micro scaffolding that was available for students in the case study program. The significance of the close analysis undertaken in the thesis is that it shows when, how, why and for which functions such code switching occurred.

Feedback and feedforward also provided opportunities for micro level scaffolding. As with code switching, feedback is a common feature of language teaching programs (Lyster 2004; Lyster & Ranta 1997; Ohta 2001). However, analysis in the thesis again provides insights into the detail of how and why feedback contributed to students' learning. As indicated above, students received immediate feedback during their class interactions; and they received personal individual feedback during their more open pair work activities. Such feedback could commonly be expected in any program (Hattie & Yates 2014; Sadler 1983, 2010). Less common was the way in which feedforward functioned in the program. As indicated, students received feedback via extended explanations of specific grammatical points that were causing difficulties, thus also functioning as a kind of forward-feeding, by enabling students to develop metalinguistic understandings of Modern Hebrew as a system, and to prepare them for future learning. Perhaps more significantly, feedforward included the process of *TIFTOUF* – a process of sensitising students to specific language features that they would meet in their future learning. As level 3 analysis showed, this process worked across lessons. Although as indicated in his interview, the teacher was conscious of his use of *TIFTOUF* (although he did not use this term), the analysis provides evidence of the systematic ways in which the process worked. *TIFTOUF* occurred in the teachers' classroom talk, initially spontaneously as opportunities arose, but more deliberately as lessons moved closer to the point where a specific structure would be introduced. Thus, as indicated, use of Hebrew (and relevant Hebrew structure) preceded learning about Hebrew. Also as indicated, because the process sensitised students to specific language features, at a later point in the program, the teacher was better positioned to teach Hebrew through use of Hebrew. Thus the process, I argue, constituted a further important component of micro

scaffolding. Again the significance of the analysis is that it provides insights into how this process worked, and more generally into ways in which both feedback and feedforward functioned to support students' learning.

At this point I revisit the notion of *affordance* and its relevance to the thesis. In addition to the analyses undertaken in the thesis, the discussion of scaffolding has provided insights into the nature of the learning environment of the case study program. It has highlighted the inter-relationship between the RIS curriculum and resources, the teachers' planning processes, and the contingent and nuanced way in which he interacted with students to support their learning. On the basis of this discussion, I argue that, in large part, the key features that have been consistently evident in the program, and the layered and systematic ways in which scaffolding of these features was implemented in the case study program constituted the *affordances* for learning that were available to the students. I also argue that the analyses undertaken in the thesis provide evidence that, in van Lier's words, students were able to 'perceive linguistic affordance and use them for linguistic action' (van Lier 2000, p. 252). There was thus evidence of *emergence* in the students' developing proficiency in language. I elaborate this final point by addressing students' roles and perceptions of learning in the following sub-section.

Students' roles and perceptions of their learning: evidence of emergence

The overall focus of the thesis has been on the teaching and learning practices within the case study Modern Hebrew program. Inevitably, because of the nature of classroom interaction, much of the focus within this interaction has been on the role of the teaching. However, to a lesser extent, the thesis has also addressed the students' roles and their perceptions of their own learning. This has been done both explicitly and implicitly. As indicated in Chapter 3, students were invited to reflect on their learning, and on their responses to specific learning tasks, through the mechanism of mid-lesson interviews. Thus the research provided opportunities for students' to comment explicitly on their own learning. In addition, the emphasis on the nature of classroom interaction involving teacher and students has implicitly provided insight into students' roles and perceptions of learning. This emphasis has also provided evidence of *emergence* of learning on the part of the students.

As indicated in Chapter 6, students were articulate about the value of specific key features within the case study. For example, they commented positively on the value of using Hebrew to teach Hebrew within lessons - they pointed out the intellectual 'push' (Hammond & Gibbons 2005) that was associated with trying to understand, and interact, in Hebrew; and the fact that they were more likely to remember language structures when they had been required to use them. However, they also commented on the value of code switching to clarify meaning and grammatical structure of specific Hebrew utterances. They commented that short English explanations saved time, as they clarified their understanding and enabled them to focus on the direction of the lesson, rather than being distracted by continuing attempts to work out the meaning of an utterance. They were also able to hypothesise (in English) about grammatical explanations of specific Hebrew features based on their existing knowledge of the grammar of Hebrew. Such examples provide evidence that students were genuinely and actively engaged in their lessons.

Insights into students' roles, available through analysis of classroom interaction, confirm students' active engagement in lessons and in learning Hebrew. Examples of this were especially obvious in regard to the inter-related features of handover and code switching. As discussed previously, the sequencing of tasks within lessons from closed to more open provided opportunities for handover. Although students' level of active participation in language lessons cannot be assessed simply on the basis of their vocal interaction, this does provides one indication of engagement. On this basis, the level of on-task vocal peer interaction was such that it pointed to high levels of active participation. As indicated earlier, the teacher continued to monitor students' progress in such tasks and to intervene as necessary. In addition, as students worked with their peers and negotiated meanings in Hebrew, their reliance on English (and code switching) increased. However, in combination with students' own comments, what emerges from analysis of features such as handover and code switching, is consistent evidence of active and engaged learning.

To sum up, from the discussion of the role of scaffolding and from the discussion of insights into students' learning it would appear the classroom learning environment in the case study program was one that not only provided affordances for learning, but one that ensured emergences of students' language proficiency. In Chapter 2, I referred to

the significance of Vygotsky's notion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) in regard to L2 language development. As indicated, this can be conceptualised as the space in which learners' potential developmental ability is guided and supported by interactions with the teacher, with more and less capable peers, and self-access resources. I suggest that the combined evidence from the thesis indicates that the learning environment ensured students were actively working, in interaction with both teacher and peers, towards the outer limits of their ZPD. In this, they were both challenged intellectually and supported in their learning (Hammond & Gibbons 2005). I further argue that the theoretical constructs available from socio-cultural and ecological perspectives, provide a level of insight into the nature of the learning environment, and of the ways in which students were challenged and supported in the case study program, that if of particular value. Such insights are relevant to other language programs and other educational contexts.

7.3.3 Contribution to debates about language teaching

As I have argued, the value of a close analysis of classroom-based interactions within this thesis lies in the insights it contributes to understanding of successful practices in teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew. In addition to insights into pedagogical practices and theoretical contribution, a close analysis enables more informed participation in broad debates within the field of L2 education and it enables implications for teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew to be addressed. Thus, the value of the kind of analysis undertaken in this thesis is that it also connects the teaching and learning of Modern Hebrew to the broader L2 field. In Chapter 2, a number of debates that are current in the field of language education were discussed. To illustrate this point, I now revisit three key debates in the light of findings from this thesis. These include using the language to teach the language (and the place of code switching); the place of grammar in language teaching; and attitudes to students' language: feedback/feedforward.

Using the language to teach the language (and the place of code switching)

Debates about use of the target language, and the value of including at least some use of the students' first language, have been long running. As indicated previously, in recent

years, these debates have focused not on whether or not L1 should be used in the L2 classroom, but rather on the function of L1 and the nature of code switching in the L2 classroom (G. Cook 2010; Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher 2009; Ferguson, 2009; Forman 2012; Kim & Elder 2005; Macaro 2005).

As the first level of analysis of RIS curricula and materials has shown, advocacy for using Hebrew to teach Hebrew has been a consistent and major feature of the RIS program, yet with some allowance for translation (Kobliner 1992) or code switching. As discussed above, the second and third levels of analysis have shown how the case study teacher implemented this principle and how he included students' L1 (English in this case) in order to support their learning. As the literature has shown, in itself code switching between L2 and L1 is not unusual, with most current researchers and teachers advocating at least some strategic use of students' first language in the classroom, as a useful way of supporting students' learning (G. Cook 2010; V. Cook 2001 2002a, 2002b; Turnbull & Arnett 2002; van Lier 1995). The case study thus confirms the previous consensus in the literature regarding the value of strategic use of students' L1.

The close analysis of classroom interactions, however, enables the case study to make a further contribution to debates about code switching. As indicated earlier, the majority of lessons within the case study program were conducted in Hebrew. This was a deliberate strategy on the part of the teacher, and as previous discussions have shown, he used specific strategies to ensure, despite their limited knowledge of Hebrew, that students were able to participate in the classroom interactions. However, the analysis also provides evidence, not just that code switching occurred in the case study classroom, but that both teacher and students used code switching in consistent and systematic ways to support learning. The previous section summarised details of the specific points and specific reasons for code switching within classroom interactions. It also provided some insight into students' positive responses to such code switching. I suggest that the level of detail of analysis, and the insights it provides into the value of strategic use of code switching, offers a useful contribution to general debates about the functions and uses of L1 and L2 in language teaching. The thesis thus not only endorses arguments for use of the target language to teach the target language and for strategic

code switching to support students' learning, it also provides evidence of when and how such code switching is strategic. Thus, the study's findings contribute to the turn in the L2/L1 debate (G. Cook; Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher 2009; Ferguson, 2009; Forman 2012; Kim & Elder 2005; Macaro 2005), which centres not on if, but how, use of L1 can support language teaching and learning. The findings also contribute to understandings of the value of students' code switching in the learning process – an aspect of the debate that to date has received relatively less attention.

The place of grammar in language teaching

As indicated in Chapter 2, debates about the place of grammar in language teaching are complex and tend to address a range of interrelated factors. These include the value or otherwise of grammar based curricula; and the extent to which grammar should or should not be explicitly taught within language programs (and associated debates regarding *use* of language as opposed to learning *about* language). Debates about grammar also overlap with debates about responses to students' ungrammatical use of language (addressed in the following sub-section).

Outcomes from the analysis of data in this thesis contribute to debates about grammar in a number of ways. First these outcomes provide evidence that grammar based curricula, although at times regarded as overly traditional and as not sufficiently addressing meaning of language (Carter & Nunan 2001; Harmer 2007a, 2007b; Hedge 2000; Richards & Rodgers 2001), can indeed be effective. Thus, the thesis outcomes indicate that whatever the overall approach, programs that are systematic and clearly structured provide students with a sense of direction and purpose and enable them to build sequentially and successfully in their learning. Furthermore, the outcomes indicate that some key features transcend any one specific approach or another. As indicated above, in addition to systematic and predictable structure, these features include the value of strongly supportive learning environments; effective use of handover; strategic code switching; and feedback and feedforward. The analysis in the thesis highlights not only the importance of these features, but the ways in which they are given life in classroom interactions. While the outcomes of the thesis do not suggest that approaches to language teaching are unimportant, they do contribute to debates about grammar-based

curricula by suggesting the need to look beyond simple labelling one approach or another.

The outcomes also contribute more specifically to debates about the value of explicit teaching of and about grammar. As analyses have shown, the case study program included consistent and at times explicit teaching about specific grammatical structures. New language structures were consistently introduced through tasks that modelled use of the structure in Hebrew and required the students to engage in use of Hebrew. However, the 'logic' of grammatical structures was also reinforced through explicit discussion of the structure. As analyses have shown, this frequently involved code switching on the part of both teacher and students. Short explanations of grammatical structures in English saved time and clarified potential confusion. As students' comments showed, they found such systematic teaching *about* language reinforced their ability to *use* language. It reinforced what Larsen-Freeman refers to as 'grammaring'. That is, students' comments indicated that systematic teaching about language reinforced their 'ability to use grammar structures accurately, meaningfully and appropriately' (Larsen-Freeman 2009, p. 526).

The thesis thus contributes to debates about the place of grammar in L2 language teaching by providing evidence of the value of explicit teaching of and *about* grammar, in conjunction with an overall emphasis on use of the target language.

Attitudes to students' language: feedback and feedforward

A further major debate in the field of L2 teaching and learning has addressed ways in which teachers perceive students' use of language, how they perceive students' 'incorrect' use of the target language. The range of the debate is reflected in the numerous terms that are used to refer to students' 'errors': for example, ungrammatical (Vygotsky1986); non-normative (Ortega 2009); nonnative-like (Lyster & Ranta 1997); nontargetlike (Lyster 2004); non-standard (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005). Ongoing debate exists regarding what form of feedback is beneficial to L2 learners, and when and how it should be provided (Dilans 2010; Long 1999, 2009; Lyster 2004; Ohta 2001). An aspect of this debate addresses the ways of getting learners to 'notice the gap' between their speech and the target language (see for example, Lightbown 1998; Williams & Evans 1998). As indicated in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2.2), such debates have implications

for the kind of feedback and feedforward provided to students.

Outcomes from analysis of classroom interactions in the case study program show, in line with views of students' 'errors' as evidence of active learning, that feedback was directed towards enabling students 'to move forward, to plot, plan, adjust, rethink, and thus exercise self–regulation in realistic and balanced ways' (Hattie & Yates 2010, p. 546). To this end, as indicated earlier, students were provided with immediate in-class feedback; personal feedback during open tasks; and whole cohort explanations that sometimes involved code switching as relevant. Such feedback addressed students' 'errors' by providing models of appropriate use, but in ways that supported their attempts to use and experiment with new language.

Significantly, students were also provided with feedforward to future use and learning. This occurred implicitly through feedback which included explanations of grammatical features that were causing difficulties, thereby preparing students for future learning by enabling them to develop understandings of Hebrew as a system.

It also occurred more explicitly through the process of *TIFTOUF,* whereby the teacher systematically sensitised students to specific Hebrew structures and vocabulary, through using these in his own speech prior to their formal teaching in lessons. The particular value of *TIFTOUF*, was that it sensitised students to the existence of such language before they were actually asked to use it. As is evident from the discussion in Chapter 2, while the issue of feedback has been extensively addressed in the literature (Lyster 2004; Lyster & Ranta 1997; Ohta 2001), feedforward has received more limited attention.

In regard to debates about attitudes to students' use of language (including errors), outcomes from the thesis confirm previous findings regarding the value of systematic and purposeful feedback that supports students' ability to use language and extends their knowledge about language as system. Moreover, they also extend previous finding by offering further insights into the value of feedforward, and into strategies whereby feedforward can contribute to affordances for learning that are available to students - thereby ensuring students are less likely to make errors, or use ungrammatical language, and are more likely to be able to use and communicate in the language successfully.

To sum up, in addressing the second research question of the thesis, I have argued that close analyses of classroom interactions of the kind undertaken in this thesis are of value in that they contribute to understandings of pedagogical practices, to theoretical understanding, and to current debates in the field of L2 teaching, learning and research. As indicated in Chapter 1, a broader purpose of the thesis has been to contribute to the theorising of a praxis-based field. I suggest that via insights into theory and practice of Modern Hebrew instruction, and contributions to current debates, the analyses undertaken in the thesis are directly relevant to the broader purpose of the thesis, and that the outcomes available from analyses do in fact contribute to the professionalising of the field of THAL, and more specifically to the RIS curricula, resources and pedagogy. I also suggest that the outcomes have implications that are relevant for other teachers in other programs, and I turn now to address these implications.

7.4 Implications of research

The third and final research question in the thesis addressed the implications from analysis of a case study of one Hebrew language program. To a large extent, this question has been addressed in the previous section. That discussion pointed to significant implications of the research for better understandings of effective teaching and learning practices; for more insightful theoretical understandings of pedagogical practices; and for connections with broader debates and research in the field of L2 teaching and learning. But in addition, I suggest there are implications that can be drawn from the research for teacher education and professional development, and for development of teaching resources.

Teacher education and professional development

A key theme running through the thesis has been the value of professionalising the discipline of THAL, and of the value of developing a stronger theoretical and research basis to inform practice. As argued previously, a contribution of the thesis is that it goes some way to making explicit the teaching and learning practices one successful Modern Hebrew program. If practices can be made explicit, they can also be drawn to the attention of other Modern Hebrew teachers in ways that can help inform those teachers' practices. Thus, an important implication from the research is that if effective teaching

and learning practices can be identified, they can also be taught. I suggest the insights into teaching practices that are available from this research can contribute to pre-service education or professional development programs for other Modern Hebrew teachers. Such insights can also assist teachers to reflect on, analyse, and modify as necessary their own teaching practices in ways that contribute overall to more effective teaching and learning of Hebrew. In addition, while the specific outcomes from the research are most obviously relevant for teachers of Modern Hebrew in tertiary contexts, I suggest they also have more general implications for pre-service education and professional development of language teachers working with other languages and in other educational contexts.

Resource development

A feature of the case study program in this research has been its relationship to the RIS curricula and resources. As indicated, these resources were developed primarily on the basis of writers' practical experiences in teaching Modern Hebrew. Outcomes from the research have implications for the RIS textbook writers and other writers of language teaching resources. The insights they provide into effective teaching and learning practices can contribute a theoretical dimension to the development of further teaching and learning resources that would complement current praxis based insights, and assist in strengthening the resources that are available to teachers.

In summary, the research has real implications for THAL. These include better understandings of effective practices; theoretical understandings of why such practices are effective; and contributions to broader debates within the field of L2 education. They also include specific implications for other teachers of Hebrew and other languages in other educational contexts; and for those involved in writing resource materials for language teachers.

7.5 Limitations and directions for further research

7.5.1 Limitations

While the research has offered a number of contributions and has a number of implications, it also has limitations. Its major limitation is its scope - the overall

contribution of one research project that has focused primarily on one case study program is necessarily limited. To some extent this has been offset by a research design that has attempted to balance lack of breadth of findings with depth of analysis of teaching and learning practices. However, the scope of the research remains a limitation.

There is a further limitation related to the research design. Although the research has to some extent addressed the perspective of the students, this perspective has been limited. Despite initial intentions for learners' perspectives to be more centre-stage in the research, challenges in finding methods of data collection that would adequately capture their perspective have meant that this aspect of the research received less attention than it deserved. The initial and mid-lesson interviews with students, at least to some extent, enabled their perspective to be juxtaposed with that of the teacher. However, the nature of classroom interactions, and the central role of teachers in such interactions, meant that it was difficult to fully represent the students' perspectives through recording and analysis of lessons. The challenges experienced in this research suggest that other research methods need to be employed if learners' perspectives are to be addressed in greater depth.

Finally, there is a limitation related to the theoretical contribution of the thesis. While the research takes one small step towards theorising the field of Modern Hebrew education, there is clearly much more work to be done here. Insights available from this research indicate that socio-cultural theories provide a productive framework within which to approach to analysis of data and interpretation of outcomes. Such a framework offers the potential for further research into teaching and learning practices within the discipline of Hebrew instruction, and also offers possibilities for stronger links between the THAL and theoretical developments within the broader L2 field.

7.5.2 Suggestions for future research

The limitations of the thesis suggest the need for further research in a number of different areas. First and foremost there needs to be more research into the teaching and learning of Hebrew. Such research could include:

- further research into the strengths and weaknesses of programs at different levels (beginner to advanced); in different educational contexts (school education, tertiary education); and with students of Modern Hebrew who are from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds.
- research into the comparative benefits of programs that are based on different kinds of approaches to THAL;
- innovative research that more specifically addresses the learner's perspectives in THAL, and in other languages.

More broadly there is a need for on-going theorisation of practice in the discipline of THAL. As indicated, outcomes from this research point to the benefits of further research that draws on socio-cultural theories. Such research could take further the implications of ecological theory for understanding classroom learning environments, it could take further notions of affordances and emergences, and of scaffolding, and it could address the implications for learners of working at the outer limits of the ZPD. This thesis has sought to begin a process towards such theorisation, but there is considerably more work to be done.

Finally, I bring this thesis to a close with Edwards and Westgate's concluding words:

> no (classroom) talk can be interpreted without reference to its context... no context can ever be completely 'penetrated', nor can the researcher expect full access to what those observed understand by and through their interaction... a stage is reached in any project when the researcher ... believes sufficient evidence has been assembled to 'warrant' conclusions being drawn... what the best classroom research has done it to deepen understanding of that complexity.
>
> Edwards & Westgate (1994, p. 171)

Appendices

Appendix 1: Transcription Key

Italic	*Hebrew discourse, translated into English*
CAPITALS	Hebrew
T	teacher
Name	specific student
?	unidentified student
f/m	gender indicated
s/pl	singular/plural indicated
Ss	unidentified some, or all, students, overlap speaking
Bolding	emphatic stress / increased volume
*	incorrect language
----	syllable pause/ stretched + emphasized intonation
[…]	short inter-turn pause
[..]	longer inter-turn pause
=	overlaps
?	question intonation
-----?	Teacher cueing response
?!	Teacher's rhetorical question
Ĥ, ħ	Guttural/pharyngeal Hebrew consonant ח
KH	Hebrew consonant כ

Appendix 2: Week 4 Lesson

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK, AZ, AZ MA NISHMA? MA NISHMA?*	*ok, so, so how's things? how's things?*	**10:21:06**
2 Tal	*TOV*	*Well*	
3 Several	*TOV= TOV= TOV TODA*	*well, = well, = well thanks*	
4 Eliza	*=VE-AT?**	*And you* {f.s}*?	
5 T	*=TOV TODA, TOV […] EH, EH BE- Easter […],BE-* Easter *, BE- Easter […], […],,ATEM LOMDIM? […] , ATA LOMED]? […] BE-* Easter [.] *ATA LOMED TONY?*	*well thanks, well* […]*Eh, eh in* Easter *[…],in* Easter *[…],in* Easter *[…],you learn {m.pl} […] you learn {m.s}? […] in* Easter, you learn, Tony?	10:21:12
6 Tony	*LO, ANI LO LOMED [……]IVRIT*		
7 Ethel	*=LO*	*= no*	10:21:24
8 T	*ATA LO LOMED IVRIT. […] BE'*-Easter, *ATA LOMED? ATA LOMED HISTORYA BE'*-Easter*?*	*you don't learn Hebrew.* […] *in* Easter, *you learn? you learn history in* Easter?	10:21:26
9 Tony	Eh, ah	Eh, ah	
10 Several	*LO=LO=LO*		
11 T	*LO----- […], LO, ANY -------- [……]*	*no ----- […], no, i ------ [……]*	
12 Tony	*ANI LO […]*	*i don't […]*	
13 T	*ANI […] LO---------*	*i […] don't ---*	
14 Tony	*ANI LO […] LOMED […] IVRIT*	*i don't* […] *learn* […] *hebrew*	
15 T	*ANI LO LOMED IVRIT BE'*-Easter, *BE'*-Easter *[…] VE' [.] EH [.] VE'-AT TAMI, [.] AT LOMEDET BE*-Easter*?*	*i don't learn hebrew in* Easter, *in* Easter, […] *and, eh, and tami you learn* {f.s} *in* Easter?	
16 Eliza	*=KTZAT*	*a bit*	Eliza answers, teacher might be confusing names
17 Tami	*=LO, ANI LO LOMEDET IVRIT BE- […]* Easter.	*no, I don't learn hebrew in* […] Easter.	
18 T	*ANI LO LOMEDET IVRIT BE-*Easter. *OK*	*i don't learn hebrew in* Easter. *ok.*	Recasting
19 F? TAM	*SLIHA*	*sorry*	
20 T		*and, eh, eh, mike and eliza, you, you* ***learn*** (m.pl) *[ATEM* ***LOMDIM]*** *Hebrew in* Easter?	
21 Mike		*we learn --- a bit*	10:22:08
22 Eliza		*a bit* […]	
23 T		*a bit* […] ***we [ANAĤNU],*** *mike,* ***we*** *learn [LOMDIM] hebrew in* Easter. […] *eliza and mike you learn hebrew in* Easter?	10:22:15
24 Mike		*we learn a bit*	
25 T		*we learn* (m.pl) *a bit, eliza, yes?*	

		you learn (f.s) *a bit?*	
26 Eliza &Tal		*=yes* *=yes*	
27 T	*AT LOMEDET KTZAT? […] GAM AT LOMEDED KTZAT?[.] KEN, TOV OK […] AZ ANAĤNU LOMDIM , [.]**ANAĤNOU,** ANAĤNU BA-KITA, BA-OUNIVERSITA, BA-OUNIVERSITA ANAĤNU LOMDIM , [.]ANAĤNU LOMDIM IVRIT, ANAĤNU LOMDIM IVRIT […] BA-KITA. OK, AZ [.] AZ [.] HE LOMEDET, HE LOMEDET, HE LOMEDET VE-HU ?-------- HE LOMEDET [. ELIZA, HE LOMEDET, VE-HU?-----------*	*you also learn a bit? yes? well, ok.* […] *so, so we learn,*[…] ***we*** *learn, we, we in class, in uni, in uni we learn […] we […] learn hebrew, we learn Hebrew, […] in class. ok, so, so, eh, she learns, she learns, she learns.* […] *and **he**?---* […] *she learns* […] *eliza,* [.] *she learns* [.] *and he?---* […]	10:22:54
28 Tal		*learns*	10:23:00
29 Ethel		*=learns*	10:23:03
30 Tony		*==learns*	10:23:07
31 T		*he learns and **we**? --- learn,* **we** *learn, ok, i'm a teacher you are students, **we**?---* […] *learn. what do we learn? ----*	10:23:08
Mike		*= We learn*	
T		[…] *what do we learn? ----*	
Mike		*= We learn*	
32 Tal		*=hebrew*	10:23:28
33 T		*we ---*	
34 Tal		*we learn hebrew.*	
35 T		*we learn hebrew. we learn hebrew*	
36 Ethel		*=hebrew*	10:23:32
37 T		*everybody: we ---*	10:23:34
38 Mike		*we […] learn hebrew.*	
39 All		*= we learn hebrew*	
40 T		*we learn hebrew, ok, we learn hebrew* […] *well, ok,*	
41 Tami		What does it mean	Directed to these sitting next to her not to T
Tal		We learn Hebrew	
42 T		Ok, I need your Ĥ […] before I forget, ok […] everything you have	10:23:50 collects HW which takes several minutes some classroom chatter in English about the homework

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T 10:27:30	So, page forty-seven *MI, MI ELE' PO? PO, MIELE'--------? ELE--', MI ELE'-------? MI ELE'----? MI ELE'------? ELE' ---?, ELE' ---?, ELE' STOUDENTIM--------?*	So page fourty seven, *who, who are these here? Here, who are these----?these-- , who are these---? who are these----? who are these-------? These ---? , these---? these are students--- ?*	Concurrently points to the illustration of the backpackers
2 Several	*LO, =LO, = LO*	*no,= no, = no*	
3 T	*ELE' MORIM-----?*	*these are teachers--------?*	Reinforces model
4 Several	*LO, =LO, = LO*	*no,= no, = no*	
5 T	*LO, MI ELE---'?*	*no, who are these---------?*	Reinforces model
6 Tami	Backpacker	Backpacker	
7 T	*OK [...]* so backpackers […] yes, *EEH, EEH LE'AN---?LE'AN------? LE'AN?----LE'AN---------? LA-OUNIVERSITA---------? LO. LA-OPERA----? LO.*	*ok [...],* so backpackers *[...]* yes, *ee, ee, where to---------? where to---? where to---? where to-----? to the university---? no. to the opera----? no*	Concurrently gesticulating 'no' using his LH fore finger
8 Several	*=LO*	*=no*	
9 Tami	==where are they?	==where are they?	Private speech??
10 T	*LE'AN---?* backpackers *LE'AN----------? LA-OUNIVERSITA ---?LO.*	*where to-----?* backpackers *where to----------? to the university---? no*	
11 Several	*=LO*	*=no*	
12 T	*LA-OPERA----? LO*	*to the opera----? no*	
13 Several	*=LO*	*=no*	
14 T	*LE'-CONTZERT------?*	*to a concert------?*	
15 Several	*=LO*	*=no*	
16 T	*LE'AN -- ? LE'AN -- ? LE'AN -- ? LE'--? LE'--? LE'--?*	*where to --?, where to --?, where to -?-, to--*	
17 Tami	*LE'*	*to*	In the background students can be heard attempting to read out loud this new word
18 Tal	*LY**	*to**	
19 T	*LE'--?*	*to*	
20 Sara h	*KENYA*	*kenya*	very quietly
21Tal	*=KENYA*	*=kenya*	loudly
22 T	*LE'--- KENYA,*	*to --- kenya*	models pattern
23 Several	*=KENYA, = KENYA*	*=kenya, =kenya*	
24 T	***KENYA**, KENYA, KENYA, EIFO KENYA? KENYA BE'-EROPA?*	*kenya, kenya, kenya, kenya, where is kenya? kenya is in europe?*	models pattern again
25 Several	*[...] LO, = LO,= LO*	*[...] no, = no, = no*	
26 T	*LO. KENYA BE'-OSTRALIYA? LO. KENYA BE' ---*	*no. kenya is in australia? no, kenya is in ---*	
27 Several	*AFRICA*	*africa*	
28 T	*BE'-AFRIKA. LE'AN?LE'-KENYA, LE'-AFRIKA. LE'AN? [.]*	*in Africa. where to? to kenya, to Africa.*	models response Audio=7:32

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
T	*OK […………] MI ELE'------? […………] MI ELE'------?YELADIM*		10:28:
Tal	*LO*		
T	*LO, MI ELE'------? ELE'-----?*		
Several	*ISH VE-ISHA*		
T	*ELE' ISH VE-ISHA. TOV. LE'AN------- ?LE'KENYA-? LO […] LO LE'KENYA, LO LE'KENYA,LE'--?LE'AN---------?*		
Several	*CON; CONTZ;*		In the background students attempting to read *CONTZERT*
T	*LE'---CONTZERT […] LE'-CONTZERT[…] LE-CONTZERT ROK-----?*		
Tal	*LO*		
T	*LE-CONTZERT ROK-----?*		
Several	*LO= LO= LO*		
T 10:29:	*LO […] EIZE' CONTZERT--------? LE-CONTZERT*		Audio 8:10
Tami	classical	classical	Private speech?
T	*KLASI […]MOUZIKA KLASIT […] OK, LE-CONTZERT KLASI […], LE-CONTZERT KLASI OK.[…] MI ELE'--? ELE' STOUDENTIM--? MI ELE'--?*		FIRST TIFTOUF
Mike	*ELE' YELDIM**		
Tal	*=YELADIM*		
T	*LO ELE' […] KEN MIKE*		
Mike	*ELE' YELDIM**		Questioning intonation
T	*YE-**LA**DIM [[. ELE' YE-LA-DIM. YELADIM LE-CONTZERT?*		
Several	*L0*		
T	*LE'AN HA-YELADIM ?--- LE'AN------------? LE'AN----? LE'AN----? […]*		
Tony	[undecipherable]	[undecipherable]	
T	*KEN, TONY[.] LE'AN?[…] LE'-----?*		
Eliza	Dysneyland	Dysneyland	
T	*KEN LE'*- Dysneyland		laughs
Eliza	He told me	He told me	Refering to Mike
T	*TODA ELIZA, LE'*- Dysneyland. […] *YELADIM LE'*-Dysneyland, LE- Dysneyland. *EIFO* Dysneyland? […] *BE'-OSTRALIA?*		
Severl	*LO=LO=LO*		
T	*EIFO* Dysneyland?		
Eliza	*BI*-AMERICA*		
	BE-AMERICA		
T	*BE'-AMERICA, [.]*Dysneyland *BE'-AMERICA*		

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 Tal 10:29:0	So, is the *LE'* like current, and means from?	So, is the *to* like current, and means from?	students' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature
2 T	*LO […] LE'AN----? LE'AN----? LE'-KENYA […] LE'AN? EE, EE, ELIZA? […]LA-KAFITERYA: 'SLIKHA ANI ROTZA KAFE', ANI ROTZA KAFE', LE'AN? LA-KAFITERIYA. LE'AN , LE'AN* backpackers*? LE'-KENYA. LE'AN ISH VE'-ISHA, LE-CONTZERT? LE'AN YELADIM?*	*no […] where to?[…] to kenya[…]where to? ee ee Eliza? […] to the cafeteria: 'excuse me i want coffee, i want coffee, where to? to the cafeteria. where to* backpackers*? to kenya. where to man and woman? to concert? where to kids?*	Concurrently writes *L'EAN?-> LE'…* on the board (visual support)
3 Tal	They're going to	They're going to	students' L1 response to L2 question
4 Tami	= They're going to	= They're going to	
4 T	*LE'---, LE' KEN, LE'---, LE'--- DYSNEYLAND , LE-] DYSNEYLAND […] MI ELE'-----? MI ELE'-----?*	*to --- to --- yes, to --- to --- […] to Disneyland, to Disneyland*	
5 Tony	[undecipherable]	[undecipherable]	
6 T	*PROFESORIM […] OK, ISH VE'-ISH, ISH VE'-ISH, KEN AN**A**SHIM, AN**A**SHIM, PROFESORIM, OK […] LE'AN-------? LE'AN-------?*		
7 Tal	*LE' [……] TOKYO*		
8 T	*LE'-TOKYO.[.] EIFO TOKYO?*		
9 Tal	*YAPAN*		
10 T	*BE'-----?*		
11 Tal	*YAPAN?*		Question intonation
12 T	*BE'-YAPAN. [.] AZ LE'AN----? LE'[…] TOKYO. LEAN? LE'TOKYO […]OK [………]*		
13 Mike	When we said *ME'AYIN* its 'from where'?	When we said *from where* is that 'from where'?	students' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature
14 T	'where from?, *ME'AYIN ATA? ME'AYIN ATA? ATA MI-SYDNEY*	where from?, *where from are you ? where from are you ? you're from Sydney*	teacher responds by recasting L1 response into L2
15 Mike	and why is it *LE'AN*?	and why is it *where to*?	students' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature
16 T	*LE'AN? LE'AN?*	*Where to? Where to?*	
17 Mike	To where?	To where?	
18 T	*HM […] LE'AN? LA-KAFITERIYA. LE'AN---? LE'[.] LA-CONTZERT. […] LE'AN? […] LE-KENYA. […]ME'AYIN ATA? ANI **MI-**SYDNEY […] LE'AN--------- ? BYE, [.] BYE [.]*	*hm. […] where to? cafeteria . where to? […] to a [.] the concert […] where to? […] to Kenya […] where from are you? Im **from** Sydney […] where to----- Bye [.] , bye [.]*	teacher recasts students' L1 into L2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
Tal	*LE-HITRAOT*	*See you later*	Laughter in class
T	*LO, LO […] LE'AN? LE'AN? EHHH, SLIĤA LA-KAFITERIA, ANI RITZE' KAFE'. […] OK? […]ANI RITZE' KAFE' […] OK? TOV, MIKE?*	*No, no […] where to? where to? ehh excuse me to the cafeteria? I want coffee […] ok? […] I want coffee […] ok, well, mike?*	Confirming Mike's understanding
Mike	*TOV*	*well*	
T	*EHH, OK, OK,* page 48, [.] please *BE-VAKASHA […………………] EHHH, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, MI ELE'---? ELE'------*	*Ehhh, ok, ok* page 48, [.] please *please […………………]*	Some chatter *BE-VAKASHA; TOV-TOV* are captured
Mike	*ISH*		
T	*ISH VE'---------- ISHA*		
Several	*ISH VE'-ISHA*		
T	*LE' ------ CONTZERT?*		
Several	*LO*		
T	*LE'AN?*		
Tony	*LE'- SIN*		
T	*LE'-SIN*		
Several	*LE'-SIN*		
T	*LE'-SIN, KEN, LE'-SIN […] OK, […] MI ELE'---? MI ELE'---?*		
Several	*FAMILIA**	*Familia**	Educated guess
T	*OK, FAMILIA*, OK MISHPAĤA*		
Several	*MISHPAĤA= MISHPAĤA=V*		Private speech? Mirroring ?
T	*YELED--*		
Several	*YALDA*		Joining in
T	*KEN----*		
Mike	*ISH*		
Tal	*=IMA VE'-ABA*	=	
	IS[…]IM---A [.] VE'[…] -ABA		
Several	*IMA, ABA*		
	IMA [.] ABA[.] YELED [.] VE-YALDA […] OK, LE'AN----?, LE'AN----?, LE'AN----?,[…] LE'-------?		In the background students attempting to read *SERET*
Eliza	What's *SARAT**	What's *mavie**	
T	*LE'--------------- SERET*		
Several	*SERET=SERET=SERET*		
T	*LE'--------------- SERET*		
Several	*SERET=SERET=SERET*		
T 10:33:	*LE'---------------, SERET, SE-RE-T* […], *SERET* […], *SERET* […] *EHH*, Four Weddings and a Funeral; *SERET* […] Pricilla Queen of the Desert; *SERET* […],*SERET* […] *EH, EH ISHA YAFA* Pretty Woman […]; *SERET* […], *SERET* […], *MA ZE' SERET?*	*To a mo-vi-e [……] movie* […], *movie* […], *movie* […] *ehh*, Four Weddings and a Funeral; *movie* […] *eh, eh* Pricilla Queen of the Desert; *movie* […], *movie* […] *pretty woman* Pretty Woman […]; *movie* […], *movie* […],*what is movie*	In the background several are repeating *SERET* Audi 12:10 TIFTOUF

Sarah	Film?	Film?	Uncertain intonation
Tal	Movie	Movie	
Eliza	I love that movie	I love that movie	Private speech
Ethel	*OHH SERET, SERET*	*Ohh movie, movie*	Private speech? Mirroring ?
T	*SERET, SERET*	*movie, movie*	Writes on board
Ethel	*OHH SERET, SERET […]* got it	*movie, movie[…]* got it	Private speech? Mirroring ?
Tal	So is that like the movies, like going to the movies and like not watching a movie?	So is that like the movies, like going to the movies and like not watching a movie?	students' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature
T	*SERET,* it's a movie […]	*movie,* it's a movie […]	
Tami	so is it like any movie […]	so is it like any movie […]	
T 10:34	*LE'-SERET* to the movie […] *LE'-SERET […] LE'-SERET [……………]LE'-SERET OK SERET, EHH MI ELE------?*	*to a movie* to the movie […] *to a movie* […]*to a movie* […]	Audi 13:00 combined use of L1 and L2
Tal	*ISH VE-ISH*		
	ISH VE-ISH, LE'AN--------? LE'AN ISH VE'-ISHA? LE'AN------------? LE'AN------------?LE'---------------?		In the background students attempting to read *MISA'ADA*
Tony	*MISADA*	*restaurant*	Very quetly
	LE'-------------?	*To-------------?*	
Eliza	*MASADA?*		
	Not MASADA MIS------------- MIS—A'A---DA, MIS-A'A-DA		
Several	*MISA'ADA= MISA'ADA=*	*restaurant =restaurant*	
T	*MISA'ADA […]MISA'ADA […]MISA'ADA [.]* restaurant	*Restaurant […]restaurant […]restaurant[.]*restaurant	
Eliza	Oh we did that [………] I remember	Oh we did that [………] I remember	
T	*LA-MISA'ADA*, no I don't think we had it	*to the restaurant* , no I don't think we had it	
Mike 10:35	Yes we had it	Yes we had it	Audi 14:00
T	*MISA'ADA* Maybe we had it	*Restaurant,* Maybe we had it	
Mike	we had it	we had it	
T	*OK, LA- […] LA-MISA'ADA, LA-MISA'AD. OK MI ELE?*		
Several	*ISH VE'-ISHA*		
T	*ISH VE'-ISHA, ISH VE'-ISHA, ISH VE'-ISHA EHH LE'AN ISH VE'-ISHA?*		
Tony	*SI*		
T	*LE'-------------, LE'-------------, LE'------------- SINAI, MA ZE' SINAI?*		In the background students attempting to read *SINAI*
Tal	Deser, the desert		
T	*SINAI,* desert, *SINAI, EIFO SINAI?*		
Tami	Mount Sinai	Mount Sinai	
T 10:35:33	*SINAI BE'-YISRAEL?*		Audi 14:33
Several	*LO =LO*		

Tami	*BE'-MITZRAYIM*		
T	*=LO SINAI LO BE'-YISRAEL*		
Mike	*= AL YAD YISRAEL*		
T	*= AL YAD YISRAEL [.] SINAI, [.] SINAI, [………] AL YAD ĤEIFA?*		
Mike	*LO*		
T	*SINAI AL YAD ĤEIFA?*		
Mike	*LO = LO*		
T	*SINAI AL YAD---------?*		
Mike	*=AL YAD*		Echoing teacher
T	*AL YAD*		
Mike	*NEGEV?*		Uncertain intonation
T	*AL YAD HA-NEGEV [……] AL YAD------?*		'so-so' intonation
Mike	*MITZRAYIM*		
Tony	*=MITZRAYIM*		
T	*LO AL YAD MITZRAYIM, [.] SINAY* ***BE'****-MITZRAYIM*		
Mike	*BE'-MITZRAYIM*		
T	*AVAL SINAI AL YAD----------- ?SINAI BE'*-egypt, *BE'-MITZRAYIM, AVAL SINAI AL YAD------------?*		
Mike	*ASHKELON […] YAFA**		
Tal	*EILAT*		
T 10:36:40	*EILAT, KEN […] EILAT […] OK SINAI AL YAD EILAT […]SINAI AL YAD EILAT [……] EILAT AL YAD MITZRAYIM [……] SINA* ***BE'****-MITZRAYIM [.] SINAI BE'-MITZRAYIM, LO BE'-YISRAEL, […] OK, SINAI SHE MITZRAYIM [.] LO SHEL YISRAEL [.] OK? […] TOV. [.] LE'-SINAI. [.] LE'AN? LE'-SINAI. OK […] OK.*		

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
19 Tal	*LE-HITRAOT*	*See you later*	Laughter in class
20 T	*LO, LO […] LE'AN? LE'AN? EHHH, SLIĤA LA-KAFITERIA, ANI RITZE' KAFE'. […] OK? […]ANI RITZE' KAFE' […] OK? TOV, MIKE?*	*No, no […] where to? where to? ehh excuse me to the cafeteria? I want coffee […] ok? […] I want coffee […] ok, well, mike?*	Confirming Mike's understanding
21 Mike	*TOV*	*well*	
22 T	*EHH, OK, OK,* page 48, [.] please *BE-VAKASHA […………………] EHHH, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, LE'AN---?, MI ELE'---? ELE'------*	*Ehhh, ok, ok* page 48, [.] please *please […………………]*	Some chatter *BE-VAKASHA; TOV-TOV* are captured
23 Mike	*ISH*	*man*	
24 T	*ISH VE'---------- ISHA*	*Man and ------ woman*	
25 Several	*ISH VE'-ISHA*	*Man and woman*	
26 T	*LE' ------ CONTZERT?*	*To---------------- concert?*	
27 Several	*LO*	*no*	
28 T	*LE'AN?*	*Where to?*	
29 Tony	*LE'- SIN*	*To china*	
30 T	*LE'-SIN*	*To china*	
31 Several	*LE'-SIN*	*To china*	
32 T	*LE'-SIN, KEN, LE'-SIN […] OK, […] MI ELE'---? MI ELE'---?*	*To china, yes, to china, […] who […] are these---?*	
33 Several	*FAMILIA**	*Familia**	Educated guess
34 T	*OK, FAMILIA*, OK MISHPAĤA*	*Ok familia*, ok family*	
35 Several	*MISHPAĤA= MISHPAĤA=*	*Family = family*	Private speech? Mirroring ?
36 T	*YELED--*	*Boy-------*	
37 Several	*YALDA*	*girl*	Joining in
38 T	*KEN----*	*Yes---*	
39 Mike	*ISH*	*man*	
40 Tal	*=IMA VE'-ABA*	*=mum and dad*	
	IS[…]IM---A [.] VE'[…] -ABA	*Ma[…] m-u-m [.] and dad*	
41 Several	*IMA, ABA*	*Mum, dad*	
	IMA [.] ABA[.] YELED [.] VE-YALDA […] OK, LE'AN----?, LE'AN----?, LE'AN----?,[…] LE'-------?	*Mum [.] dad [.] boy [.] and girl […] ok, where to---?, where to---?, where to---?to-----------*	Students attempting to articulate
42 Eliza	What's *SARAT**	What's *mavie**	
43 T	*LE'--------------- SERET*	*To--------------- movie*	
44 Several	*SERET=SERET=SERET*	*Movie=movie=movie*	
45 T	*LE'--------------- SERET*	*To--------------- movie*	recasting
46 Several	*SERET=SERET=SERET*	*Movie=movie=movie*	
47 T 12:10	*LE'--------------- SERET, SERET*[…], *SERET* […], *SERET* […] *EHH*, Four Weddings and a Funeral; *SERET* […] Pricilla Queen of the Desert; *SERET* […],*SERET* […] *EH, EH ISHA YAFFA* Pretty Woman […]; *SERET* […], *SERET* […], *MA ZE' SERET?*	*To a movie [……] movie* […], *movie* […], *movie* […] *ehh*, Four Weddings and a Funeral; *movie* […] *eh, eh* Pricilla Queen of the Desert; *movie* […], *movie* […] *pretty woman* Pretty Woman […]; *movie* […], *movie* […],*what is movie*	
48 F?	Movie	Movie	
49 Eliza	I love that movie	I love that movie	Private speech

50 Ethel	*OHH SERET, SERET*	*movie, movie*	Private speech? Mirroring ?
51 T	*SERET, SERET*		Writes on board
52 Ethel	*OHH SERET, SERET […]* got it	*movie, movie[…]* got it	Private speech? Mirroring ?
53 Tal	So is that like the movies, like going to the movies and like not watching a movie?	So is that like the movies, like going to the movies and like not watching a movie?	students' use of L1 to clarify grammatical feature
54 T	*SERET,* it's a movie […]	*movie,* it's a movie […]	
55 Tal	so is it like […]	so is it like […]	
56 T	*LE'-SERET* to the movie […] *LE'-SERET […] LE'-SERET […]*	*to a movie* to the movie […] *to a movie* […] *o a movie* […]	combined use of L1 and L2

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK, OK, AZ […] SARAH, LE'AN AT? LE'AN AT? LE'AN ---------? LE'AN--------? LE'AN AT? […] LE'AN? LE'-SINAI? LA-OPERA? LE'AN?*	*ok, ok, so sarah, where to are you? where to are you? where to? where to? where to are you?[…] to sinai? To the opera? where to?*	T poses question, addressing Sarah
2 Sarah	*LA-OUNIVERSITA*	*to the university*	S responds correctly
3 T	*LA-OUNIVERSITA; […] OK, ANI LA-OUNIVERSITA. […] VE'-LE'AN AT?*	*to the university; I'm to the university*	T recasts; and addresses Tal
4 Tal	*ANI LE' [………..]* is it *LE'* or *LA?, [.]* or is it…	*Im to [………..]* is it *to* or *to the?[.]* or is it…	S requests clarification if the preposition is imbeds the definite article or not
5 T	*LE'*	*to*	T models indefinite form of the preposition
6 Mike	*= LE'*	*= to*	S models, slightly slower than T; uncertain intonation
7 Tal	*ANI LE'[………] SHAM*	*Im to […] there*	
8 T	*LE'-SHAM […] TOV, ANI LE'-SHAM […] LE'-SHAM. […] OK, LEA'N AT ETHEL?*	*to there[…] well, Im to […] there […] to […] there […]ok, where to you ethel?*	T recasts whilst further models preposition; addresses Ethel
9 Ethel	Ehhh […………………] where can I go? […] Em, em, how do you say library? […] I forgot library	Ehhh […………………] where can I go? […] Em, em, how do you say library? […] I forgot library	student's use of L1 to help her plan her L2 response
10 T	*SIFRIYA, ANI LA-SIFRIYA*	*library, im to the library*	T models
11 Ethel	[…] *ANI LA-SIFRIYA*	[…] *im to the library*	S repeats/mirrors
12 T	*ANI LA-SIFRIYA OHH AT STOUDENTIT TO-VA, STOUDENTIT TOVA, LA=SIFRIYA, STOUDENTIT TOVA. VE-MIKE , LE'AN ATA?*	*im to the library, ohh you're a good stu-dent* {f.s} *, good student , to the library, good student. And mike where to[………..] are you?*	T recasts and compliments S; addresses Mike
13 Mike	*ANI LE-[…] AUCKLAND*	*im to* […] Auckland	S responds correctly

14 T	*OK, ANI LE' […]* Auckland. *OK, VE'-ELIZA, LE'AN AT?*	*Ok, im to […]*Auckland. *ok, and eliza where to are you?*	T recasts; addresses Eliza
15 Eliza	*UMM […] ANI LE'[…] YAM*	*im to beach*	S responds, using the indefinite form of the preposition incorrectly
16 T	*ANI LE'-YAM , LE'-YAM LA-YAM FANTASTI. VE'LE'AN AT?*	*Im to beach, to beach, to the beach, fantastic. And where to are you?*	T recasts S' incorrect preposition form; followed by required definite form using enthusiastic intonation; addresses Hanna
17 Hanna	*ANI L' [……………]* Stratified	*im to* Stratified	S responds correctly
18 T	*OK, […] AT GARA BE'- […]* Stratified*? AT GARA BE'-* Stratified*?*		
19 Hanna	*LE' […] LO* meeting a friend		
20 Mike	*ANI ---*		
21 Hanna	*ANI […]*		
21 T	*OK, ANI LO----------------?*		
22 Hanna	*MI-* Strat		
23 T	*= ANI LO GA […] MI -* Stratified *,ANI LO GARA […] ANI LO GARA BE'-* Stratified, *ANI LO GARA SHAM […] OK, GARA [………] ANI GAR BE'-TEL-AVIV [.] OL, TAMI LE'AN AT?*		
24 Tami	*UMM ANI LE-*Melbourne	*Umm I'm to* Melbourne	
25 T 10:39:10	*LE-*Melbourne *[…] OK VE'-TONY-----? LE'AN------? LE'AN ATA?*		Audio 18:10
26 Tony	ehh […] *ANI LE'[………] SERET*	ehh […]	
27 T	*LE-SERET […] LE-SERET ; EIZE' SERET* ? […] *FANTASIA?* […] *DECOMENTARI?* […] *SERET?* […], *SERET?* […], *EIZE' SERET? EHH, HARRY POTTER? JAMES BOND? SUPERMAN?[…] EIZE' SERET? [……] SERET* ***BRITI? SERET SINI?,*** […] *AKIRA KARASAYA]?* […], *SERET* […],*EIZE' SERET? […]*	*to a movie,* […] *to a movie; which movie?* […] *fantasy?* […] *documentary?* […] *movie?* […], *movie?* […], *which movie? ehh, harry potter? james bond? superman?* […], *which movie?* [……] *british movie, chinese movie?* […] *akira karasaya?* […], *movie* […], *which movie?*[…]	T. pushes student to expand his response – in doing so, he introduces new vocabulary items that will be picked up in subsequent lessons.
28 Tony	*SERET, SERET*	*movie, movie*	
29 T	*[…] EIZE' SERET? […] EIZE' SERET? […] SERET YAPANI, SERET* ***YISRA'ELI;*** *SERET* ***SINI*** *? SERET* ***BRITI?*** *[…] EIZE' SERET? […] EIZE' SERET?*	*[…] which movie? […] which movie? […] japanese […] movie? israeli movie? chinese movie? […], british movie? […] which movie?*	T continues to push student (increases prospectiveness)

30 Tony	*SERET*	*movie* (rest undecipherable)	
31 T	*SERET AMERICANI […] HOLIWOODI?*	*american movie* […] *holliwodean?*	
32 Tony	*yeah*	*yeah* (rest undecipherable)	
34 T 10:40:10	*OK, LUCY LE'AN? LE'AN AT? [……] LE'--- AN AT? […] LE'AN AT?[…] EHH TAMI LE'- EHHH*		Audio 19:10
35 Tami & Mike	*= LE' /LA* Melbourne		
36 T	Melbourne *[.] TONY LE'-SERET. LE'AN AT?*		
37 Lucy	*LE'AN AT*		
38 T	*ANI-------------, ANI------------*		
39 Lucy	*ANI LE'-PARIS*		
40 T	*ANI LE'-PARIS, ANI LE'-PARIS [.] TOV, TOV OK […]*		

Move & Speaker	**Classroom Transcript**	**English Translation**	**Comments** 10:39:30
4 T 10:40:30	*VE'* […] please ask me	*and* […] please ask me	Audio 19:30
5 Mike	*VE-LE'AN ATA?*	*and you where to?*	
6	*VE'-ATA, LE'AN? O, LE'AN ATA? […] VE'-ATA, LE'AN? O, LE'AN ATA? […] ANI LE'-TASMANIYA […] ANI LE'-TASMANIYA BE'-* Easter	*and you, where to? or, where to you?*[…], *and you, where to? or, where to you?*[…] *i'm to tasmania* […] *i'm to tasmania in* Easter	
7 Mike	*TOV*	*Good*	
8 T	*TASMANIYA […]TOV ME'OD, TASMANIYA YAFA; ANI LE'-TASMANIYA BE'*-Easter	*tasmenia […] very good, tasmenia is beautiful*, *i'm to tasmania in* Easter	
9 Tal	what's *TOV ME'OD?*	what's '*very good'?*	
10 T	*TOV* good, *ME'OD* very, […] very good *OK* […], *OK* […], *EMM* […] *TOV* [……] now please ask each other '*LE'AN ATA? LEAN AT? […] SHALOM*	*good* good, *very* very, […] very good *ok* […], *ok* […], *emm* […] *well* [……] now please ask each other '*where to you* {m.s}?, '*where to you* {f.s}*?*[…] *hello—*	Audio 20:11

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments 10:40:21
1Ethel	*SHALOM*	*Hello*	Ethel in role of inquirer
2 Mike	*SHALOM*	*Hello*	
3 Ethel	*LEAN AT*? […...] LEAN ATA? LEAN ATA?*	*where to you** {f.s} *[…] where to you* {m.s}? *where to you* {m.s}*?*	
4 Mike	*ANI LE-MELBOURNE. SHALOM*	*I'm to Melbourne. Hello*	Changing roles, now Mike is the inquirer
5 Ethel	*LE-MELBOURNE*	*to Melbourne*	Answers before being questioned
6 Mike	*LEAN AT?*	*where to you* {f.s}?	
7 Ethel	*ANI […] EM, EM, ANI LE'-ANGLIYA*	*im […] em, em, im to England*	
8 Mike	*LE'-ANGLIYA, TOV*	*to England , well*	
9 Ethel	*TOV*	*well*	laughs
10 Mike	*VE' […] LE'AN […] HE?[…] LE'AN HE?*	*and […] where to […] she? […] where to she? […-]*	Mike now asks about another female student
11 Ethel	Oh […]	Oh […]	Ethel does not understand
12 Mike	*LE'AN HE?*	*where to she?*	Mike speaks slowly
13 Ethel	*ANI*	*im*	
14 Mike	*HE*	*she*	Mike 'surrogate teacher'
15 Ethel	*ANI*	*im*	
16 Mike	*HE*	*she*	Repeats, rather than explains
17 Ethel	*ANI*	*im*	
18 Mike	*HE, HE*	*She, she*	Repeats, rather than explains
19 Ethel	*ANI,* Oh yeah*, HE LE'-*	*im,* Oh yeah*, she's to*	Ethel understands

Move & Speaker	Classroom Transcript	English Translation	Comments
1 T	*OK TOV, OK TOV* Please have a look at page 49 […] *OK, […]* ***SLIHA***	*Ok, well, ok well,* Please have a look at page 49 […] *ok, [……]* ***sorry***	T. reads from word-bank on p. 49, starting with *SLIHA* (sorry); use of L1 for task instruction
2 All	*SLIHA= SLIHA=*sorry = *SLIHA= SLIHA= SLIHA=*	*sorry = sorry =* sorry = *sorry = sorry = sorry =*	Ss begin reading from list of words.
3 T	*SLIHA VE'----*	*Sorry and ---*	repetition and practice
4 Tal	*TODA*	*thanks*	
5 T	*TODA, TODA. VE'---, VE'---, VE'---,*	*Thanks, thanks, and---, and----, and---*	2nd word *TODA* (thanks)
6 F?	*NAIM MEOD*	*very nice to meet you*	3rd expression *NAIM MEOD* (very nice to meet you
7 T	*KEN* everybody *KULAM*	*Yes,* everybody *everybody*	T. directs all students to participate (use of L1 here)
8 All	*NAIM MEOD = NAIM MEOD*	*very nice to meet you= Very nice to meet you*	repetition and practice
9 T	*=NAIM MEOD, NAIM MEOD, NAIM MEOD*	*=very nice to meet you=very nice to meet you, very nice to meet you*	repetition
10 All	*=NAIM MEOD= NAIM MEOD*	*=very nice to meet you= very nice to meet you=*	practice
11 T	*ELIZA, KULAM, NAIM MEOD ELIZA*	*Eliza, everybody, very nice to meet you eliza*	
12 Several	*NAIM MEOD ELIZA= NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you eliza=very nice to meet you*	Much laughter
13 T	*ELIZA, TODA, NAIM---*	*Eliza, thanks very nice---*	Modelling Eliza's response
14 Several	*NAIM MEOD = NAIM MEOD =NAIM MEOD*	*very nice to meet you= very nice to meet you= very nice to meet you*	
15 T	*=NAIM MEOD*	*= very nice to meet you*	
16 Several	*=NAIM MEOD*	*= very nice to meet you*	
17 T	*NAIM MEOD, EEH---*	*very nice to meet you, ehh*	
18 T + Several simult-aneously	*RAK-REGA*	*just-a-moment*	4th expression *RAK REGA* (just a moment); T. and Ss reading together (without his prompt
19 T	*BE'-YISRAEL KAKHA*	*In Israel like so*	Gestures 'wait a moment' which in Italy is a rude gesture
20 All	*RAK-REGA*	*Just-a-moment*	
23 T	*BE'-ITALYA, LO. BE'-YISRAEL RAK-REGA*	*In Italy, no. in Israel, just-a-moment […]*	Much laughter
22 Several	*RAK-REGA*	*Just-a-moment*	practice
	RAK-REGA […] VE'-------	*just-a-moment […] and----------*	

23 Several	*MA NISHMA =MA NISHMA*	*how's things= how's things*	5th expression *MA NISHMA?*(how's things?); with (inappropriate) answering intonation
24 T	*MA NISHMA? MA NISHMA?*	*how's things? how's things?*	now with questioning intonation
24 Tal	how are you	how are you	Tal translates, private speech???
25 Mike	*=TOV*	*=well*	Slightly quicker than others
26 Several	*=TOV*	*=well*	
27 T	*=TOV*	*=well*	
28 Mike	*TOVIM**	*Well {m.pl}**	m.pl form of the word, which here functions as an adverb (which only has one form) rather than adjective
29 T	*LO TOVIM, TOV*	*Not well {m.pl}*, well*	T. models use of word
30 Several	*=TOV=TOV=TOV*	*Well=well=well*	
31 T	*TOV, IMPERSONALLY, TOV*	*Well, impersonal, well*	T uses L1
32 Several	*=TOV=TOV*	*well=well*	practice
33 T	*O O […]*	*Or, or […]*	
34 Mike	*=TOVA**	*Well {f.s}**	f.s form of the adjective
35 T	*= YONA, YONA OMERET HAYOM […] OK, BEIVRIT?*	*= yona, yona says today […] ok, in Hebrew?*	
36 Several	*BESEDER=BESEDER*	*Alright=alright*	
37 T	*=BESEDER. MA NISHMA? BESEDER*	*Alright. How's things? alright*	T models again
38 Several	*BESEDER=BESEDER=BESED ER*	*Alright=alright=alright*	practice
39 T	*BESEDER, BESDER*	*Alright, alright*	
40 Several	*LEHITRAOT= LEHITRAOT […]*	*see you later= see you later*	6th expression *LEHITRA'OT* (see you later);
41 All	*LEHITRAOT*	*see you later*	practice
42 T	*LE-HIT=RA=OT,*	*see—you—la--ter*	focus on pronunciation
43 T+All	*LEHITRAOT, LEHITRAOT,*	*see you later, see you later,*	practice
44 T	*LEHITRAOT, LEHITRAOT, VE'---------*	*see you later, see you later, and--------*	cued elicitation
45 All	*SHALOM*	*goodbye*	7th expression *SHALOM (hello/goodbye*;
46 T	*SHALOM, OK, SHALOM*	*goodbye, ok, goodbye*	

Move & Speaker	**Classroom Transcript**	**English Translation**	**Comments**
46 T 10:48:40	*ALEF […] SHALOM*	A	T. points to dialogue A and begins reading
47 Several	*-SHALOM*	*hello*	Ss reading precede T
48 T	*-SHALOM*	*hello*	T. reinforces Ss reading
49 F?	*ANI*	*I'm*	F? reading again precedes T

50 T	*ANI […] AN I----*	*I'm […] I'm-----------*	T again reinforces F? reading , and provides cued elicitation
51 Several	*RAMI*	*Rami*	Ss reading with appropriate name of character
52 T	*RAMI, RAMI*	*Rami, rami*	T reinforces reading
53 Several	*RAMI =RAMI*	*Rami=rami*	Ss repeat reading
54 Mike	*NAIM*	*Very*	Mike's reading precede T
55 T	*=NAIM MEOD*	*=very nice to meet you*	T expands Mike's reading, and models reading of phrase
56 Several	*NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you*	Ss repeat reading
57 T	*NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you*	T reinforces reading
58 Several	*NAIM MEOD*	*Very nice to meet you*	Ss practice reading
59 T	*ANI, ANI ----*	*I'm, I'm------*	T provides cued elicitation
60 Mike	*YUSI**	*Yusi**	Mike reads, in correctly, name of character from the dialogue
61 F?	*YOSI*	*Yosi*	F? correctly reads name
62 T	*YOSI*	*Yosi*	T reinforces correct pronunciation of name
63 Several	*YOSI*	*Yosi*	Ss repeat reading
64 T 29:07=10:49:10	*NAIM MEOD, ANI YOSI […] ANI YOSI, RAM VE'-YOSI […] RAMI, VE'-YOSI, SHALOM, NAIM MEOD, […] OK? […] OK, BET*	*Very nice to meet you. I'm yosi […] I'm Yosi. Rami and Yosi […] Rami and Yosi. Hello, very nice to meet you […] ok? […] ok B*	T reinforces exchange by reading the whole dialogue. He repeats names of characters in the dialogue RAMI, YOSI, and indicates class to move on to Dialogue B.

Move & Speaker	**Classroom Transcript**	**English Translation**	**Comments**
1 T	*EHH, EIFO? EIFO ZE'? […] EIFO ZE'? […]ZE' BA-OONIVERSITA?*	*Ehhh, where? Where is it?[…] where is it? […] its in the university?*	beginning of 4th dialogue T. points to textbook illustration
2 Several	*LO = LO*	*No = no=*	
3 T	*ZE BA----------------*	*Its in--------------*	cued elicitation
4 Tal	restaurant	restaurant	Ss respond (recalling word from previous dialogue)
5 T	restaurant , *BE'-IVRIT?*	restaurant , *in Hebrew?*	T. asks for response in Hebrew
6 Mike	*BA-MISA'ADA*	*In the restaurant*	S provides appropriate response

7 T	*BA-MIS-------ADA, BA-MISA'ADA, BA-MISA'ADA, BA-MISA'ADA. OK, EMM, DALET, DALET. HALO? HALO?.*	*In the res-----taurant, in the restaurant, in the restaurant, in the restaurant. Ok, Emm, D, D, hello? Hello?*	modeling response + pronunciation
9 Mike	*HALO*	*hello*	Slightly faster than others
10 Several	*HALO= HALO = HALO=*	*Hello = hello = hello=*	Greeting word borrowed from English
11 T	*HALO, RA-------------*	*Hello, Re-----*	cued elicitation (name from written dialogue)
12 Tal	*RAHEL*	*Rachel*	S responds
13 Several	*RAHEL = RAHEL, RAHEL*	*Rachel = Rachel = Rachel=*	other Ss respond
14 T	*RAHEL? HI-------------*	*Rachel? hi ----*	Begins reading and pauses to let students continue (cued elicitation)
15 Several	*SHALOM*	*hello*	
16 T	*= SHALOM---------------- TZILA*	*=Hello --------------------tzila*	pauses and then reads Hebrew girl's name (from dialogue)
17 Several	*TZILA = TZIRA = TSILA = CILA*	*Tzila = tzira = tsila = sila*	Ss attempt to pronounce name
18 T	*SHALOM TZILA------------, SHALOM TZILA-------------*	*Hello tzila-----, Hello tzila-----*	T. Begins to read and cues Ss to provide required phrase ' *how are things?'*
19 Mike	*SHALOM TZILA*	*=Hello tzila*	Repeats
20 Tal	*=MA NISHMA*	*=how are things?*	S initiates appropriate phrase in dialogue
21 Ethel	=What is it?	=What is it?	Private speech???
22 T	*KEN, SHALOM TZILA-------------*	*Yes, hello tzila-------------*	Cue for other students
23 Tal	*MA NISHMA*	*how are things*	Repeats required phrase
24 Ethel	*MA NISHMA*	*how are things*	S repeats phrase
25 T	*MA NISHMA?*	*how are things?*	Emphasizes question intonation
26 Several	*= MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA?*	*how are things?= how are things? = how are things?*	Ss repeat with appropriate intonation
27 T	*MA NISHMA?*	*how are things?*	Further modelling
28 Several	*= MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA?*	*how are things?= how are things? = how are things?*	further practice
29 T	*MA NISHMA?*	*how are things?*	Further modelling
30 Several	*= MA NISHMA? = MA NISHMA?*	*how are things?, how are things?*	Ss practice

Appendix 3: Interview Questions

Students' mid- lesson interviews

I observed the following teaching/learning process, as I can only observe external behaviors, please report your perspectives and internal thought process;

I observed the following teaching/learning process, as I can only observe external behaviors, please report any associations that came to your mind;

I observed the following teaching/learning process, as I can only observe external behaviors, please report questions that had occurred to you– whether raised or not;

I observed the following teaching/learning process, as I can only observe external behaviors, please report what made you say or do the things said or done;

I observed the following whole cohort interactions, as I can only observe external behaviors, please report on the impact it had on your learning;

I observed the following pair-work process, as I can only observe external behaviors, please report on the impact communications with your peer had on you or affected your learning;

Please report any positive or critical comments you have

Is there anything else you would like to add;

Students' semi-structured group discussion

<u>Questions arising from the observation</u>

All the following are asked in relation to:

A. Are you aware of this?
B. What learning needs does it serve for you the learners?

1. In the last month, every Tuesday's class T. begins the lesson by asking the question *what are you doing on the weekend/Shabbat?*
a. Did you notice that?
b. What did you do (internally- silent participation) **whilst another student was answering during teacher-fronted classroom activities/discussions/**

2. I have observed that T. repeats questions, instructions, comments three or more times, and that there is a consistency in the teaching and learning process whereby:
Firstly, there is use of Hebrew
Secondly, followed by a more explicit explanation of the grammatical/syntactical category; first in Hebrew, followed- only if necessary- in English
a. Am I correct in making such an observation, and if so
b. Is classroom learning enough?
c. Impact of explicit explanation by teacher?

3. Use of English in the classroom: I have noticed that English is not widely used:
a. T. uses Hebrew as the starting point of every discussion. He gives example of usage (models), he explains in Hebrew and tends not to 'give up' even if meanings are not understood immediately
b. How important/not important is this practice of sticking to Hebrew? Why?
c. Is Hebrew explanation rather than translation into English beneficial/ disruptive?

4. You explain things to each other in English, why?

5. You explain things to yourself in English:
a. Why do you think you do this?
b. Can you explain your thought processes in doing so?

6. Before texts are read T. initiates a discussion in which both the general context and specific new vocab are introduced. These will eventually serve the upcoming new text.
a. Does this way of reading for understanding (text deciphering), assist /disrupt your understanding?
b. Is there a difference in your level of understanding when teacher reads?
c. While texts are read, what are your thought processes? do you write? Where?

7. Has there been a development/ change in the way you have learned through out this semester?
a. Process of working in pairs?
b. Process class participation
c. Exercise-book organization

8. Do you engage in silent learning while doing other things? Walking the dog/on the way home/in the shower/before sleep? (Lantolf and Thorne 2006:182)

9. At times I have observed that you produce utterances that are incorrect (ungrammatical in Hebrew) Utterances which you have never heard from your teacher and possibly other native Hebrew speakers. How do you think you created them?

10. From a self learning perspective how important/not important, and effective /non effective are:
a. Self-study (homework) worksheets
b. Self-study (homework) writing assignments
c. Quizzes
d. Mid and Final semester exams

11. Mid Semester exam- if you studied for it, how you went about doing so?
a. Did you study on your own/ with a peer/family member/friend;
b. How long?

12. What do you do when you want to say something and you are having difficulties because of:

a.	lack of vocabulary	word level
b.	not sure of syntax	sentence level
c.	not sure how to express yourself	whole idea

13. Did the research project have an influence (impact) on your learning? If yes, in what way?

14. Did my presence in the classroom have an influence (impact) on your learning? If yes, in what way?

15. Is there any thing that you do as a language learner would like to comment on and has not been covered thus far?

Teacher's Interview

<u>Questions arising from the observation</u>

All the following are asked in relation to:

A. Why do you do this?
B. What learning needs do YOU think it serves the learners?

1. In the last month, every Tuesday's class you begin the lesson by asking the question *what are you doing on the weekend/Shabbat?*
a. Why do you do this?
b. What learning needs do you think it serves the learners?

2. I have observed that you repeats questions, instructions, comments three or more times; additionally spiral teaching whereby everything is repeatedly covered
a. Why do you do this?
b. And the spiral manner of the repetition, how much of it comes from you and how much curriculum dependent?

3. I have observed that there is a consistency in the teaching/learning process in this course whereby
Firstly, there is a practice of introduction and USAGE
Secondly, followed by a more explicit explanation of the grammatical/syntactical category; first in Heb, followed- only if necessary in English
a. Why do you do this, first use and then explanation?
b. What learning needs do you think it serves the learners?
c. At what stage do you thing the understanding needs to progress from usage to a grammatical or clearer explanation (**I observed that you first give in Hebrew and only secondly in English)**

4. Use of English in the classroom: I have noticed that English is not widely used:

a. You use Hebrew as the starting point of every discussion; you gives example of usage; that is the guessing method [*SHITAT HA-NIHOUSH HA-MOUNHE'*] (I probably heard this term from someone in Jerusalem [RIS])
b. You explain in Hebrew and tend not to 'give up' even if meanings are not understood immediately, and you tend to repeat

5. How important/not important is this practice of sticking to Hebrew for you as the teaching practitioner?

6. This also relates you your teaching philosophy and beliefs. Why?

7. How important/not important is this practice of sticking to Hebrew to the learning needs of your students?

8. Is Hebrew explanation rather than translation into English beneficial/ disruptive?
a. For you as teacher
b. The students' learning needs? (in your opinion)

9. When will you turn to English?

10. Students explain things to each other in English, they scaffold [term unknown to Teacher] each other. What is your view?

11. Place of pair-work

12. Before texts are read you initiate a discussion in which both the general context and specific new vocabulary are introduced.
a. Why do you do this?
b. What learning needs do you think it serves the learners?

13. Do you think there been a development/ change in the way students have been learning through out this semester?

14. From a teaching perspective how important/not important & effective /non effective are for the students? Why?
a. Self-study (homework) worksheets
b. Self-study (homework) writing assignments
c. Quizzes
d. Mid and Final semester exams

15. Did my presence in the classroom have an influence (impact) on students' learning? If yes, in what way?

16. Did my presence in the classroom have an influence (impact) on your teaching? If yes, in what way?

17. Is there anything that you do as a language teacher would like to comment on and has not been covered thus far?

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