



UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA
ESCUELA INTERNACIONAL DE
DOCTORADO

TESIS DOCTORAL

**A STUDY OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THE TEACHING OF READING
AND WRITING IN HEBREW.**

A METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH BASED ON THE FIVE SENSES

**UN ESTUDIO ACERCA DE LA PERCEPCIÓN DEL PROFESORADO SOBRE
LA ENSEÑANZA DE LA LECTURA Y LA ESCRITURA EN LENGUA
HEBREA.**

**UNA APROXIMACIÓN METODOLÓGICA BASADA EN LOS CINCO
SENTIDOS**

D.^a Eti Deri

The development of a method to instill reading of the Hebrew language as a mother tongue based on integration of the five senses



UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA
ESCUELA INTERNACIONAL DE DOCTORADO

TESIS DOCTORAL

**A STUDY OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THE TEACHING OF READING
AND WRITING IN HEBREW.**

A METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH BASED ON THE FIVE SENSES

**UN ESTUDIO ACERCA DE LA PERCEPCIÓN DEL PROFESORADO SOBRE
LA ENSEÑANZA DE LA LECTURA Y LA ESCRITURA EN LENGUA
HEBREA.**

**UNA APROXIMACION METODOLÓGICA BASADA EN LOS CINCO
SENTIDOS**

Autor: D.^a Eti Deri

Director/es: D.^a Antonia Cascales Martínez
D. Eduardo Encabo Fernández

The development of a method to instill reading of the Hebrew language as a mother tongue based on integration of the five senses



DECLARACIÓN DE AUTORÍA Y ORIGINALIDAD

DE LA TESIS PRESENTADA PARA OBTENER EL TÍTULO DE DOCTOR

Aprobado por la Comisión General de Doctorado el 19-10-2022

D./Dña. ETI DERI

doctorando del Programa de Doctorado en

Educación

de la Escuela Internacional de Doctorado de la Universidad Murcia, como autor/a de la tesis presentada para la obtención del título de Doctor y titulada:

A STUDY OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THE TEACHING OF READING AND WRITING IN HEBREW.
A METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH BASED ON THE FIVE SENSES

y dirigida por,

D./Dña. Dr. Antonia Cascales Martínez

D./Dña. Dr. Eduardo Encabo Fernandez

D./Dña.

DECLARO QUE:

La tesis es una obra original que no infringe los derechos de propiedad intelectual ni los derechos de propiedad industrial u otros, de acuerdo con el ordenamiento jurídico vigente, en particular, la Ley de Propiedad Intelectual (R.D. legislativo 1/1996, de 12 de abril, por el que se aprueba el texto refundido de la Ley de Propiedad Intelectual, modificado por la Ley 2/2019, de 1 de marzo, regularizando, aclarando y armonizando las disposiciones legales vigentes sobre la materia), en particular, las disposiciones referidas al derecho de cita, cuando se han utilizado sus resultados o publicaciones.

Si la tesis hubiera sido autorizada como tesis por compendio de publicaciones o incluyese 1 o 2 publicaciones (como prevé el artículo 29.8 del reglamento), declarar que cuenta con:

- La aceptación por escrito de los coautores de las publicaciones de que el doctorando las presente como parte de la tesis.*
- En su caso, la renuncia por escrito de los coautores no doctores de dichos trabajos a presentarlos como parte de otras tesis doctorales en la Universidad de Murcia o en cualquier otra universidad.*

Del mismo modo, asumo ante la Universidad cualquier responsabilidad que pudiera derivarse de la autoría o falta de originalidad del contenido de la tesis presentada, en caso de plagio, de conformidad con el ordenamiento jurídico vigente.

En Murcia, a 30 de mayo de 2023

eti Deri

Fdo.: ETI DERI

Esta DECLARACIÓN DE AUTORÍA Y ORIGINALIDAD debe ser insertada en la primera página de la tesis presentada para la obtención del título de Doctor.

Información básica sobre protección de sus datos personales aportados	
Responsable:	Universidad de Murcia. Avenida teniente Flomesta, 5. Edificio de la Convalecencia. 30003; Murcia. Delegado de Protección de Datos: dpd@um.es
Legitimación:	La Universidad de Murcia se encuentra legitimada para el tratamiento de sus datos por ser necesario para el cumplimiento de una obligación legal aplicable al responsable del tratamiento. art. 6.1.c) del Reglamento General de Protección de Datos
Finalidad:	Gestionar su declaración de autoría y originalidad
Destinatarios:	No se prevén comunicaciones de datos
Derechos:	Los interesados pueden ejercer sus derechos de acceso, rectificación, cancelación, oposición, limitación del tratamiento, olvido y portabilidad a través del procedimiento establecido a tal efecto en el Registro Electrónico o mediante la presentación de la correspondiente solicitud en las Oficinas de Asistencia en Materia de Registro de la Universidad de Murcia

Acknowledgments

To *Dr. Antonia Cascales Martinez*, thank you for your professional guidance, supervision, and desire to support and help in everything. Also, thank you for being there for me in writing the articles and publishing them. Your accuracy and professionalism are admirable; I learned a lot from you.

To *Dr. Eduardo Encabo Fernandez*, No words can truly express my gratitude and appreciation for your help in completing this research paper. Thank you - for the encouragement, support, advice, and promise that I would complete the study. Your mobilization to conclude the process has been most meaningful to me. You stepped in, led me to the finishing line, and presented the study even in the little time I had left. You have my utmost appreciation. My success is your success.

To *Ms. Rashida Nitzan*, thank you for your help with translating the paper from Hebrew into English, graphic design, and language editing. Thanks for your professional assistance and, chiefly, for being there to guide and aid when needed.

To *Dr. Ray Silverman*, thank you for your friendship, support, help and guidance.

A whole-hearted thank-you goes out to all the study participants – for the time you devoted to editing the interview; thanks to a throng of people who embraced me on social networks and helped me understand the wisdom of crowds.

To *my dear husband Yaniv*, you are the primary partner in my path and success. Thank you for always being there for me and cheering and, mainly, for taking care of the home and children when I was busy.

To my five children – *Tahel, Elia, Royie, Benaya* and *Naomi*, the happiness of my life, thank you for the drive you gave me, for understanding me when I kept to myself for long hours and whole days in my room for the research. And thank you for allowing me to realize my dream and finish my Ph.D. I wish you the very best that the world has to offer. Learn and engage in areas meaningful for you and society.

To my *dear family* - my dear mom, brothers, sister, mother-in-law, sisters and brothers-in-law, I thank you all for your encouragement. Without you, it would not have happened...

ABSTRACT

Introduction

The language is a critical component in consolidating the Israeli student's cultural and national identity, as is evident in the efforts to impart Hebrew in schools. In this context, this study strives to explore the skills related to how the brain learns to read and review the essential methodologies of teaching reading and writing as they emerge in the teachers' interviews.

In Israel, there are many languages, and this linguistic diversity is one of the problems when students are required to learn the Hebrew language in school. In Israeli households, many students' parents do not speak Hebrew, and thus the only place where students become exposed to the Hebrew language is the school. Many students arrive at school with poor verbal language, significantly inadequate vocabulary, and standard and grammatical pronunciation of words and sentences.

The study aims to explore teachers' work methods in the classroom to provide a differential response to meet students' needs. To refine the work with all the students in class requires creating an eclectic approach that combines diverse, experiential, and multisensory methods.

The Hebrew language is an alphabetic language consisting of 22 letters, graphically written in a print/block form and a rounded cursive form used in fast and everyday handwriting. Also, there are five vocalizations; each has at least two forms. We expect a student in the classroom to learn all these things in one school year. It is a long Sisyphean process; thus, to preserve students' motivation to learn, practice and work, we must integrate games, creative activity, fun, and pleasure into learning. Hence, an additional goal of this study is to examine all existing teaching methods in Israel and create a pool of accessible and practical knowledge.

Method

The teachers who participated in the study had experience of over five years of teaching special education in the first and second grades. Most teachers indicated that they love teaching this age group and felt highly committed and that the reading acquisition process was both challenging and exciting. Teachers formed emotional bonds with their students and drew satisfaction from the process.

This study was conducted in several stages. First, before going out into the field, we examined relevant literature and performed a broad literature review on reading acquisition approaches and teaching strategies in the education system in Israel.

A semi-structured interview was the chosen research tool. Initially, the participants received the research questions; they read the questions before the interviews. Each interview began with a general question and continued with questions directed at the research topic (see Appendix).

We interviewed 30 first and second-grade teachers with at least five years of work experience teaching reading in regular and special education. In addition, the outline of the study included language guides dealing with the development of curricula for reading acquisition. In the study, we conducted an in-depth critical analysis of the literature related to the field of research. The analysis describes the latest academic literature relevant to the study. Specifically, our research addressed the contribution of the research literature to the theoretical principles of the various reading instruction strategies that exist in the Israeli education system.

Results

The study's results raised first and second-grade teachers' challenges in teaching reading and writing. One of the most significant challenges in the large class is the heterogeneity and the need for differential learning to reach all the students.

The study's results underscored, among other things, the use of a single teaching approach intended for all students in the class and the group of students who cannot learn reading through one uniform model.

Nevertheless, the teachers listed different creative teaching strategies for reading and writing. Finally, based on the teachers' testimonies and the conclusions drawn, we developed an eclectic learning program based on the five senses.

Conclusions

The teachers' interview analysis shed new light on how they perceive their teaching strategies. For example, regarding curriculum selection, the teacher interviews show that in most schools, the school principal or someone on their behalf chooses the program. However, in the autonomy of the classroom, the teacher has no obstacle to producing experiential and challenging learning and using several models.

Moreover, the results highlighted the need for a calm, pleasant, and nonthreatening learning atmosphere. An encouraging learning atmosphere and building trust and positive relations between the teacher and the student are fundamental conditions for motivation to learn.

The study results also pointed out the teaching methods applied in Israel and their effectiveness for all the students in the class. In addition, the analysis

of the interviews shows that teachers invest much effort in preparing experiential and stimulating lessons for students.

Of the interviewed teachers, only a few were familiar with the multisensory method. Many teachers reported conducting various classroom activities, such as songs, games, presentations, and movement, "meant for enjoyment", in their words, but failed to recognize that these activities stimulate the senses.

Also, the study's findings indicated teachers' need for a pool of knowledge and activities to deal with challenging students. The teachers emphasized their need for additional help in the classroom - a female student assistant or teaching supporter. However, we found no studies supporting the idea that supplementary assistance in the classroom is conducive to students' progress. The study raised the need for different, differential, varied, and multisensory teaching.

RESUMEN

Introducción

La lengua es fundamental para consolidar la identidad cultural y nacional de los alumnos israelíes, como demuestran los esfuerzos por impartir hebreo en las escuelas. Este estudio analiza las habilidades relacionadas con la forma en que el cerebro aprende a leer y revisar las metodologías esenciales de la enseñanza de la lectura y la escritura hebrea tras entrevistar a docentes que imparten docencia dicha lengua.

La diversidad lingüística de Israel es uno de los problemas cuando se exige a los alumnos que aprendan la lengua hebrea. Muchos alumnos llegan a la escuela con un lenguaje verbal deficiente, un vocabulario significativamente inadecuado y una pronunciación estándar y gramatical de palabras y frases, dada la complejidad de la lengua hebrea y que solo lo utilizan en el centro educativo. Para fomentar la motivación para aprender, practicar y trabajar, debemos integrar en el aprendizaje en el juego, la actividad creativa, la diversión y el placer. Por ello el objetivo de este trabajo es examinar los métodos de enseñanza existentes en Israel y crear un método de enseñanza accesible y práctico, tanto para docentes como alumnos.

Este estudio se llevó a cabo en varias fases. En primer lugar, realizamos una amplia revisión bibliográfica sobre los enfoques de adquisición de la lectura y las estrategias de enseñanza en el sistema educativo de Israel. Abordando la contribución de la literatura a los principios teóricos de las diversas estrategias de enseñanza de la lectura que existen en el sistema educativo israelí. A continuación, para obtener información sobre la práctica real se realizó una entrevista semiestructurada, donde participaron 30 maestros de primer y segundo grado con al menos cinco años de experiencia laboral en la enseñanza de la lectura en educación regular y especial. Además, el esquema

incluía cuestiones sobre las guías lingüísticas que trataban sobre el desarrollo de planes de estudio para la adquisición de la lectura.

Los resultados del estudio plantearon los retos de los profesores de primero y segundo curso en la enseñanza de la lectura y la escritura. Uno de los retos más significativos en la clase numerosa es la heterogeneidad y la necesidad de un aprendizaje diferenciado para llegar a todos los alumnos. Además, subrayaron el uso de un único enfoque didáctico destinado a todos los alumnos de la clase y el grupo de alumnos que no pueden aprender a leer mediante un modelo uniforme. Arrojando luz sobre cómo perciben sus estrategias pedagógicas. Sin embargo, en la autonomía del aula, el profesor no tiene ningún obstáculo para producir un aprendizaje experimental y estimulante y utilizar varios modelos.

Además, los resultados pusieron de relieve la necesidad de un ambiente de aprendizaje tranquila, agradable y seguro. Alentador, donde se establezcan relaciones de confianza y positivas entre el docente y el alumno como condiciones fundamentales para la motivación hacia el aprendizaje.

De los profesores entrevistados, sólo unos pocos estaban familiarizados con el método multisensorial. Muchos profesores informaron de que realizaban diversas actividades en clase, como canciones, juegos, presentaciones y movimiento, "pensadas para disfrutar", según sus palabras, pero no reconocían que estas actividades estimulan los sentidos.

Asimismo, los resultados del estudio indicaron la necesidad de los profesores de disponer de un conjunto de conocimientos y actividades para tratar a los alumnos difíciles. Por lo tanto, se ha diseñado un método multisensorial basado en el principio de que el niño aprende mejor a través del aprendizaje activo, experimental, tangible que permita la transferencia de conocimientos.

Motivation to undertake the doctoral thesis

My name is Eti Deri, I was born in Israel in 1977 and since then I live in Israel. Married and mother of five children. I have a bachelor's degree in literature for grades 1-6 which includes a teaching certificate and a master's degree in biblical studies. For 23 years I have been involved in the field of teaching the Hebrew language to students in grades 1-2. The main part of my work focuses on teaching the basics of the spoken and written language, starting with the acquisition of phonological knowledge, understanding the alphabetic principle, familiarity with the sounds, words, sentences while correctly using the laws of the Hebrew language. Alongside all this, I combine skills for standard and optimal reading with the aim of turning the student into an independent learner. At the beginning of my journey, when I taught a whole class, I did not have the knowledge and tools to deal with students who were not successful. Challenging students were a goal for me. I didn't give up until I built for each individual student a work plan based on his strongest sensory channel. In this way I created a toolbox for myself and filled it from year to year. That's how I was able to reach all the students in the class and not leave anyone behind.

I believe that every child has potential and therefore every child can succeed. This work comes to connect the theoretical part on the subject of developing skills for reading and writing in Hebrew based on the five senses and my in-depth familiarity with the area. All this with the aim of leading all the students of the class, as one unit, to establish reading and writing in the first stages, which will be the stepping stones for improving skills and perfecting the language later in their lives.

Journal articles

Deri, E., Cascales Martínez, A., & Carrillo García, M.E. (2021). The teaching and learning of the Hebrew language in Israel. Historical background. In M.S. Sastre, E. Falguera Garcia & A. Martínez Ezquerro (Eds.), *Nuevos caminos para la lectura, la literatura y la comunicación* (pp. 27-37).

Deri, E., Cascales Martínez, A., & Carrillo García, M.E. (2022). Methods for teaching modern Hebrew. *La Revista Científica UISRAEL*, 9(2).

Participation in conferences

Deri, E., Cascales Martínez, A., & Carrillo García, M.E. (2020). *Methods used for teaching reading in Hebrew as a mother tongue in Jerusalem schools*. Presented at The 2nd International Congress of the Network of Reading Universities, "*The New Paths of Reading and Communication*" (Los nuevos caminos de la lectura y la comunicación") held at the University of Lleida on April, 16-17, 2020.

Table of Contents

Declaration of authorship	5
Acknowledgements	7
Abstract:	9
Introduction	9
Method	10
Results	11
Conclusions	11
Resumen	13
Introducción	13
Motivation to undertake the doctoral thesis	15
Table of Contents	17
PRESENTATION AND JUSTIFICATION	21
a. Motivation for conducting this study	23
b. Context	26
c. Objectives	27
d. Contribution to knowledge	28
e. Ethical aspects and proposed methodology	29
f. Structure of the doctoral thesis	32
Chapter 1: Literacy in Israel – Historical Background	33
Chapter 2: Communication	34
Chapter 3: The Hebrew Language – spoken, reading and writing	35
Chapter 4: Neuroeducation: Multisensory Approach	36
Chapter 5: Fieldwork	37
Chapter 6: The method of teaching reading Hebrew as a mother tongue integrates the five senses.	38
CHAPTER I: LITERACY IN ISRAEL – HISTORICAL BACKGROUND	39
1.1. Zionism	41
1.2. Studying in the traditional <i>heder</i>	42
1.3. The reformed <i>heder</i>	43
1.4. The first Jewish educational Institutions	44
1.5. Education in Israel in the First Years of the State	47
1.6. The Structure of the Education System in Israel	48
1.7. Literacy	50
1.8. Conclusions	52
CHAPTER II: TEACHING TO COMMUNICATE IN HEBREW, THROUGH A METHOD THAT FOSTERS COMMUNICATION, SOCIAL INTERACTION AND INTERACTION WITH OBJECTS AND CONTENTS, WITH A TEACHER AS MEDIATOR	55

2.1. Development of Communication and Language Skills	57
2.2. The Preliminary Stage	59
2.3. The Interpretive Stage	60
2.4. The Communicative Intention Stage	60
2.5. The One-Word Stage	62
2.6. Language, Social Interaction and Communication with Child	63
2.7. Interaction from the Perspective of the Child's Communication and Language	64
2.8. Interaction with and through the world of objects (Second Intersubjectivity)	67
2.9. Interaction from the Perspective of Mediation	68
2.10. The Conventions of the Hebrew Language	74
2.11. The Hebrew Teacher as Mediator	76
2.12. Difficulties and challenges faced by the teacher in Israel	80
2.13. Integrating Teaching Support in the Classroom	82
2.14. Conclusions	84
CHAPTER III: LANGUAGE- THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE, READING AND WRITING	87
3.1. The Steps in Learning a Language	89
3.2. The Connection between the Oral Language and the Written Language	90
3.3. The Partners for the Language Events	94
3.4. Towards the Reading Acquisition Process - Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Pragmatics	99
3.5. Instilling Reading	103
3.6. Theories of Reading Acquisition	104
3.7. From the Synthetic Method to the Analytical	105
3.8. The First Methods of Education in Israel	107
3.9. Advantages and Disadvantages of Teaching Reading Methods in Israel	111
3.10. Reading Disabilities - Identification, Diagnosis and Treatment	112
3.11. The Written Language	117
3.12. Characteristics of the Handwriting and the Challenges in Writing (dysgraphia)	118
3.13. Difficulties and Challenges in the Process of Reading Acquisition (dyslexia)	125
CHAPTER IV: GENERAL DEFINITION OF MULTISENSORY APPROACH	131
4.1. General Definition - Multisensory Approach	133

4.2. Multisensory Approach for the Whole Class	134
4.3. Multisensory Activity that Enhances Learning Achievements	138
4.4. How Does Learning Happen? How Does the Brain Work?	144
4.5. The Brain Areas Responsible for Memory and Learning	145
4.6. How Does the Brain Learn to Read?	148
4.7. How Does Hebrew Activate the Brain?	157
4.8. Conclusions	158
CHAPTER V: FIELDWORK	163
5.1. Research Method	165
5.2. Results	172
5.2.1. Theme One: Teachers' Choice of Methods	172
5.2.2. Theme Two: Additional Resources and Aids -The Most Relevant Processes for Promoting Reading and Writing Acquisition	181
5.2.3. Theme Three: Educational Atmosphere and Learning Environments	194
5.2.4. Theme Four: External Factors not under the Teacher's Control and Responsibility in Israel	205
CHAPTER VI: DIDACTIC PROPOSAL - A METHOD INTEGRATING THE FIVE SENSES	215
6.1. The Rationale for the Method	219
6.2. Characteristics of the Method	225
6.3. The Method	233
6.4. Resources: Material Resources Related to the Five Senses in Teaching the Letters, Vocabulary, and Sentences in Hebrew	238
6.4.1. The First Sense: Hearing /Listening	240
6.4.2. The Second Sense: Visualization	244
6.4.3. The Third Sense: Touch/Contact	248
6.4.4. The Fourth and Fifth Senses: Taste and Smell	254
6.5. The Students	256
6.6. The Teacher	261
6.7. Reading Instruction Stages Based on the Five Senses	267
6.7.1. The First Stage: Spatial Orientation	268
6.7.2. The Second Stage: Phonological Awareness	269
6.7.3. The Third Stage: Knowledge of the Letters of the Alphabet	269
6.7.4. The Fourth Stage: Knowledge of the Sounds	271
6.7.5. The Fifth Stage: Connecting Sounds into Words	272
6.7.6. The Sixth Stage: From Words to Sentences and Stories via Auditory and Kinesthetic Visual Aids.	273
6.7.7. The Seventh Stage: Fluency in Reading	277
6.7.8. The Eighth Stage: Reading Comprehension	280

6.8. Assessment	284
CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	289
7.1. Discussion	291
7.1.1. Theme One: <i>How the Teacher Chooses Teaching Methods</i>	292
7.1.2. Theme Two: <i>Additional Resources and Aids - The Most Relevant Processes in Promoting Reading and Writing Acquisition</i>	297
7.1.3. Theme Three: <i>Educational Atmosphere (Contact with Children and Parents) and Learning Environments (Literate Environment) - Classroom Management</i>	303
7.1.4. Theme Four: <i>External Factors not under the Israeli Teacher's Control and Responsibility</i>	309
7.2. Conclusions	317
References:	329
Appendices	375
Appendix I	376
Appendix II	380
Appendix III	382
Appendix IV Abstract in Spanish for thesis written in another language	383

PRESENTATION AND JUSTIFICATION

The complexity of Israeli society and its human fabric is reflected in the Israeli education system. Thus, there are at least three types of religious, secular and state-religious schools, and despite the differences, every student in Israel is expected to know how to read and write in Hebrew and make proper use of language, writing, and discourse.

The purpose of the study is to examine the various teaching methods that exist in Israel and to adapt them to all students studying in the classroom.

a. Motivation for conducting this study

In Israel, different methods of teaching reading acquisition exist, such as *LITAF* (Individual Therapeutic Active Learning), *Mafteach HaKesem* (Magic Key), *Otiyot Medabrot* (Talking Letters), and *HaKoach Likro* (the Power to Read). All these methods have a shared rationale and goals: to teach the Israeli child to read and write in Hebrew to be able to do different uses of the language. During my years as a teacher, I was exposed to these methods, participated in advanced courses, and used language guides to enhance my work with students in the classroom.

Piñon et al. (2018) explained that from the 1920s, methodologies had undergone substantial evolution, and mixed methods emerged, bringing together the positive aspects of synthetic and analytical methods; based on the idea that the teaching of reading and writing cannot be done in the light of a single approach, but must be eclectic, combined and multifaceted. From the viewpoint of mixed methods, when faced with a written text, the child should understand it as a whole. Yet, it is also essential that they discover the combinations in the text and analyze the relationships between phoneme and grapheme -inductively, as far as possible, thus inducing a genuine mental analysis. Although this should not be to the detriment of using deductive

teaching strategies, some phonemes, letters, and syllabic sounds need an explanation. Because of that, it is interesting to make a first review of the positive aspects of both synthetic methods and analytical/global methods because they will be the basis of the mixed method. Developing phonemic awareness is among the main benefits of the so-called synthetic methods.

At the beginning of my career teaching in the classroom, I chose one program and used it unchanged with my students. While many students did acquire reading via different methods, 20% failed to succeed. It generated gaps in learning and significant frustration. As a language is a basis for learning all disciplines, the students began accumulating academic gaps also in different other subjects.

This student group significantly challenged me; thus, I searched for different ways to help them. Over the years, I became exposed to more programs, added content, accessories, songs, stories, games, etc., and improved my Hebrew language instruction.

I devoted myself to the group of students who did not acquire reading and began exploring with each student individually their strong channels. I sat for hours separately with each student to identify such a channel and discovered the individual key to success in reading.

When a student succeeded in reading, something in them suddenly opened up. They would begin experiencing successes and receiving positive feedback from teachers, classmates, and parents. Also, the student experienced success in other subjects which require reading and even in math which requires answering verbal tasks.

Successes with these students stirred my motivation to research the Hebrew language reading instruction and develop a multi-sensory and eclectic learning program.

In Israel, several languages are spoken: Arabic, French, Russian, Spanish, etc. Yet, most Israeli schools teach only Hebrew and English, except for Arab schools teaching also the Arabic language. The Ministry of Education dedicates substantial resources to improving students' written and spoken Hebrew. The primary resources include linguistic guides, teacher advancement courses, numerous academic hours in schools, and remedial instruction teachers. The core deficiency in teaching reading in Israel is the use of several programs in the classroom to reach all the students.

The teachers fully aware of the different methods of teaching reading and writing will be able to select the best books available on the market, develop their own distinct methodologies, build teaching resources, and design teaching strategies.

Concerning the prospect of this theoretical review and analysis of the different methods reviewed, it would be advisable in future research to develop and implement a set of activities related to different ways of stimulating students on different levels of the language to be learned: visual, auditory, physical, emotional to investigate the best approach to teaching the Hebrew language.

Fluency is the ability to read a text orally with pace, accuracy, and appropriate expression. Children lacking fluency read slowly, with difficulty, and find it hard to remember what they have read because poor reading affects their working memory. A persistent reading practice helps improve reading fluency while developing a good reading fluency will improve reading comprehension because learners do not spend time decoding words and thus focus on meaning.

Text comprehension. Comprehension is a process that begins with the identification of words, accessing the meaning of words in context, recognizing grammatical structures, making inferences, and checking oneself to make sure

that the text makes sense. When facing a word with several meanings in a text, the brain has to select the one that makes sense in context. Improving the ability to identify the appropriate word meaning out of context is highly useful in acquiring efficiency in reading.

Teachers of Hebrew should further promote the skills through a methodology appropriate for this purpose and work globally, at the word level, sentence level, and text level of the Hebrew language. Moreover, to determine an optimal methodological approach to teaching reading and writing according to how the brain learns, it is critical to identify the positive and negative points in different methods for adapting them to educational objectives and a brainfriendly methodology.

b. Context

The Hebrew language, Jewish literature, and culture are at the center of linguistic education in the elementary school in the State of Israel. Each student achieves integration into academic studies, society, and culture through the mastery of their language. The language is an essential component in consolidating the student's cultural and national identity.

At the beginning of the establishment of the State of Israel, the residents did not speak a single language. Each immigrant brought the language and culture in which they grew up. In Israel, multilingualism emerged, and a uniform language was needed to create something unique and unifying (Deri et al., 2021). Ben-Raphael et al. (2006) explained that the task was not easy because the arriving immigrants were religious and secular, the Oriental and European, and each ethnic group absorbed the culture, religion, and beliefs of their Diaspora country. As described in detail further in the literary review, in the late 19th and early 20th century, Eliezer Ben Yehuda and his colleagues

made great efforts to introduce the Hebrew language as an official language in the Land of Israel in general and in schools in particular (Ben-Raphael et al., 2006).

According to Bar-Adon (2018), many programs were developed for the Hebrew language learning, spoken from the days it was traditionally used only as a sacred language - in prayers, blessings, and Bible study to nowadays. Walters (2019) highlights the findings of his investigations that reveal important insights into learners' experiences, enjoyments, frustrations, and expectations regarding both purposes and processes of learning to read in Hebrew and raised issues about learning and teaching, thus opening a debate about it. Share (2017) argues that research on the process of literacy acquisition in the Hebrew language broadens the perspective of research in this field, mainly in aspects related to phonological awareness, reading, and spelling.

In recent years, in Israeli schools, teaching staff have been given autonomy to decide on textbooks for the Hebrew language instruction. Because of that, our primary goal is to establish the principal characteristics of a proper approach that, on the one hand, could be valuable in selecting adequate textbooks and, on the other, in designing activities for teachers to implement in their classrooms if they want to create their educative resources.

c. Objectives

The study aimed to:

1. Make a contribution to the field of theoretical knowledge.

2. To summarize the modern teaching strategies implemented in Israeli schools through textbooks written by teachers, educators, and members of the Academy for Experienced Teachers.¹
3. Expanding teachers' knowledge and familiarity with different teaching strategies
4. To integrate new models of teaching and teacher training and to allow teachers to become familiar with innovative models and to develop an experiential method based on the five senses, intended for students of grades 1-2.
5. Develop an eclectic method for reading and writing in Hebrew as a mother tongue.
6. The method will be introduced in schools to analyze its effectiveness.

d. Contribution to knowledge

The study's contribution is in refining and enhancing the teachers' work in Israel by creating an eclectic program combining different and diverse teaching programs; writing down the teachers' methods of teaching reading and writing; examining the methods used by Israeli teachers in teaching reading and writing; informing teachers and introducing them to different approaches to reading and writing instruction; hearing what difficulties and challenges the teachers face in their work in a heterogeneous classroom and decreasing the number of students who fail to read and write.

The academic colleges of education are existing academic institutions in Israel, which ¹ award a B.Ed, and an M.Ed and M.Tech. The colleges are budgeted and supervised by the Academic Training Division and the Council for Higher Education Relations and are supervised by the Ministry of Education.

e. Ethical aspects and proposed methodology

The ethical assumptions were made by locating the interviewees by WhatsApp groups, Facebook and more. The topic of the study was presented at the beginning of the interview. The interviewees agreed to participate in the study using a consent form signed at the beginning of the interview. Respondents were assured that they would receive the results of the study findings.

The learning process includes storage and retrieval. The brain absorbs the information from the outside through the five senses, transmits it in a processing process, and stores it in memory stores of different types in different areas of the brain. The more efficiently the information is stored, the easier it will be for the learner to extract it from memory and use it for his various needs. At any given moment, millions of pieces of information reach the brain through different senses. The brain cannot absorb all the pieces of knowledge that enter it; thus, it is necessary to filter the information to absorb only specific information pieces. The brain stores incoming data in the working memory for a few seconds. When this process occurs, the "limbic system" - the emotional system - releases a large amount of a chemical called dopamine. Dopamine floods the brain with a sense of pleasure.

In the child's development and learning, the sense of experience and excitement plays a significant role in their reciprocal relationship with the adult. A child deprived of excitement sees events as isolated experiences unrelated to those preceding them.

This reading method is an eclectic method combining analytical and synthetic processes and using the core senses of sight, hearing, and the kinesthetic sense. The teacher must be aware of the student's need to mobilize and stimulate the repositories of attention, and they must attend to employing diverse teaching methods. Using sound effects, costumes, music, humor,

drama, or any other creative idea, will help the information received by the child pass through the primary filter of the brain, through the nerve cells, until the information reaches the synapses and stores the new information in the brain.

Long-term memory is greatly affected by the emotional system, so if the information is absorbed in a meaningful emotional experience, the chances of it being stored increase. The emotional system plays a central role in the entire learning process. When dopamine is released in the brain during learning, the brain will want to receive more information, and the student will be highly motivated and willing to face challenges. However, in learning accompanied by negative emotions, the student will exhibit inertia nor show enthusiasm and enjoyment from learning. Good experiences are experiences etched into memory.

Following consideration of the reviewed theories, the definition of literacy, how the brain learns, and the evolution of teaching methods for reading and writing, we put forward a methodological approach to teaching and learning Hebrew as a mother tongue in which these theories converge. The characteristics of the proposed approach are shown in Figure 1. This diagram presents four important principles on which the approach is based: development of three learning levels, activities related to student development, brain-friendly activities and an eclectic approach that combines different methodologies in order to teach all students in the class.

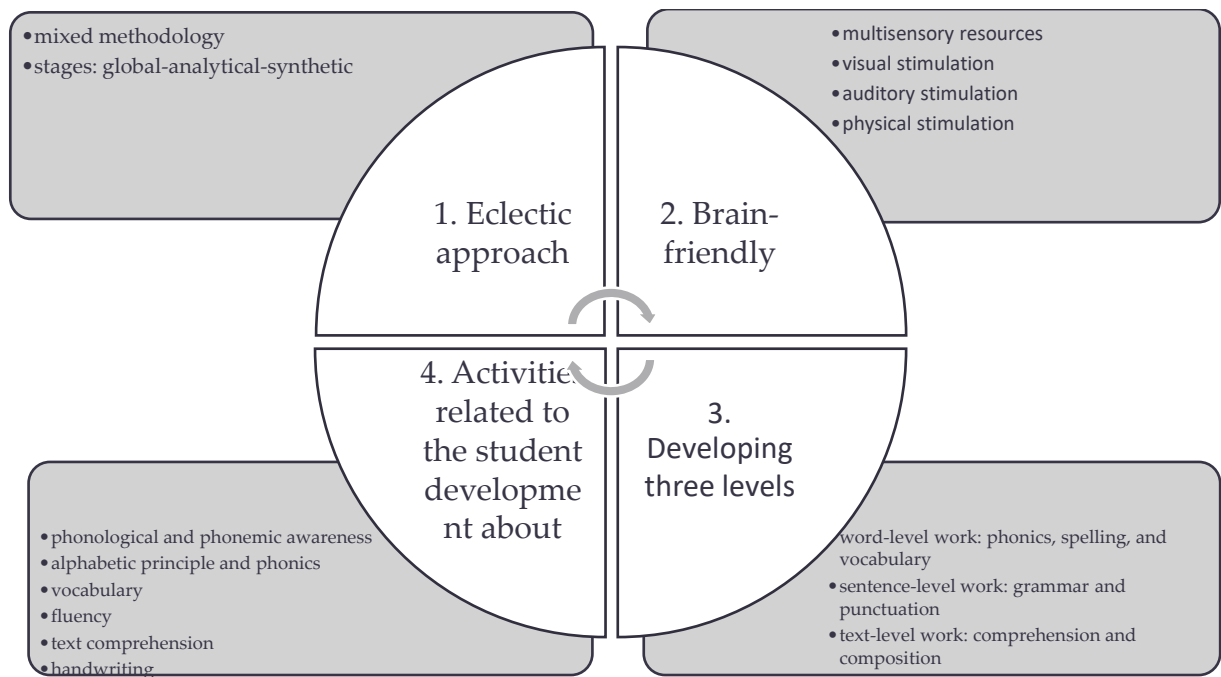


Figure 1: the proposed approach (own production)

The above-stated characteristics can be used as a checklist in choosing or designing a method for teaching Hebrew and can also help evaluate the already implemented methods - to review and identify their shortcomings to improve teaching the Hebrew language.

In conclusion, we may say that teachers who teach reading and writing must have an in-depth knowledge of the theoretical bases underlying the different methodologies for reading and writing acquisition and know how the brain learns to read and write - to adapt their teaching practice to the reality of the classroom, the characteristics of the language they teach and the positive aspects of the different methods. Provided that teachers are aware of the different methods of teaching reading and writing, they will be able to select the best books available on the market, and they will also be able to develop their own methods, build teaching resources and develop their teaching strategies.

Concerning the prospect of this theoretical review and analysis of the different methods reviewed, it would be advisable in future research to

develop and implement a set of activities related to different ways of stimulating students on different levels of the language to be learned: visual, auditory, physical, emotional to investigate the best method of teaching the Hebrew language.

f. Structure of the Doctoral Thesis

At the beginning of the thesis, the research problem is presented in the literature review on literacy approaches that existed at the beginning of the Hebrew language development.

The theoretical framework introduces the theoretical foundations of literacy. It helped define the characteristics necessary for a literacy approach to critically review literacy methods of teaching Hebrew. The surveyed academic literature deals with a multisensory approach to teaching Hebrew and developing literacy in children in the first years of elementary school education. Further, we explored the issue of how the brain learns to read and developed literacy methodologies. The data obtained following the literature review served to describe mother-tongue literacy approaches and the literacy methods of teaching Hebrew existing today.

Regarding the data received from the literature review and the parameters of an eclectic, brain-friendly, experiential, and motivation-inspiring approach, a three-level work form was suggested: words – sentence – text. Also, we recommended activities related to the child's development. The thesis contains the following chapters:

FIRST CHAPTER

Literacy in Israel - Historical Background

From the very inception of the State of Israel, it was crucial to instill in Jewish students the study of the Torah to pass history down from generation to generation. The traditional "*Heder*" was the first educational institution established. It was usually built near the house of prayer and was in direct contact with the reading and study of the Torah. At the beginning of the 20th century the Zionist room was repaired and became the cornerstone of Hebrew education in Israel. Since then, modern Israeli schools maintain a combination of Torah studies and work.

In this chapter we will deal with a number of topics: *Zionism*: A Jewish movement that arose in Europe, one of the goals of which was to gather the Jews in the Land of Israel and revive the culture and the Hebrew language. The traditional *heder*: the first form of study among the Jews of Europe and Israel. The first schools established in the Land of Israel in order to combine Torah study with general subjects such as mathematics, science and more. *Alliance*: A revolutionary educational organization established in Israel and around the world with the aim of operating schools and training teachers. *Compulsory Education Law*: A law enacted in the Knesset immediately after the establishment of the state (1948) in which every child from the age of 3 to 18 must be in any educational framework. *Literacy*: Expanding the traditional view that included only two skills, reading and writing. The importance of literacy and its inclusion in the comprehensive Hebrew language curriculum, reading, writing, speaking, listening and observing.

SECOND CHAPTER

Communication

As early as in the first days of life, the infant communicates with their environment - long before spoken language acquisition. Communication occurs via gestures, facial expressions, and vocal productions. Each passing year, the child learns and develops communication skills and even verbal and linguistic abilities. The primary, elementary stages are critical in a language acquisition process. Enriching the quantity and quality of the child's vocabulary will form the necessary basis for in-depth learning of the written language and all its aspects. In this chapter we will deal with: 1. Stages of language and speech development: crying, raging, spontaneous voice productions, consistent phonetic forms, first words, phonological enrichment, completion of the vocal process, awareness of phonological processes. 2. The interaction with the child and its importance for cognitive and verbal development. 3. Hebrew Language Conventions: A Semitic language from the Afro-Asiatic language family has been considered an official language in Israel since 1921. It was renewed by Eliezer Ben Yehuda, who borrowed many words from other languages that were missing in the Hebrew language. 4. The Hebrew script: An ancient script from the 4th century AD, consisting of 22 letters, written from right to left and used for writing only in writings and books. Another form of writing in Hebrew is the manuscript, a circular script used for everyday writing. 5. The Hebrew teacher as a mediator: His role is in identifying the student's difficulties and adapting an experiential and multi-sensory curriculum that will help the student break through the inhibiting barriers.

THIRD CHAPTER

The Hebrew Language – spoken, reading and writing

All those involved in educating young children must understand the development of speaking and listening as these skills have great significance and importance for learning to read and write. The development of speech and listening indicates the ability of children to learn and are themselves a means of learning in school and in the world beyond school.

Reading and writing is a thoroughly acquired and significant personal ability, especially in the first years of school. In the 21st century, there is a broad consensus on the importance of mastering these skills - the cornerstone for a child's success in school and throughout his life.

Writing is the graphic expression of the spoken language and a technical process with rules that require the student to demonstrate precise planning and work ability. At this stage motor difficulties and other defects can be identified that can be overcome through an appropriate intervention program. Untreated reading and writing problems at a young age can lead to complete paralysis of a student's expressive ability, regardless of his or her mental ability. In this chapter we will deal with: 1. Language: A complex system of symbols through which messages can be conveyed. 2. Approaches to reading: three bottom-up, top-down models, an interactive model. 3. Theories of reading acquisition: the alphabet method, the phonetic, analytical and synthetic method. 4. Methods of education in Israel: What is the traditional honor, the war of languages of Eliezer Ben Yehuda, recognition of Hebrew as the official language until the establishment of the first schools in Israel. 5. Methods of learning in Israel: without secrets, Litaf, the key to magic, the power to read. 6. Reading Disabilities: Various difficulties in the process of acquiring the reading, building an intervention plan by professional factors. 7. Definition of the

concept of writing: stages in the development of the manuscript, agreed signs for writing. 8. Characteristics of the manuscript and the skills to

be applied: motor, sensory and cognitive. 9. Models for writing: motor program, letter design, orthographic processing, visio-motor integration and more. 10. Difficulties in writing: dysgraphia - diagnosis and treatment and recommendations for improving the manuscript.

FOURTH CHAPTER

Neuroeducation: Multisensory Approach

The successful reading acquisition involves three neural systems and the development of specific skills that will work together to help the brain decipher abstract symbols into meaningful language. On the one hand, the visual processing system scans the printed word. On the other, the auditory processing system plays it in the head, and finally, the frontal lobe combines the information to produce meaning. Throughout this process, the angular gyrus helps to decipher the visual word recognition signals for further processing in the language centers of the left hemisphere (Broca's and Wernicke's areas).

For the combined work of these neural systems to lead to successful reading, the student must develop specific skills related to phonological and phonemic awareness, alphabetic and phonetic principles, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension of the text. In this chapter we will also deal with: How to cultivate assessment tools and practical strategies in the student .The connection between the orthographic signs and the phonemic utterances by using sensory associations. The importance of connecting the sensing systems to the reading acquisition process and how they can be stimulated. The multi-sensory learning used to teach students with specific learning difficulties and

with dyslexia. Multiple intelligences and multi-sensory approach .Improving memory through the multi-sensory approach. Observing brain imaging studies in developmental cognitive neurology makes it possible to learn how the brain responds to environmental constraints. The steps in language acquisition and how the brain learns language. How the Hebrew language activates the brain and how the teacher can evoke in the student the old information and pass on the new information to him.

FIFTH CHAPTER

Fieldwork

Teachers were selected for the interviews for students of grades 1-2 who teach reading and writing. It was shown to the teachers that the subject of the research examines the teaching methods and tools used by the teachers in the classroom for learning to read and write in Hebrew (Appendix 1).

After transcribing the interviews, four main themes were collected. In each theme, the answers of the teachers were concentrated. This chapter will present the issues that emerged from the interviews with the teachers regarding their perception of the strategies for teaching reading to their students. The topics include the choice of teaching methods by the teacher, the most relevant processes in promoting the acquisition of reading and writing, the educational atmosphere and learning environments, and external factors that affect the teaching in the classroom, for example, the number of students in the classroom, lack of resources and faculty.

SIXTH CHAPTER

The method of teaching reading Hebrew as a mother tongue integrates the five senses.

This chapter will introduce practical tools that will contribute to the quality of teaching and learning in the student's first years at school and strengthen their motivation.

The educational approach described in this chapter relies on the principle that a child learns better through active experiential and tangible learning. Therefore, this chapter will examine all the senses and provide practical tools for their activation. In addition, we will describe the multisensory approach and its effectiveness for the learner, not only in the transfer of knowledge but also in the sense of pleasure.

The initial stages of teaching reading and writing are the most significant milestones for a student at the beginning of his schooling; therefore, the teaching must be enjoyable, high-quality, and effective.

CHAPTER 1

LITERACY IN ISRAEL -HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The development of a method to instill reading of the Hebrew language as a mother tongue based on integration of the five senses

Of the abundant variety of studies in the Hebrew language acquisition and finding different models and teaching methods for language learning, few have researched language learning in the entire classroom taking into account students' differences and needs. This dissertation examines the existing teaching methods for learning reading in Israel to create a diverse multisensory program, which will enable optimal learning for all students in the class, including exceptional students. In addition, this study included a general analysis of the textbooks and curriculum in Hebrew published by the Ministry of Education.

1.1 Zionism

According to Shimoni (2001, as cited in Rom, Segal, Tzur 2003), Zionism is an ideological and national movement that advocates the existence of a Jewish state, particularly in the Land of Israel. Zionist movement, as a Jewish national movement, arose in the last third of the 19th century, mainly in central and Eastern Europe. Zionism as an ideology is nonreligious, and there are even evangelical Christians across the globe who view themselves as Zionists.

The movement flourished in Europe in the 19th century in the wake of outbursts of antisemitism stemming from the process of secularization (abandoning religion) that gained power among the Jewish community in those years. The world got modernized, and religion could no longer satisfy the need for self-identity. That conflict led to the creation of a new national self-definition.

One of the goals of Zionism was *Shivat Zion* (Return to Zion), *Kibbutz Galuyot* (the Gathering of the Exiles), and the revival of the Hebrew culture and language to create a new Jew. Zionism strove not only to achieve political territory for the Jewish people but also for moral and spiritual wholeness. Since

the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948, the Zionist movement continued to support Israel and address threats to its security and existence (Shimoni, 2001 as cited in Segal, 2003).

Usually, the school was built next to the house of prayer, the synagogue, in a Jewish community. The term *heder* (a school for Jewish children in which Hebrew and religious knowledge are taught) as an educational institution draws on that fact. Immediately after the prayer, the students would go out to the *heder* where they learned the Bible with the Rabbi.

1.2 Studying in the Traditional *Heder*

There is scarce mention of childhood as a concept and experiential world of European Jewish boys and girls in Orthodox historiography. Orthodox Judaism is one of three streams in Judaism: Reform, Conservative, and Orthodox. The difference between these movements is theoretical. Children's place is preserved only in connection with the *heder* and the realization of the highest value in the traditional Jewish society of that time - Torah studies. Motti Zalkin reveals and sketches the childhood experience of the 19th century period when children studied in a *heder*, as reflected in students' literature and personal memories (Zalkin, 2008).

Zalkin, an Israeli historian who researched the social history of Eastern European Jews, reveals and sketches the childhood experience in this society reflected in literature and personal memoirs. Zalkin cites Levin retelling that while outside the woods and fields were in blossom, the little children were cooped up the whole day, from morning till night, in the narrow and chilly *heder* and only "rarely witnessed the God's fine world" (Levin as cited in Zalkin, 2008, p.71).

Levin and Aharoni (as cited in Bezalkin, 2008) indicate that the ability to resist temptation was beyond the children's emotional strength. The fresh air and delicious smells of apples and pears in the pastor's garden did not give them rest, and their heads were not in the studies; therefore, the children recounted how they slowly lined up and went out into the fields and forest until it became routine. The intention of "youth rebellion" (a phenomenon of adolescent rebellion against authority still existing in Israel today) can be seen as using nature as a space to allow a forced learning experience. However, the teachers did not see these trips into fields as a time to enjoy fresh air, but rather as children's desire to replace the belief in God with the blue of the sky (ibid).

These stories and other memories yield a picture of the colorful and turbulent world of experiences existing outside the walls of the *heder* that the children entered unseen and unauthorized by teachers. Moreover, we can learn about the coping of traditional society with the complexity of phenomena concerning youth culture that deviates from accepted norms. For example, in Yemen, where there was a significant Jewish community, only boys studied in the *heder*, while girls stayed at home to help their mothers raise children and do the housework. It was due to the Jewish community's opposition to allowing girls into classrooms (Goldsmith, 1995).

1.3 The Reformed *Heder*

Goldstein (1986) relates that the revised Zionist *heder* that developed in Russia in the late 19th and early 20th centuries became the cornerstone of national Hebrew education in Israel. It is hard to imagine what the modern Hebrew education system would look like without the experience of that period.

Russian Zionists ceased to believe in Benjamin Zeev Herzl's actions (the visionary of the state of Israel) following rumors of his diplomatic failure at the Third Zionist Congress held in BaZel (1899), where Herzl chose to focus congressional discussions on the policy issues that arose. However, the Zionist movement wanted to discuss the impact of national culture on the Jewish people. Consequently, Zionists began looking for other courses of action, fearing that many Jews might leave the movement.

One choice was an establishment of an independent Zionist educational network to raise a new generation that would acquire national Zionist values from birth and teach children general subjects such as history, mathematics, geography, etc., along with customary Torah studies in the traditional *heder* (Goldstein, 1986).

1.4 The First Jewish Educational Institutions

When we discuss the history of Jewish education, the encounter with modernity and its impact on Jewish society becomes evident. Jewish dignitaries saw the need to establish educational institutions that would meet the needs of the Jews and ensure their equal societal status.

First educational institutions were established based on the initiative of individuals and communities, especially the "Alliance" initiative. Alliance (All Israel Members) is an international Jewish educational organization founded in France in 1860 to meet the need for leadership with unique characteristics. The organization promotes academic and professional excellence and strengthens the authentic Jewish identity that rests on the history and geography of the Jewish communities in Israel and worldwide (Aberbach, 2002).

The "Alliance" was founded in Paris in 1860. Its definite purpose was to protect the Jews wherever they were and promote human rights. Over the years, the Alliance has become a substantial educational power that has changed the Jewish world and counted more than a million students in more than ten countries. Its alumni, who equally embrace Jewish and universal values, live in Israel, Europe, America, and Morocco (Rodrigue, 1990).

Following the great wave of Jewish immigration, Paris needed more schools. In 1867, the Alliance School was established in Paris to train Jewish teachers but was converted into a high school soon after. In 1901, Baroness Clara de Hirsch founded the Jewish school, Lucien de Hirsch; the school aimed to integrate immigrant children who had escaped poverty and pogroms. In the 1940s, however, Vichy government laws did not spare the school; both teachers and students were deported to the Auschwitz extermination camp. After World War II, more schools were established by rabbis and non-Jewish donors (Atlan, 2007).

More institutions opened in Israel under the auspices of the Alliance. In 1882, the first modern school was established in Jerusalem, combining Bible studies and vocational education in crafts such as carpentry, shoemaking, etc. In addition, in 1870, the first agricultural school was established under the guidance of Karl Netter; 14 years afterward, a school was established in Haifa High School (Rodrigue, 1990).

In the early 1920s, Britain was assigned the Mandate over the land of Israel. Its purpose was to assist the new Jewish settlement until the establishment of an independent state. In 1922, the Mandate recognized the Hebrew language as the official language in Israel along with the English and Arabic languages. During these years, different educational streams developed - the general stream, the workers' stream, the religious stream, and the ultra-Orthodox stream also developed, as stated in more detail below.

The general stream believed in national-traditional education based on "the intellectual property common to all parts of the nation" while integrating scientific achievements. The movement leaders intended this for the general population and hoped that religious and secular people from all denominations would attend the school. The curriculum was rooted in the concept of a united society and comprehensive nonpartisan education. Consistent with the concept, a state school was established, once the state education law was ratified.

The Workers' Stream believed in the education of socialist workers by "planning a Jewish-pioneering-independent personality, imbued with a socialist Zionist vision, ready to fulfill in body and soul the mission of the Hebrew socialist labor movement in Israel." The working-class schools directed their students to "fulfillment" - a pioneering settlement in kibbutzim founded on the purity of socialism. The schools also tried to guide the students toward activities in the socialist youth movements. In the educational institutions of the working class, two flags were raised - the Israeli flag and the red flag that symbolized the socialist ideology. May Day was a Sabbath day treated as any other holiday.

The Religious Stream: The Orthodox religious education combined Zionism and modernism characteristics. Its ambition was to impart a national-religious education. It is important to note that, contrary to what is customary in the ultra-Orthodox schools and *heder*, the school offered general studies: science, humanities, and languages. Most of the religious and many members of the Eastern community studied in this stream. Some religious people chose to send their children to mainstream schools precisely because of their identification with the nonpartisan message.

The Orthodox Stream: Unlike other denominations that had existed since the days of the Yishuv, the Orthodox Jewish denomination received

official recognition only in 1948 with the establishment of the State of Israel due to the tireless efforts of the association's president Rabbi Yitzchak Meir. This stream was the fourth largest and was associated with the non-Zionist Ultra-Orthodox parties called *Agudat Israel* and *Poalei Agudat Israel*.

Per the Compulsory Education Law, enacted in 1949, every child aged five to 13 must attend an official educational institution affiliated with one of the four streams. The party leaders did their best to unify all educational streams, yet, the religious and ultra-Orthodox education feared that the secular nature of the school would affect the children and therefore opposed the unification of the schools.

On August 12, 1953, a state education law was enacted that effectively united only the general stream and the stream of workers. The religious current was established and became the state religious education. The Orthodox current of *Agudat Israel* remains autonomous and recognized as an independent education of the ultra-Orthodox public today.

In the 21st century, there has been a revolutionary shift in Alliance educational activities. The organization has transformed from an organization that finances and operates schools and teacher-training centers to a leading organization in establishing schools and operating educational programs in Israel and worldwide.

1.5 Education in Israel in the First Years of the State

In the years 1948 to 1950, a large number of immigrants from Eastern countries and Europe arrived in Israel. Due to the large immigration wave and housing deficit, there was a need to build *ma'abarot* (absorption settlements) – temporary camps, until immigrants could move to permanent housing. The living conditions were difficult; the immigrants lived in temporary tents and

tin structures and suffered greatly from overcrowding and horrid sanitary conditions.

Apart from the desire to find an appropriate living place for the immigrants, the prime ministers discussed the education issues and the willingness to teach *Israeliness* to the immigrant children. Rapel (1997) explains that the mission was not easy because the immigrants distinguished themselves as religious and secular, *Mizrai* and European. Each ethnic group imbibed the culture, religion, and faith of their Diaspora community of their country of origin.

1.6 The Structure of the Education System in Israel

Following the founding of the State of Israel (1948), the Ministry of Education was formed in 1949 and, soon afterward, laws regulating education in Israel were instituted. One of the principal laws is the Compulsory Education Law (attached is a link to the law). The law requires every Israeli child aged three to 18 to be enrolled in an educational framework. The law requires parents to find a school for the child and ensure their regular attendance at school. The law prohibits schools from expelling students without providing them with an alternative educational framework. Compulsory education will be free until the end of the twelfth grade.

The complexity of Israeli society and its diverse human fabric are evident in the Israeli education system. Its heterogeneity is manifested in different structural strata of the system and its budget and various educational institution types adapted to the needs of the many sectors. It is customary to classify the structure of the education system in Israel into four principal sectors – according to age groups:

1. Pre-primary education includes pre-kindergarten and pre-compulsory stages for children of three to five-six years old.
2. Primary education covers first through sixth grades, ages of six to 12.
3. Post-primary education includes junior-high: seventh through ninth grades for children aged 13 to 15, and senior-high: tenth through 12th grade - for 16-to-18-year-old children.
4. Higher academic education for 18-year-old students and older.

Sectoral Cross-section

Jews, Muslims and Christians live together in the State of Israel. Among the Jews there are religious and non-religious. The Jewish religious sector is also divided into traditional and ultra-Orthodox religious. Every citizen of the State of Israel has the right to choose which of the schools he wants to educate his children.

1. State schools: nonreligious institutions within the Jewish and non-Jewish sectors. The non-Jewish sector includes Muslim, Bedouin, Christian, Druze, and Circassian students.
2. State-religious: state-recognized Zionist-religious educational schools embracing a religious way of life and curriculum and employing religious teachers and inspectors.
3. *Haredi* (ultra-Orthodox): the institutions are united under two large educational networks, independently funded by the heads of the Haredi community.

Weissblai and Wininger (2015) clarified that apart from state schools supervised by the Ministry of Education there is a supplementary education network operating under the Special Education Act since 1988. The special-

education system serves three-to-17-year-old students with disabilities. Special-education classes function as part of regular education schools or separate institutions. Special-education students are eligible for paramedic treatment, assistance in learning, counseling services, and individual tutoring.

There are over 26,000 kindergartens and schools for ages three through 18 in Israel today. The teacher workforce comprises close to 200,000 teachers trained by academic institutions throughout the country.

1.7 Literacy

Literacy includes minimal ability to read and write in a specific language, comprehension of its writing system, and use in everyday life. Literacy requires the individual to master and become familiar with the writing system and apply interpretations to writing and various literacy situations. Initially, literacy dealt only with reading and writing (Brush-Veitz, 2000).

In light of the above definitions, it is possible to note several prominent features of the term, as perceived by its definers:

- *A framework of Reference:* At the center of the discussion are five language skills: reading, writing, speaking, listening, and observing. These skills expanded the traditional view that included only two skills (reading and writing). It is worth mentioning that the reference framework focuses on the world of verbal conversation - only recently has the world of numbers joined it in Israel (Fox, 2004).
- *Dualism:* Polar dualism is expressed in opposite characteristics, such as tangibility and abstraction, individualism and sociality, practicality and spirituality, permanence and change, activism and passivity, rigor and fluidity, etc. (Beck et al., 2002).
- *Internal* includes the ability acquired at school, but also outside it.

- *Context*: The learning context and the useful-functional context, the meaning, the study field, and daily life, in its different aspects.
- *Type of operation*: A passive acquisition through external culturalization or active - via experiential interpersonal structuring.
- *Occurrence area*: An internal and external learning process alongside a social, interpersonal process based on the individuals' continuous reciprocal social relations with the environment.
- *Sign code*: The initial definition of literacy coding-decoding skills of signs, letters, words, and sentences.
- *Field of reference* - a field of cross-border knowledge transfer. The definition has crossed the borders of a written language and the traditional disciplinary frame - language, expression, and literature, and it links the term "literacy" with the multidisciplinary world (Brosh-Weitz, 2000).

Literacy, therefore, is a cultural, social, communicational, personal, political, and ideological phenomenon in which multiplicity, diversity, and uniqueness exist. Hence, it is expected to change constantly. Ulmer said: "Literacy is like Poland in European history" (Lyons, 2003). Because Poland is divided into 16 provinces, the intended meaning is that literacy dominates many areas.

Having considered multiple definitions and perceptions, it is possible to summarize by saying that there is a broad consensus that the term involves functioning (ability, skill, expertise, execution, operation) in fields of language and personal, social, and cultural contexts. Different definitions indicate an immensely temperamental activity in a "noisy site" of opinions, perceptions, and creative thinking. Humanity has not ceased trying to decipher one of the fundamental essences of human experience. Numerous things are being tested

and selected; therefore, the “literacy field” appears as an arena of wrestling and struggling between competing interests (McKenna & Stahl, 2009).

1.8. Conclusions

Since the founding of the State of Israel, it was essential to instill in Jewish students the study of the Torah to ensure the history is passed down through generations. The traditional *heder* was the first educational institution established. It was traditionally built near the house of prayer (the synagogue) to enable students to study the Torah with the rabbi after the prayer (Shimoni, 2001 as cited in Segal, 2003).

According to Zalkin (2008), students did not receive emotional and social feedback in the traditional *heder*. Students were not exposed to different learning styles nor allowed to go outside. An undisciplined student was labeled lazy. Studies in a “*heder*” were enforced and rigid.

Per Goldstein (1986), the beginning of the 20th century saw the revival of the Zionist *heder*; it became the cornerstone of Hebrew education in Israel. Since then, modern Israeli schools have both Torah studies and vocational learning (Rodríguez 1990)

Between 1948 and 1950, a significant immigration wave arrived in Israel. Along with substantial housing deficit, overcrowding, and immigrants' difficult absorption conditions, the government had the issue of education on the agenda (Raphael, 1997). The undertaking was arduous due to the vast diversity of immigrants - religious and secular, Middle-Eastern and European, each group bringing in culture and religion from the country of origin.

The Israeli society and its human fabric are complex and diverse, as is evident in the Israeli education system comprising at least three types of religious, secular, and state-religious schools. Despite the differences, every

student in Israel is expected to know how to read and write in Hebrew and possess appropriate skills in using the language, writing, and communicating.

CHAPTER 2

**TEACHING TO COMMUNICATE IN HEBREW,
THROUGH A METHOD THAT FOSTERS COMMUNICATION,
SOCIAL INTERACTION AND INTERACTION WITH OBJECTS
AND CONTENTS, WITH A TEACHER AS MEDIATOR**

Communication is the basis for language development. Babies communicate with their environment long before they acquire a spoken language. Their means of communication are varied, e.g., gestures, body movements, facial expressions, vocal productions, crying, and eye contact. . Later the communication will be perfected and will turn from non-verbal communication to verbal communication

2.1 Development of Communication and Language Skills

Already in the first days of the baby he makes contact with adults, by non-verbal means. According to Southern (1993) and Owens (1996), infants begin to consciously develop communication skills through gestures and sounds toward the end of their first year. These skills develop gradually. The language and speech development stages are:

1. *Crying*: from birth to one month. At this stage, the baby expresses desires via several types of crying (Sobelman-Rosenthal, 1999). Crying is interpreted as hunger, pain, or boredom.

2. *Rampage*: From one to six months. At this point, the baby develops a physiological ability to produce basic sounds. By the end of the second month, the baby is trying to emulate his parents' words. According to Dromi and Ringwald-Frimerman (2003), this imitation is called a "rampage". It forms the basis for vocal processing and reciprocal vocal playing.

3. *Pepper*: from six months to one year. The baby begins to explore its environment; thus, their spontaneous vocal productions reduce the sounds the baby produces and become similar to speech; they consist of consonants and movements. Papousek and Papousek (1986) note that infants mimic adults' intonation, and their awareness of spoken language grows. For infants, chatter constitutes self-stimulation of the mouth until they produce their first words.

4. *Phonetic Consistent Forms (PCFs)*: From ten months through the first year. At this point, the baby uses typical sounds as words. These sounds are not based on adult words but have operational content. At first, the phonetic patterns appear in only one context. Later, the toddler learns to generalize and use the same phonetic patterns for similar things (Gillis & De Schutter, 1986).

5. *First words* - from the end of the first year to the end of the second year. According to Owens (1996), at the beginning of this stage, in parallel with babbling, the first words appear. The toddler produces more sounds belonging to his parents' mother tongue and fewer sounds used by them for games. It is the toddler who acquires his first words. Then the pace of language acquisition slows down, as the toddler devotes most of his energy to improving his motor skills and exploring the environment.

6. *Phonological enrichment* - from the end of the second year to four years. At this point, new sounds are added to the child's statements (Subleman-Rosenthal, 1999). Children expand the patterns they produce. With age, the pronunciation improves, and the saying of the words becomes more similar to the conventional. This stage is significant in terms of phonological development.

7. *Completion of the vocal process of the language* - from the age of four to six-seven. At this point, the child continues to improve his phonological systems until they are completed. By the end of the stage, most children have mastered correct pronunciation.

8. *Awareness of phonological processes of the language* - from the age of seven to eight years onwards. At this point, the child is aware of the phonological processes of the language, and interaction occurs between the spoken language and the written language (Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996).

In conclusion, the process of the infant's attachment to the social environment begins from birth and gradually develops to the state of the child's awareness of phonological processes. As stated, the phonological processes will continue to be part of children's learning even after they reach school age. There he will be required to recognize the opening sound, the closing sound of the word, and all the phonemes that make up the whole word. This stage constitutes a basis for reading and subsequent writing in Hebrew.

2.2 The Preliminary Stage

With the intention of reviewing in a more detail way the above stages we will allow explaining the preliminary stage. The preliminary stage coincides with the initial stages of the development of communication and language skills (Stages One-Four). In the verbal stage, the infant develops their communication with the environment through communicative behaviors that include gestures, movements, facial expressions, voice productions, and eye contact. The infant actively engages in reciprocal relationships with their immediate environment through these behaviors (Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996). During this stage, the infant begins to fidget and produce various sounds that will develop into words and form the basis for their linguistic development in the areas of speech, phonology, semantics, morphology, and syntax, which we dealt with in Chapter 2 (Southern, 1993; Hoff-Ginsberg, 1986; Kumin, 1994; Yoder & Warren, 2004). We can subdivide the preliminary stage into two main substages: the interpretation stage and the stage of intentional communication (Bates et al., 1977; Bates et al., 1979) that will be develop down below in detail.

2.3 The Interpretive Stage

Toddlers are still unaware of their actions' communicative value and thus unable to communicate a clear intention (Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996; Bates et al., 1979). Their communicative behaviors consist of vocal tones, facial expressions, body movements, and scanning the environment with the eyes - but not for communication. The adult is the one who interprets the toddler's behaviors, sees them as communication, and responds (Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996; Bates et al., 1979). The more the adult responds to toddlers and interprets their behaviors, the greater the chances that the toddler will understand the meaning of communication and produce the behaviors necessary for communication (Bates et al., 1979).

At this stage, the baby seems to be communicating with their environment, yet the communication is purely technical and meaningless. When does communication become significant? Only when the adult responds to the baby's gestures does the baby begin to develop communicative intent.

The baby communicates through the senses: sight - focusing and shifting their gaze on what is happening; hearing - listening to voices and can recognize familiar voices; smell - the baby knows how to recognize the mother's smell; taste - knowing the taste of the milk, and touch - recognizing the caregiver's touch. The senses are essential in making the initial connection and very significant in the subsequent process of acquiring reading and writing in Hebrew.

2.4 The Communicative Intention Stage

At this stage, dramatic changes occur in the quality of the toddler's communication stemming from the dramatic development in the cognitive and neuro-visual sphere (Dromi, 1993).

The toddler is now aware of their ability to use the adult as an agent for action. For this purpose, they use gestures, vocal productions, and intonation when they wish to state or demand something. During this stage, the "turn-taking" behavior develops between the toddler and their partners in the interaction. This behavior comprises responses, such as gaze, facial expression, vocalization, and body movements (Stern, 1974). Subsequently, infants develop "turn-taking" in a conversation. The toddler responds to the mother's voice by uttering sounds and maintains a form of dialogue (Stern, 1974).

As a result of the neuro-visual development, the toddler can now alternate their gaze between the caregiver and the object and vice versa (Bates et Al., 1977; Bates et al., 1979; Paparella & Kasari, 2004; Prendergast & McCollum, 1996). This ability is one of the most significant milestones in the toddler's cognitive and lingo-communicative development (Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996). Gaze shifting induces the development of reciprocity in preverbal communication and the toddler-adult *joint attention* (JA) toward a specific object. In the interaction that includes joint attention, the toddler alternately shifts their gaze and attention from the mother to an object. Thus, there are three partners in interaction - the toddler, the object, and the mother (Landry & Chapieski, 1989; Paparella & Kasari, 2004). The process constitutes the most significant milestone in the child's development of communication and language skills, and their emotional and social development (Stern, 1977; Tait, 1987; Spencer et al., 1992; Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996; Paparella & Kasari, 2004).

The neuro-visual development is one of the most significant stages in a baby's linguistic and emotional development. Exposure to objects in their environment stimulates toddlers to learn objects' names and match an object to its name.

2.5 The One-Word Stage

Apart from the definition mentioned at the beginning of the chapter related to the first words development, we have to highlight that, at the one-word stage, the child characteristically uses a single word to express a whole idea. For instance, the child would say "kee" when they want their mother to pass them a cookie; or "car", when the intention is "The father drove away in the car". This stage is termed *holophrastic speech* (Bjorklund, 1989). In this stage, the child can see the connections between fixed vocal productions and the accepted meaning of said productions in the adults' language. For example, the child will use the voice production "kee" to express the word "cookie" (Dromi, 1993). By the beginning of the one-word stage (around 21 months), toddlers should be able to utter their first understandable word. An "understandable word" is defined as a "major voice production, perceived by the listener as an understandable word" (Dromi, 1987). An understandable word is not necessarily a common word in the language, but its meaning is known to the adult, e.g., the child would say "nana" when they want a banana). As they grow older, the toddlers utter more common words from the adults' language, and by the end of this stage (around the age of 42 months), they can combine words they know into short sentences (Dromi, 1987; 1993). For instance, "daddy car" (Daddy has a car).

In the one-word stage, the toddler builds their vocabulary via the process of acquiring meaning. The toddler begins to connect the nonverbal knowledge gained through their experience from the environment with the words representing objects, manifestations, concepts, events, and the connections between them (Dromi, 1997). All this reflects the toddler's ability to use the language as a symbolic system that represents contents (Dromi, 1987, 1993). In sum, communication and language development is an extraordinary and complex process. It is affected by multiple factors, such as biological

maturity, interaction with the environment, and cognitive processes (Kozminsky, 1994; Yoder & Warren, 2004). These processes include thinking, memory, ability to mimic, deductive reasoning, and planning (Bloom, 1981). Each developmental stage impacts the subsequent stage, in particular, and language acquisition in general (Berko-Gleason, 1993; Yoder & Warren, 2004).

2.6 Language, Social Interaction and Communication with Child

The concept of "interaction with child" refers to the situation wherein the mother or the child behaves or acts in a direct consequence of the other partner's behavior or action (Klein, Greenspan & Wieder, 1987; Sobelman-Rosenthal, 1999). These behaviors and actions contain a broad range of phenomena, and the partners in the interaction, i.e., the mother and the child, influence the other partner's responses, perceptions, and expectations, as well as the course of interaction itself (Ainsworth & Bell, 1973; Sobelman-Rosenthal, 2000).

The interaction is crucial due to its impact on the development in various spheres: cognitive, linguo-communicative, social, emotional, behavioral, and neurological (Ainsworth & Bell, 1973; Bruer, 1999; Carew, 1980; Clarke-Stewart, 1973; Feldman & Greenbaum, 1998; Klein, 1996; Marfo, 1988; NICHD, 1966). This interaction forms the basis for the achievements and skills the child will acquire in the future (Greenspan & Wieder, 1998).

The early social interaction begins with the infant's birth and occurs via the senses of touch, smell, and taste (Ainsworth & Bell, 1973) as soon as in the first hours of the infant's life. We can interpret the infants' movement patterns as a response to the adult's voice, representing the innate response to social behavior and the ability to convey social signals (Sander & Condon, 1974).

Around one month, the infant begins using different behaviors, e.g., eye contact, sound-making, facial expressions, and gestures - to communicate with their environment (Brazalton et al., 1974; Papousek & Papousek, 1986). These behaviors constitute signals to the parent who learns to read them, develop sensitivity to their needs and respond to them (Ainsworth & Bell, 1973). When parents have difficulty "reading" their child's signals, the quality of interaction might get impaired (Spitz, 1964; Richards, 1974).

To conclude: the infant's communication begins from birth through the senses and the response to the adult's voice. The adult learns to interpret the child's needs and respond to them. Communication develops gradually, first through signs and signals and later through eye contact (we will discuss it in detail in the next section). This initial elementary communication is crucial for the child's cognitive and communication development.

2.7 Interaction from the Perspective of the Child's Communication and Language

Trevarthen (1977; 1979; 1992) explains that the early interaction between the child and their mother is divided into two main periods: (a) pure social interaction and (b) interaction with and through the world of objects. "Pure" social interaction (primary intersubjectivity), the baby's first communication with the environment, develops first with the mother through eye contact, taste, and smell. This stage occurs in the first six to nine months; it consists of social connections between the infant and those surrounding them. During this period, the infant acquires essential skills manifested in behaviors such as eye contact with the mother, turn-taking, gestures, facial expressions, and sound-production (vocalization).

Related to mother-child interaction we highlight the following factors: eye-contact and the sound production.

Eye-contact: At the age of several weeks, the infant already makes an eye-contact with their mother (Stern, 1974). Usually, normally-developing infants interact with the mother via mutual eye contact. In this behavior, the mother and the infant gaze at each other "face-to-face" (Jaffe et al., 1973). This gazing was found to benefit the development of the infant's perception and thinking (Kagan as cited in Berger & Cunningham, 1981) and their level of physiological arousal (Coss, 1970). When eye contact occurs, the mother feels that the infant knows her; therefore, the expression of emotion and the quality of her behavior toward the infant change accordingly. Due to this change, the mother devotes more time to her child; it is tremendously beneficial for their interaction (Robson, 1967).

Berger & Cunningham (1981) divided eye contact development into five stages:

a) occurs within the first weeks after birth; initially, low levels of eye contact exist;

b) the first peak in the duration of the eye contact between the infant and the mother;

c) decrease in the duration of the eye contact between the infant and the mother;

d) the second peak (shorter than the first) in the duration of the eye contact between the infant and the mother;

e) another decrease in the duration of the mother-infant eye contact.

The first peak is most likely physiologically caused: maturity of the neuro-visual system enhances the infant's ability to process information and establish facial features (Berger & Cunningham, 1981). The second peak occurs in the transition to the stage of interaction with the world of objects. It is affected by environmental factors: social behaviors, e.g., the mother's sound

productions and facial expressions that give the infant additional reasons to focus on the mother's face (Berger & Cunningham, 1981). From four to six months, infants begin exploring their surroundings. The infant learns the connection between their behavior and the environment's reaction (Rondal, 1988). Hence, they focus their attention on different objects in their environment, and the duration and frequency of their eye contact with the mother decrease (Berger, 1980; Prendergast & McCollum, 1996).

Sound Production: One of the essential components in the early interaction between the mother and her child is sounds (Berger & Cunningham, 1981). Early vocal interactions contain the skill of "turn-taking" and are considered the main characteristics of mature linguistic interaction (Trevarthen, 1979). Initially, the mother utters sounds and listens to the infant's sounds. While producing sounds, she tries to make the infant respond with a smile or a sound. In addition, the mother creates intervals in sound utterances to allow the infant time to respond. Also, she responds to the child's every sound utterance and attempts to expand the dialogue. Over time the infant learns their role and participates in the dialog (Snow, 1977a; 1977b; Masataka, 1993). Dialog attests to the reciprocity between the parties participating in the interaction (Greenspan & Wieder, 1998; Sobelman-Rosenthal, 2000). Through reciprocal communication, the child becomes exposed to the characteristics of the language and learns the principles of the dialogue. That contributes to language development (Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996; Sobelman-Rosenthal, 2000).

Infant's sound production impacts the mother's perception of them (Bloom & Lo, 1990), while the mother's sounds impact the infant's behavior (Berko-Gleason, 1993). During the interaction, the mother's tone of voice with the infant changes according to the infant's age and expressions. The sounds the mother produces in response to the infant's displays of joy are different

from those she makes in response to the sounds expressing distress (Papousek et al., 1985). Infants' voice production begins to decrease approximately at five to six months. At this age, the infant begins to take more interest in the world of objects and transitions to the subsequent stage.

2.8 Interaction with and through the world of objects (Second Intersubjectivity)

Around six months, the interaction becomes more focused on objects and less on people. At this stage, a decrease in vocalization occurs (Berger, 1980; Krakow & Kopp, 1983; Prendergast & McCollum, 1996), and, as mentioned, the eye contact diminishes as well because the infant begins to explore the environment, focusing less on people (Paparella & Kasari, 2004; Penman et al., 1983). Following this change, the mother changes her manner of speaking to the infant from voicing their internal state and feelings to discussing their actions and what happens in the outside world surrounding them (Penman et al., 1983).

This stage involves neuro-visual, motor, and cognitive development that enables the child to grasp and manipulate objects and explore the surroundings (Berko-Gleason, 1993). During this stage, the infant succeeds in alternately shifting their gaze from a specific object to their mother and vice versa. They "as though" invite the mother to focus jointly on objects that interest them; the state of joint attention thus develops. The joint-attention process is a complex activity requiring simultaneous attention both to the person and object. Hence, it contains physiological and cognitive components of development (Tomasello & Farrar, 1986). In joint attention, the infant follows the mother's pointing toward objects, observes her, picks them up, and passes them to her. The infant's actions are accompanied by the mother's talking and responding. Such a caregiver's behavior allows the infant to be an active participant in the

interaction and facilitates the infant's acquisition of communication strategies and skills (Collis, 1977; Tait, 1987). Joint attention in interactions is meaningful. It boosts socioemotional, and communication and language development (Spencer et al., 1992).

This development serves as evidence of the budding understanding of the idea of communication, i.e., the ability to reach goals and engage another person via communication. It is the crucial stage in the development process of communication and language (Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996; Sobelman-Rosenthal, 2000; 2002).

To conclude, early interaction comprises two stages: "pure" social interaction and interaction with and through the world of objects. In the process of infants' normal development, these two stages are interconnected, and the infant learns to attend both to the people and objects surrounding them (Trevarthen, 1992). This combined attention constitutes the most meaningful stage in developing communication and language skills (Dromi & Ringwald-Frimerman, 1996).

2.9 Interaction from the Perspective of Mediation

The cognitive-developmental approach based on Jean Piaget's theory (1967; 1974) views development as a process that occurs through direct interaction of the organism with the environment. Feuerstein (1977) and other researchers after him (Carew, 1980; Feuerstein et al., 1979; Klein, 1985; White et al., 1979) ascribed great importance to the intermediate factor, mediating between the developing organism (the child) and the environment. The mediator is an adult (the child's relative, as a rule) who is part of the child's environment influencing their development. Carew's review of studies (1980) shows that being around an adult who teaches them (explains, guides, and

instructs) directly influences children's intellectual development. Moreover, Vygotsky (1978) attributed significance to the reciprocal adult-child relations in the process of development. Vygotsky referred to the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD) concept. The term refers to the gap between the level of actual development, manifested in problem-solving the child performs independently, and the level of potential development, determined by problem-solving under the adult's guidance or in collaboration with capable peers of the same age. Efficient mediation leads the child to the fulfillment of their potential. The adult, aiming to advance the child, intervenes in the processes of problem-solving by providing a "scaffolding", i.e., support appropriate for their developmental level.

Feuerstein developed the theory of *cognitive modifiability* and the theory of *mediated learning* (Feuerstein, 1977; Feuerstein et al., 1979). In his opinion, cognitive development is affected by two learning processes:

1. The process occurs through direct exposure to stimuli. It begins with birth and continues throughout the individual's whole life. Learning occurs directly and without mediation through senses, influenced by the properties of the stimuli.

2. The process occurs via adult mediation. The adult's role is to organize different stimuli for the child. In this type of learning, the adult enriches the interaction between the child and the environment by employing specific behaviors which influence the child's development. Through mediated learning experience, the child becomes more sensitive to a stimulus and can benefit more from it.

Klein (1996; 1998) provided an empirical definition of five basic behaviors vital for the learning process in the adult-child interaction. The five behaviors are *focusing*, *excitement*, *expansion*, *encouraging the sense of personal ability*, and *behavior regulation*:

Focusing (purpose and reciprocity): The adult's attempt to focus the toddler's attention on something or someone in the surroundings (Klein, 1998). This attempt to mediate between the child and the environment includes filtering, organizing, and amplifying the features of the occurrence while focusing the child's attention on stimuli (Feuerstein et al., 1979). Reciprocity is evident in the adult's willingness to modify and steer the mediation according to the child's assimilation. The adult performs the acts consciously, consistent with the child's needs and abilities (Tzuriel, 1998). Focusing is a conscious and active process consisting of three stages (Klein & Sobelman-Rosenthal, 2002):

a. The adult is aware of the need to create a situation wherein the toddler can experience different stimuli (chosen by the adult) in the environment.

b. Different and diverse behaviors to stimulate focus. The caregiver should ensure that the toddler will experience and feel the planned stimuli, e.g., giving a flower to the child to feel and smell it; slowing down or repeating sounds or words to ensure the child hears them.

c. Attempt to ensure compatibility between the caregiver's plan of action and the toddler's response. The adult should direct their behavior toward making the child feel the stimuli as planned. Such guided behavior amplifies the adult's sensitivity toward the child and their ability to read the child's verbal and nonverbal signals.

To assure consistency between the child's will and the adult's mediated goal, we must follow the toddler's initiative. For example, when the child tries to reach for a specific game, the adult should move it closer, call out the child's name and show the game features.

Excitement (meaning): To retain the child's attention, achieved through the behavior of focusing, we should express excitement to the child. Excitement includes the adult's different behaviors aimed at reinforcing the feeling the

child experiences about the stimulus that fixated their attention in the process of focusing (Klein, 1985). The principle of excitement refers to perspectives of the approaches, values, and customs that the stimulus holds for the adult. The adult imparts a meaning other than perceived and assimilated by the child through the senses. This way, the child learns to expect a connection between the stimulus and the meaning they should adapt to it (Rand & Feuerstein, 2001).

Excitement contains several behaviors, such as expression of admiration, changes in facial expressions, changes in intonation, increasing stimulation through sound utterance, etc. Excitement can be achieved verbally, e.g., "This is Dad's car."; "Here is a beautiful ball!".

The excitement principle operates on several levels. On the cultural level, the mediator conveys social values to the child, thus ensuring cultural and spiritual continuity. On the individual level, the excitement principle grants the child the need and motivation to seek meaning, other than that the mediator processes for them. The child understands they should look for causal relationships between the stimuli and the matching meaning. A child deprived of the excitement principle views events as isolated experiences, unattached to those preceding them. As a result, the child will experience apathy and a lack of pleasure in learning. The principle is essential for the child's ability to develop the need to construct their own meaning of their life and actions (Feuerstein et al., 1979; 2001).

Expansion (transcendentalism): This behavior refers to the mediation that, apart from satisfying the child's immediate needs, aims also at more far-reaching goals in time and space (Feuerstein et al., 1979; 2001). Through the "expansion" behavior, the child acquires knowledge and understanding in broad areas that allow them more flexibility in cognitive ability (Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1993).

The expansion process includes behaviors such as providing explanations, pointing out connections between objects, processes, people, etc., presenting analogies, sequences, and more. The child learns to distinguish connections between experiences they undergo in the present with the past or future (Klein, 1985). Examples of expansion are: while eating, the adult can teach the child different tastes, textures, colors, etc.

Children exposed to the mediation of the excitement principle will not see the information given to them as adequate. Their system of needs and expectations expands beyond the primary goals of the interaction, and they know how to look for mediation that will lead to additional information and new ways (Klein, 1985). This foundation serves as the basis for developing different cognitive processes, such as generalization (Feuerstein et al., 1979).

Encouraging the sense of personal ability: In encouragement mediation, an adult underscores the children's ability for achievement. The mediator refers to the child's success and reflects on it, noting the components of the behavior that led them to the success (Feuerstein et al., 1979; Klein, 1985). For instance, "Good, you've assembled the puzzle! It fits exactly!" In an effective encouragement mediation, two components are present. First, the child needs to possess the tools and strategies which will aid them in collecting the information necessary for successful task fulfillment. For example, moving a piece of the game close to its designated place will help the child cope with the task they have not mastered yet (Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1993). The mediator should interpret the meaning of children's achievement for them because low-functioning children do not always understand the difference between success and failure and might underestimate their self-worth (Feuerstein et al. (2001).

Experiencing the feeling of personal ability encourages the child to carry on and act to succeed. The child who has not experienced success will not feel

the need for success and hence will not want to make an effort to succeed (Klein, 1985).

Behavior Regulation: The act of supervision and control over the child's behavior. The caregiver conveys a message to the child about the need to pause and think before acting (Klein, 1985). The adult teaches the child the awareness of necessary efficient behavior regulation according to the characteristics of the task at hand. The child needs to find an optimal balance between speed, efficiency, and precision per task requirements. Such mediation is done in diverse ways, e.g., an invitation to the child to mimic - via demonstration of specific behavior while emphasizing the components of the action essential for analysis (Feuerstein et al., 1979). In behavior regulation, the key emphasis is on planning the cognitive elements necessary for goal achievement before task performance, followed by a review of the action components (Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1993).

Mediation toward behavior regulation and control curbs impulsive responses and streamlines the use of intelligence. The mediator's function is to convey the message to the child about getting organized and thinking before taking action (Klein, 1985).

This chapter focuses on the significance of interactions with the child, and their cognitive, communicative, and emotional development. Good initial interaction is a basis for the achievements and skills that the child will acquire in the future.

Reading and writing, in which the child will experience success or failure, are among the elementary skills that will take the child from the world of children to the world of adults. We will discuss these skills in detail below.

2.10 The Conventions of the Hebrew Language

Hebrew is a Semitic language from the family of Afro-Asian languages, known as the language of the Jews and the Samaritans. It has been the official language of the State of Israel since 1921 when Hebrew was declared the official language in Israel alongside the English and Arabic languages.

For many past generations, the Hebrew language existed as a written language, a language of prayer and religious study. In the wake of massive Jewish immigration to Israel, it was necessary to find a uniform language that merchants and all immigrants would speak.

After the initial revival of the language in the country, numerous difficulties emerged, especially around the lack of many words of nouns and actions in everyday life. The greatest achievement in the history of the renewal of the Hebrew language can be attributed to Eliezer Ben Yehuda and his friends - they invented and even borrowed many words from other languages and introduced them into the world of the Hebrew language.

The Hebrew alphabet is also undergoing many changes. The ancient Hebrew alphabet was a version of the Phoenician alphabet, as was customary throughout the Land of Israel. The Phoenician script is a development of the Proto-Canaanite alphabet, common throughout the Land of Israel - Canaan from the 17th century BC. The origins of the Proto-Canaanite alphabet are not entirely clear, and it has been suggested that it developed from the Egyptian hieroglyphic script.

עברית
x z a g o

Figure 2. The ancient Hebrew script

The Phoenician alphabet eventually evolved into the Greek script and, subsequently, into the Latin script and the Cyrillic script. The Aramaic script was quite close to the Phoenician script, but its letters were square. Modern Hebrew writing is a development of the square Aramaic alphabet adopted by the inhabitants of Judah in the 4th century BC (Gonen, 1970).



Figure 3. The Hebrew alphabet

The square alphabetic script is written from right to left and used only in books and writings. In everyday writing, circular handwriting based on Aramaic writing is used, characterized by round lines, and intended for use in fast everyday writing. The Hebrew script contains 22 letters; five final letterforms appear only at the end of the word. Also, there are written notations of five vocalizations. Each vocalization has two forms of writing used according to the Hebrew grammar and writing rules. They are marked under the letters and create the syllabic sound.

The Hebrew language of today is rich in idioms, lingo, and numerous words borrowed from English and other Semitic languages (Arabic and Aramaic). It is also affected by many languages from the Western world. Hebrew is spoken in every home and taught in all public and academic institutions in Israel.

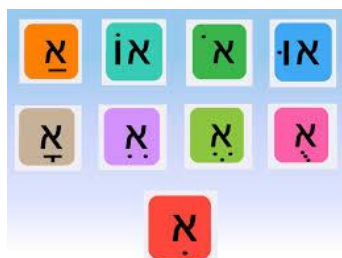


Figure 4. The hebrew vowels (Odia Levinger)

2.11 The Hebrew Teacher as Mediator

The general approach to the teacher's role rests on the notion that the particular student's thinking and learning patterns, and any individual's generally, cannot be changed. The teacher is considered someone who can and should transfer knowledge to the student based on their existing thinking patterns and learning abilities (Feuerstein, 1991). According to Piaget (as cited in Feuerstein, 1991) the changes in human thinking patterns are perceived as physiological and interactive, a product of neurological development combined with environmental stimuli that penetrate and shape the brain system via teachers who function as *knowledge agents*. All of these affect the child's development. Teachers, parents, or other stimulating agents do not have the power to change the developmental process, only realize it. The difference between students becomes evident to the teacher when they study in the same class, learn the same subjects, and belong to the same age group.

As stated, this variability is affected by each student's genetic variability. Due to this fact, students' abilities appear to be permanent features not given to change. This perception of the individual, and the student, does not encourage the teacher to aspire to change the student's cognitive structural change. The teacher does not see themselves as someone who is supposed to change the student's thinking skills. Hence, sometimes, the teacher loses

motivation to invest in the student. In addition, because of the large number of students (30-40) in the class, the teacher cannot give the student what he needs.

Because the teacher does not see themselves as destined to change the student, when encountering a struggling student, they will cite their inability to change the student because they do not possess appropriate tools. For that reason, the difference between humans, in general, and children, in particular, justifies a change in teaching approach. There is a need for a differential approach to teaching different students in the same classroom. The teacher must know that the teaching process does not merely comprise knowledge transfer; it must strive to make the student an independent learner. The teacher's role is not limited to transferring knowledge, albeit via a successful teaching methodology. Due to substantial variance in nature, perceptual abilities, and emotional state among students in the class, mere knowledge transfer by the teacher as a knowledge agent may encounter numerous difficulties. Therefore, the teacher must become a mediator who shapes students' learning and thinking skills, gives them tools, and encourages them to become independent learners.

This approach to learning is highly effective because, in an age of rapid changes in the world of knowledge and frequent technological and scientific innovations, the expertise passed down from the teacher to the child today will become obsolete when the child graduates from school. This situation requires students to acquire thinking and learning tools that will allow them after school to update their knowledge and adapt effectively to the changes occurring in the emerging world of knowledge. Furthermore, due to many students' situations in the class, one way to allow the teacher to respond to each student is to turn the teacher from a knowledge agent into a mediator who would enable students to become independent learners.

According to Feuerstein (1988), a teaching method of experiential imparting of learning and thinking skills is called "experience in communicative learning" based on the theory of structural cognitive variability. The structural cognitive variability theory perceives an individual as a steerable creature with automatic plasticity, a capacity for self-change. The basis of the capacity for change is the human ability to choose, which frees him from a deterministic dependence on the ecological or physiological state. The capacity for change itself is a product of learning processes. It safeguards the individual's survival in the reality of an ever-changing environment. People are capable of change. A person's self-variability is not related to specific skills or acquisition of certain content but an ability of structural cognitive change. Structural change means a change in a person's thinking patterns regardless of the substance of thinking. Therefore, humans are variable creatures who can break free from the objective barriers they encounter. The fact supporting this theory is that the vast difference between humans is difficult to explain based solely on genetics. This fundamental fact is also one of the most notable weaknesses in Piaget's (as cited in Feuerstein, 1991) theory. Piaget does not provide a convincing explanation for the immense diversity among human beings regarding their thinking styles, especially their level of functioning.

According to Piaget (as cited in Feuerstein 1991), intelligence develops from the individuals' unmediated contact with the stimuli provided by the environment. With environmental stimuli dictated by internal maturity, the stages must be constant. On the other hand, the mediated learning theory mentioned before, and based on Feuerstein (1991) theories assumes that cognitive achievements themselves were the ability to process data is a product of the human medium. Therefore, even if we take, for example, two people of the same age and with a similar genetic background, there may be abysmal differences between them due to the different quality and amount of mediation

each one of them received. Contrary to Feuerstein's 1988 approach, the individual has a role of stimulation like any other stimuli in the world that cause schema changes but has no mediating role. The mediator-teacher is the central factor in human development per this theory. That supports our claim that the school may change the flexibility of the learning processes by introducing intensive mediation. The mediating processes responsible for the emerging cognitive structures can change the learner's mental flexibility at all levels and stages.

The first exposure the child encounters is direct exposure to the sources of the stimulus. The parent exposes the child from infancy to objects, sounds, tastes, and smells. This exposure causes a change in children's interactions with the environment until they grow up with diversity and experience changes in their behavior. It is consistent with Piaget's general approach (1966) that viewed human cognitive development as a result of interactions stimuli of the environment. Per Piaget, exposure to knowledge is random and constant. The individual encounters the stimulus, and perceptual-sensory absorption occurs, for instance, when you want to cross the road, and suddenly a car appears. The cognitive system will immediately use the received information and respond accordingly.

The second exposure type is mediated learning - via an agent who conveys to the learner the information regarding the environmental stimulus. It's usually a parent or any other caregiver. The mediator is guided by their intentions and culture, and emotional world. The mediator makes a choice and selects a particular segment they deem most appropriate, then makes another choice and shapes the chosen stimulus in a certain way. Through mediation, the child acquires normal behaviors, learning systems, and operational structures. Using the same "thinking tools", they can process the content received in direct learning.

2.12 Difficulties and challenges faced by the teacher in Israel

In examining the teaching methods and the resources provided to the students during the lesson, we need to explore the ratio between the number of teachers per number of students in the class and whether it affects the quality of teaching.

An educational study by the University of Michigan found that small classes in elementary school, especially in kindergarten and first grade, significantly affect students' later achievements. The senior lecturer of education, Professor Constantopoulos Spiros, conducted the study and published it in the Journal of American Education. As stated, the study shows that small classes in elementary school affect students' future achievements. However, the effect is particularly noticeable in struggling students who are more successful in middle school if they have learned in small classes of 13-17 students in the first grade. Furthermore, the attention the students receive from the teachers in elementary school dramatically affects their ability to deal with academic problems later on.

Menuhin and Shapiro (1983) found that a small number of students increases the chances of a closer acquaintance between the teacher and the student, thus reducing the feeling of alienation and increasing the student's sense of belonging to the class and the school. In addition, reducing the number of students allows the teacher to control, monitor and quickly respond to an incident of physical or emotional harm to others. Class size significantly impacts student achievement in the final annual exams, especially for young people studying in small groups. In the latest Economic Journal issue, a new study published in Great Britain by the Royal Organization for Social Economics investigated the exam results that covered about 7,000 Danish students who took French lessons. The study's findings show that the smaller the class, the higher the students' grades in the same subject. In addition, the

study claims that weak students are the primary beneficiaries of the effect of reducing the size of the students in the class. The current study found positive, consistent, and significant centers of influence and advantage in classes where learning occurs in small groups or individuality.

In conclusion, it is worth noting that while there will always be gaps and individual differences between children, small-group learning increases the likelihood that the teachers will be able to reconcile different children's intellectual abilities, interests, strengths, and needs when teaching a small group of students.

The Israeli education system has between 30-40 students per class in regular elementary school classes. Blass (2008) claims that it is only possible to improve the teaching and learning achievements in the educational system in Israel and bring it to the level of advanced and prosperous countries through a dramatic decrease in the number of students in the class. The main explanation for the connection between class size and academic achievement is that the larger the class, the less the teacher can pay personal attention to the students and, as a result, apply appropriate teaching methods to each student. Moreover, discipline problems occurring in the classroom and consuming precious teaching resources are more significant in larger classes. In addition, the Henrietta Sold Institute (1995) discussed the economic value of fewer students in class. However, the main conclusions of this review indicate that class size is not the only relevant variable affecting student achievement. Therefore, it is problematic to draw a direct and unequivocal conclusion regarding the effect of class size on academic achievement.

Nevertheless, most studies have found that small classes have advantages over large classes. The positive effect of small classes is evident for students in classes of 20 and below. Small classes positively affect academic achievements, mainly in the lower grades and especially among weak students.

In addition, small classes significantly positively affected students' attitudes toward studies, their behavior, and the climate in the classroom.

Also, small classes positively affect teachers. Small-size classes lower teachers' emotional pressure and increase their satisfaction levels. However, the financial price involved in reducing classes is very high, and it is not indisputable that this price justifies the benefit of reducing class size. Also, teachers can temporarily reduce the number of students in class, for instance, in subjects that require more intensive interaction between the teacher and the student.

2.13 Integrating Teaching Support in the Classroom

This concept includes assistant students or volunteers -unqualified teachers who can serve as an auxiliary force in a class with many students. It would allow the school to integrate special-education students or students with special needs into regular classes. According to Albaroz (2009), in recent years, there has been a rapid growth in the number of teaching assistants working in regular schools in the United Kingdom. Teaching assistants' work was to support the education of children with special needs; however, in recent years, the role of teaching assistants has been changed to include all students in the class. Trained teaching assistants who work in cooperation with the class teacher and receive tailored training can assist teachers working with elementary school children with literacy and language problems and improve their academic achievements in language and in general. In addition, according to Albaroz (2009), a teaching supporter's presence in the classroom can facilitate students' involvement in learning and social activities, thus contributing to the child's resilience and self-image and enhancing the sense of belonging in the classroom. Therefore, the teaching supporter's involvement requires them to be skilled in facilitating interaction and aware of cases when students need to

know how to make choices independently. It means that the teaching supporter or assistant must know when to help the student and when to let them face the issue alone to prevent developing dependence and allow the student to cope independently in the future, both academically and socially.

Albaroz (2009) states that teaching assistants can promote social and emotional adaptation. However, the limited evidence from the academic literature indicates that teaching assistants fail in therapeutic tasks of supporting children with behavioral, emotional, and social problems. Therefore, employing teaching assistants allows teachers to engage students in creative activities and, concurrently, devote more time to working with small groups and individually.

Meschit and Mevrch (2013) examined the presence of students as a supplementary workforce for the teacher in the classroom. They found no clear evidence of the extent of efficacy and advantage of a yet unqualified teacher's help. However, the training such student teachers obtain contributes to the development of teamwork and experience in the field. In Israel, the teacher training program mandates students' integration into schools during their studies. However, research has yet to explore the effect of the student as a teaching supporter on the quality of the teaching processes and students' achievements compared to the traditional learning model.

In conclusion, the present study prioritizes working with students in small groups by reducing the ratio of students to the teacher or another adult in the class. Though it cannot serve as a central tool for improving academic achievements and optimizing the climate in large-size classes, it will enhance the teaching supporters' competence in the long run, reduce teacher dropout and improve veteran teachers' professionalism and stature.

2.14. Conclusions

Examining the teacher's role in teaching Hebrew reveals that their role as mediators is essential - they also identify students' strengths and develop the child's motor-sensory skills. Based on these strengths, teachers form an adaptive experiential and multisensory program or group students with similar sensory abilities. Reading acquisition is complex and continuous; the teacher must help the student break through the barriers. Hence, the teacher must be knowledgeable in different teaching methods and educational processes that contribute to real change and the learning process in the classroom. The teacher's specialization in mediation processes will make him a better teacher. Besides expertise in the subjects studied and productive teaching methods, the teacher will know the cognitive platform on which the knowledge is built and can design lesson plans suitable for students' limitations and differences. The peak of mediation activity will occur when the student can mediate and learn independently. The most evident challenge is studying in a large class with 30-40 diverse and even challenging students; logically, the path to their success is more straightforward in a class with a small number of students. The issue, however, is more complex, and the class size is only one of the relevant variables because a differentiated and adapted work program is necessary even in a small class. Reducing the number of students in classes is costly; therefore, employing teaching assistants, e.g., an aide, a student, or a teaching supporter in the regular class, can slightly alleviate the teacher's workload. The integration of the teaching supporter in the class should be done carefully with full cooperation between the class educator and the teaching supporter through guidance and training. Regarding teaching Hebrew, the teaching supporter should know how to support the child to help them learn

to read independently, understand what they read, write, and express themselves according to the laws of the language.

CHAPTER 3

LANGUAGE- THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE, READING AND WRITING

Understanding the development of speaking and listening is essential for child educators for several reasons: First, most children learn to speak with ease and fluency in their home language by around the age of four, indicative of the child's learning capacity. Secondly, speaking and listening are format means of learning at school and in the world beyond school. Finally, every adult is concerned with further developing child oral abilities to ensure they grow up confident and competent communicators with a range of people and in various situations.

This chapter will first deal with the structure of language, its characteristics, and the language knowledge areas, followed by the issue of parent-child communication, and later will deal with reading and writing which are the most important and significant cornerstones for a child, in the first years of school.

3.1 The Steps in Learning a Language

Language is a communicative means based on a complex system of symbols and rules, making it possible to encode and organize information in manifold meanings. It is customary to distinguish between sign language and the concept or content marked with it, which can be realistic or abstract. Humans are communicative social creatures, and language serves as a tool for conveying messages. It can express desires and needs, receive and provide information, and participate in experiences. (Segal, 2003).

The means of communication does not comprise only the use of voice. The person can also convey messages through gestures, mimicry, dance, or song. Therefore, language is a system of symbols through which we can communicate information quickly and flexibly (Segal, 2003).

Ferdinand de Saussure (1959, as cited in Segal, 2003), the father of modern linguistics, tried to expose the organizing principle of human communication. He called speech "parole" and linguistic behavior - "lang" (a language in French). *Parole* is the realization of language through the individual's speech organs in certain communicative circumstances, whereas *lang* is all the agreed-upon laws of language (Segal, 2003).

Chomsky (1965) added to Saussure's diagnosis of the psycholinguistic aspect, the intellectual processes such as memory and perceptual thinking. Chomsky (1965) distinguished between competence and performance. Competence is a system of language rules stored in the human brain subconsciously. This system is related to individual thought processes that constitute each person's potential ability.

Language is a system of signals and symbols subject to syntax naturally created, known as natural language. There are about 10,000 human languages around the world and countless local dialects. Language is a process in which human beings' ability to use languages that enable communication between human beings and cognition and insight have developed.

3.2 The Connection between the Oral Language and the Written Language

The language may be verbal or nonverbal, spoken or nonpracticed, e.g., the sign language of the deaf. Speech is the most common realization of language. According to Rom (2003), language has four characteristics:

1. *Symbolism*: The principle underlying human language relies on a system of symbols. The language uses a system of agreed-upon and fixed signs that denote objects from the tangible world, e.g., chair, omelet, clock, etc., or abstract concepts like love or leadership. Nir (1990) argues that the word is an example of the use of the symbolism principle. The word is defined as a fixed

sequence of sounds that has meaning. The sounds in the word are not linked to the external properties of the object/concept it communicates, for example, the word "cat" and the cat's character. Put differently, the connection between the word and its content is arbitrary and abstract.

2. *Conventions*: Linguistic signs should be accepted by the users' community. Because linguistic signs are arbitrary, there must be agreement among the language speakers on the contents that a sign represents. The speakers take it upon themselves to agree on a system of signs with a fixed relationship between different linguistic signs. The agreement refers to a fixed and accepted code known only to those who master the language (Zor, as cited in Rom 2003).

3. *Complexity*: Owens (1996) explains that human language is based on the principle of joining linguistic signs into grammatical structures that produce complex meaning. Humans have a unique ability to form endless sign combinations inventively, thus creating a great variety of meanings. Hence, anyone can understand and express new ideas. The laws of word formation in a language, which combine and form linguistic components into grammatical structures, are fixed and unchanging. The range and manner of their application are open and integrated into a speaker's speech performance under specific circumstances.

4. *Voice*: The voice is the most common expression tool for language performance in speaking. Spoken language is the most effective of the languages used by human beings. Human voices are versatile. They are executed by the speech organs such as lips, tongue, palate, vocal cords, etc. (Rom, Segal, Tzur 2003)

In conclusion, it is safe to say that the characteristics of a language comprise symbols with a fixed sequence and pre-known rules. The speaker can express new ideas without breaking the rules.

Pragmatics: The pragmatics, according to Owens (1992), investigates the function of interlocutors within a defined reality, in specific circumstances, and different cultures. It emphasizes the rules that guide the use of language in its social and media context. The minimal unit of analysis used in pragmatic discussion is expression. The content (locution) and the use made of the same content, that is, the interpretation of the content.

According to Nir (1989), the coding of expression (the choice of his words) is an outgrowth of the media conditions that accompany its formation, such as: who the recipients are, what their age, status, understanding, and circumstances are environmental conditions, occupation, subject matter, degree of formality and more.

The dependence on media circumstances is twofold. On the one hand, the same statement may have different meanings in different contexts. Thus the expression "I am with you" can be interpreted as consent, condolences, and more. On the other hand, the same intention, for example, a request for silence, may take different forms of expression, such as: "I speak now.", "Now we all sit quietly," You can ask for silence "also in a nonverbal way (finger on the mouth), etc.

The philosopher Grice (1975) found that exchanges between partners in discourse are based on their willingness to maintain the cooperative principle.

The principle of cooperation is applied through the following rules:

- **quantity:** provide the right measure of information;
- **quality:** provide true and proven information;
- **relevance:** provide information relevant to the topic in question.

How to provide unambiguous information: According to Grice (1975), when these rules are breached, the recipient realizes that the speaker intends to deliver another message. For example, if the answer to the question "Do Moses and

Sarah divorce?" is "No comment", the answer may imply that there is more than a shred of truth in the hypothesis inherent in the question.

Register

Schlesinger (1996) explains that after a child masters a particular vocabulary and basic syntactic structures, they must become accustomed to the "rules of the game" of the society around them and adapt their way of expression to social circumstances with a common denominator.

Berman and David (1999) add that the ability to choose alternative modes of expression according to use is called "integrative ability" such as the communication channel or the level of formality (lecture, intimate conversation, etc.) and also depending on users' social status and level of education.

A register is an alternative form of expression termed "high" or "low" depending on the commonly used expressions. The register may be manifested in syntaxes, such as the use of passive voice (high register), the dictionary - use of slang (low register), or the phonological field, such as slow and measured speech (high register) (Rom, Segal, Zor, 2003).

The ability to adapt the register to the discourse requirements appears as early as preschool age: the child simplifies their speech talking to a younger brother or switches to the high register expressions while telling a story. The ability to maintain consistency in choosing a register and at the same time combine register shifts in a flexible way for various rhetorical needs - is evident only in the late school years (Berman & Ravid, 1999)

3.3 The Partners for the Language Events

Reading is an almost universal personal ability, substantial in any elementary field. At any given time around the world, billions of people read what millions of others wrote. However, this seemingly trivial ability is of no minor importance. This acquired ability – probably the most significant in the first years of school - results from complex personal and social efforts, and some people always have reading deficiencies (Wolf & Cohen, 2001).

About 15% of the children do not succeed in mastering this skill despite guided and adapted teaching methods to instill reading (Pollatsek & Rayner, 1989, as cited in Wolf, 2001).

According to Richards & Rogers (2014), it seems reasonable that before we start teaching language, we should decide on the linguistic content. Once the content is selected, it should be organized into units and taught in a rational sequence as we can see in the curriculum.

The method is standardization of methodology. Different approaches and methods reflect different understandings regarding the essential cornerstones of language proficiency. Hence, after choosing the study topics, one can work on teaching methods and incorporate enrichment activities and content. Only when teachers apply related techniques and practices, their methods can be called approaches.

There are several methods for teaching reading; however, they all stem from two main approaches:

- The code-based approach focuses on emphasizing the sounds and disassembling the structure of the word. The method is called "breaking the code" because reading acquisition begins with phonemes and graphemes and proceeds to a word structure and meaning. Per this method, pronouncing the

sound while reading contributes to the assimilation of the sound along with its components: the vowels and consonants (Aulstein as cited in Rom,2003).

- The “whole-language” approach centers on the global word and breaks it down to phonics, from which the pupil will later structure new words (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton & Johnson, 2004).

Both above methods stem from an assumption that until the age of six, a pupil has been exposed to and knows a vocabulary of many words using which he would be able to proceed to written language.

In 1943, the researcher Grace (1975) asserted that together with the semantic knowledge of a word and the knowledge of its auditory components, also orthographic memory should be practiced using kinesthetic sensory methods (Rom , 2003). It means that the emotion, the sense of touch, taste, and smell must become activated for the learning to take place more effectively and optimally.

According to the "whole-language" approach method, the written word is chosen by a pupil. A pupil observes as the teacher writes the word and pronounces it aloud while writing. Pronouncing the word stimulates the articular loop connected to the phonological loop (speech centers stimulation), and the writing of the word according to the kinesthetic memory (created while finger tracking), rather than by copying (Beck et al., 2002).

This method has no time limitation; writing whole words needs to be practiced repeatedly until the pupil can do it independently (Kramanski & Mevarech, 2004). However, as stated, this method is intended for working with a single pupil and is not suitable for working in a heterogenic class.

In the 21st century, there is a broad consensus on the importance of reading acquisition. The reading skill is "...the cornerstone of the child's success in school, and, naturally throughout their life. Without the ability to read well,

many opportunities for self-realization and successful livelihood will be lost" (Peled, 2008, p. 204).

The perceptions of teaching methods of reading acquisition are affected by the accumulating knowledge in the fields of linguistics, psychology, sociology, education, and more. An additional factor influencing the approach to reading instruction is teachers' beliefs and positions. Each reading method is based on a specific approach, a reading acquisition model. The approach dictates the method's characteristics - particularly its point of origin, processing stages, lingual characteristics, the perceptual process, and the extent of the practice in each stage of learning to read (Haber, 1990).

For about a century, many researchers have attempted to answer this question. From the 1970s onward, much information has been accumulated about reading. However, there are still conflicting opinions about the time of the onset of reading acquisition and its development.

- Reading is the acceptance of meaning by combining letters. Teach a child what each letter represents, and they will be able to read (Flesch, 1995).

- Reading is receiving a message. It is a distinct response to graphic signs, translating them into speech signs and understanding their meaning (Gibson, 1966).

- Reading is more than identifying graphic symbols or pronouncing written words; it is even more than understanding the meaning of what is written. Although a writer's words are stimulating for a reader, the meaning instilled in these words is the reader's interpreted meaning. Reading is more involved in bringing significance to a written page than drawing meaning from it. Therefore, reading is a process of understanding the meaning through correlating graphic symbols and the reader's pool of experiences (Dechant, 1970).

- Reading is a cognitive and emotional perception of a written message (Harris & Smith, 1986).

- Reading is communication, transmitting addressed information to the recipient. A proficient reader will infer or guess the message by sifting through various options. The selection and screening are based on the reader's linguistic knowledge. A reader refers only to a limited amount of visual information, the same amount that allows them to cancel out the options left from the screening in the early stages (Smith, 1971).

- Reading is a complex interaction between cognitive and lingual processes, with the help of which the reader builds in their mind a representation of the meaning of the message (Barnitz, 1986).

- Reading is an active learning process in which a reader directs their cognitive resources to learn from a text (Garner, 1987).

The reading process begins with a process of word perception. It is a cognitive process that begins with receiving a visual stimulus, meaning, and orthographic sequence and progresses to very complex cortical information processing that turns visual-orthographic information into phonological and linguistic. Teachers refer to this process as word-deciphering, whereas the professional literature calls it the dictionary accessibility process. The process of decoding a written word triggers and activates the semantic system that decodes it into linguistic units with lexical, semantic, and morphological significance (Mehigan, 2009).

According to Savage (2008), reading approaches refer to three models: bottom-up, top-down, and interactive.

All three models agree on the issue of the desired outcome, i.e., extracting meaning from the text, but differ as to the process the reader goes through until they attain understanding.

The bottom-up model refers to reading as a hierarchical process built from identifying the smallest sound units - letters and vocalizations in a word to meaning production. The text is what leads the reading (Savage, 2008).

The top-down model refers to reading as a hierarchical process built from producing meaning from the complete unit, from a word, from a sentence to identifying the letters making up the word. The reader leads the reading (Lyons, 2003).

The interactive model combines the two models and considers reading as a process that produces information from different sources simultaneously, from both the semantic aspects of the text and graphic and syntactic (Beck et al., 2002).

Reading instruction models are based on the interactive model. Many models involved in perceiving written words assume that reading is a combination of processes that occur in parallel and support each other. It is a cognitive process in which the reader produces and understands the order encoded in the writing signs: orthographic symbols. The essential difference between reading and hearing a language is in the input process: the perceptual process. In all other aspects, the spoken and the written languages are identical.

Therefore, according to Savage (2008), reading is done in two ways:

1. Transition from visual representation to meaning.
2. Transition from visual representation to phonological representation and meaning.

Written language begins with deciphering the letters to "linguistic literacy" - the ability to combine written and spoken language. The use of written language encourages meta-linguistic ability, i.e., implies thinking about the language.

Combining spoken language with written language, familiarity with syntactic structures, grammar, and discourse rules and combining them with meaningful and visually significant phonological representations all contribute and conduce to optimal reading.

3.4 Towards the Reading Acquisition Process - Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Pragmatics

Toward reading acquisition, the student must acquire the basic skills to decipher the letters and signs - the milestones for fluent reading and comprehension. In this sense, the student should develop the following skills: meta-linguistic, word awareness and pragmatic awareness.

Meta-linguistic Skills

Meta-linguistic skills allow a person to perform a reflection or manipulation of structure patterns of the spoken language. Unlike normal language operations, automated and meta-linguistic operations require conscious control processes. The control processes are:

* *Phonological awareness*: The ability to perceive a spoken word as a continuation of distinct (isolated) speech sounds/articulations. Difficulties in performing phonological manipulations at a young age predict difficulty in reading acquisition. Practicing phonological awareness in kindergarten fosters reading acquisition (Garner, 1987).

* *The division of words into syllables*: The ability to segment (divide) into syllables is a significant indicator in predicting difficulty in reading acquisition. Most five-year-olds can divide a spoken word into syllables. Some require mediation - as a bridge to the level of abstraction of the task. They, therefore,

tap on a table or arrange cubes according to the number of syllables in a word (Mehigan, 2009).

* *Distribution of phonemes*: Children can break down words into phonemes, acquiring mapping rules in reading.

* *Rhyming*: The ability to rhyme is evident as early as the age of three in the voice production process - the volume of the change in sound waves: at the beginning of a word, the volume of the waves is high; at the end of a word, a rhyme, the intensity of the waves weakens.

Means for developing a rhyming ability: reading aloud books with rhymes (e.g., by the Israeli children's author Datia Ben-Dor), completing sentencings with rhyming words.

* *Omission of phonemes*: This ability develops alongside the acquisition of reading and graphic-phonemic mapping rules:

Children at six years old can perform the task of omitting isolated phonemes. Children who have acquired the mapping rules in reading can omit a phoneme in a wording line (combination of consonants and vowels)

The language allows the creation of new words with different meanings by omitting phonemes in one word.

Word (Semantic) Awareness

Two prominent linguists, Michel Briel and Ferdinand de Saussure, founded modern semantics science. Briel coined the term in the late 19th century, and de Saussure developed the field in the early 20th century. We discuss the semantics in detail in the chapter on language.

Semantics deals with studying the meaning of words and expressions in language.

For a student to succeed in the reading process, they must know how to make several uses of the spoken language, which are the basis for beginning the reading process:

- Division of sentences into words. The child must know how to do it and know that a sentence consists of words. It can be taught via the following activities: arranging cubes according to the number of words in the sentence, clapping according to the number of sounds while saying the words, etc.

- The ability to distinguish between the word and its meaning - understand that there is no univalent relation between the sequence of the word sounds and the word's meaning. To understand – that a word is a basic lingual unit, representing a referent in reality (the context). For instance, bacteria are small, but the word for it is long, whereas a bear is big, but the word is short.

- The ability to repeat an expression – part of a sentence: skipping the first or last word. It requires audio recreation of the word sequence (Mehigan, 2009).

- Word definitions, categories, and word families, finding synonyms and antonyms.

- Syntactic awareness relates to the ability to control the output of a neurological mechanism responsible for arranging the words taken out from the lexicon into structural syntactic representations.

- Syntactic judgment: A child must know whether a sentence is structured correctly, concerning time, gender, order of words, etc.

- The ability to construct a sentence from a group of words.

- The ability to judge whether one has enough words to build a correct sentence and identify what is missing in the sentence.

- Double meaning – to recognize double-meaning sentences. For example: *She wanted the presidency more than him.* (a) She preferred the presidency over him; (b) She wanted the presidency more than he did (Garner, 1987).

Pragmatic Awareness

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that explores the understanding of natural language, and its main occupation is the effect of context on understanding meaning. The context in this sense must include extra-linguistic means such as social, environmental, and psychological reasons.

McKenna & Stahl (2009) argue that pragmatics refers to the ability to perform mental actions in producing a mechanism responsible for integrating personal attitudes into a broader set of rules through a combination of pragmatic laws.

In pragmatics, there is a difference between the "meaning of the sentence" and the "speaker's intention." The meaning of the sentence is literal, whereas the speaker's intention is the idea that the speaker is trying to convey. For the student to understand the context and meaning of the sentence, he must create a connection/coherence.

Coherence is a term from linguistics that deals with a textual feature perceived as meaningful and correctly structured in the eyes of speakers of the same mother tongue. Linguistically, the term coherence refers to a linguistic structure that includes more than one sentence. A sub-field that deals with the definition of conditions for coherence is called discourse research.

Coherence: connection and glue between sentences. An example: *The girl gets up in the morning. The girl attended school.* The child needs to know how to connect these two sentences.

Another example could be the following dialog:

-A: *"I'm hungry."*

-B: *"So let's go to the Carmel Market."*

While the second speaker's sentence can be interpreted as an offer to enter the market to buy food products, the true intention is to go to the market known for its falafel stand sellers and buy falafel (a popular dish in Israel).

According to Mahigan (2009), the ability to draw successful conclusions depends on the child's general knowledge of the world, and the ability to see a sociocultural context and understand the implicit meaning, not just what is directly expressed.

Several theories attempt to define the universal conditions under which a text would be considered coherent. These theories define conditions that are appropriate for any natural language; some stem from the fields of psychology or philosophy of language.

3.5 Instilling Reading

The reading process is connected with the spoken language acquisition. It requires essential linguistic knowledge of words, word structure, methods of formation, textual arrays, and meaning structures with their levels (words, combinations into sentences, and text). This knowledge forms the basis for learning to read. Put differently, the "spoken word" meets the "written word" through dictionary accessibility. Therefore, linguistic knowledge related to the spoken language serves the learner in written language acquisition. Written expression depends on the written language and, therefore, the learner should learn orthographic identification of words and develop a morphological ability.

According to Haber (1990), reading acquisition is done by two essential teaching methods: synthetic and analytical.

To understand the synthetic approach, we must first explain what syntax is. Syntax refers to the set of rules of a language that determines the correct word sequence in a sentence. Syntax has close ties to semantics because the meaning of a sentence depends on the syntactic structure. For example, the sentence "Danny ate the apple" is significantly different from "The apple ate Danny". The placement of the word "Danny" in the first sentence makes it the subject in that sentence. Because "eating" is an action in which the subject is the perpetrator, "Danny" is interpreted as the perpetrator. However, a subject is not necessarily the perpetrator in a sentence. For instance, in the sentence in the passive voice: "The apple is eaten", the subject is the apple that does not act.

The analytical approach: From a word to a building block, a decoding process, whole word decoding, breakdown into syllables, consonant-vowel combinations. It develops the method of teaching reading from whole words, phrases, or sentences and later disassembles linguistic units into building blocks.

3.6 Theories of Reading Acquisition

Helping children learn to read is one of the most meaningful tasks performed by elementary-school teachers. To serve students efficiently, we need to be familiar with the various theories of reading acquisition.

The alphabet method in reading instruction is the oldest, based on naming the letters learned in order.

Schwarz (1977) argues that even after centuries and after the invention of printing (1410), there was no substantial change in the methods of reading instruction. Learning began with reading letters by their name and their graphic identifications, was followed by combining the letter with

vocalizations, learning short words, and finally learning long and cumbersome words.

Heuser (1966) indicated that this method was intended for adults in elitist groups and proved effective. However, when young children could not read according to this method, they were perceived as lazy. According to Heuser (1966), only in the 16th century, did Valentin Ickelsamer (1542-1501) propose another alphabet method in Germany. His main contention was that speech sounds existed long before they were identified and presented as visual signs; therefore, the reading acquisition should start with pronunciation, not with graphic symbols.

According to Kehr (1889), the researcher Heinrich Stephanie (1761-1850) proposed the "pronunciation method" based on the phonetic pronunciation of each letter without saying the name of the letter, adding vocalizations and associations.

Stephanie's method was later "rectified" by artificial additions of describing the game in pictures of the speech organs, the position of the mouth, and the tongue at the time of pronunciation (Otto, 1980).

3.7 From the Synthetic Method to the Analytical

The transition from the synthetic method to the analytical began with learning whole words due to the perception that genuine reading is understanding the content and that every child has the right to learn with pleasure to understand what they are learning.

According to Gray (1987, 1956), John Amos Comenius was the first to propose learning by whole words represented by a picture (visual representation). He claimed: "By looking at the picture, the child knew how to read the words without using the tiresome spelling."

Only 130 years afterward, Friedrich Gedicke (1803-1750) wrote the first alphabet called "Intentional First", for children up to the age of 12 to learn and then recognize whole words arranged in alphabetical order, connect them to sentences, and read them with the help of guesswork and analogy, while the analysis is done at a later stage. The teacher will explain it by rotating identical components appearing in the written words (Mathews, 1966).

The Belgian Jean Joseph Jacotot, who left his chair as a professor of literature to teach reading to the poor children of Paris, suggested a list of one hundred words, from the easiest to the most difficult. After the child learns them, they are taught to disassemble letters and articulate and compose new words. This method is a form of compromise between the analytical and the synthetic methods known as "the method of normal words" (Keher, 1889, as cited in Chall, 1967).

Apart from the efforts to adapt the reading instruction method to the characteristics of the language structure, attempts have been made to help students by adapting the alphabet to differences between reading and spelling.

The best example is the ITA (Initial Teaching Alphabet) which contains 44 letters in English and only one pronunciation adapted for each of them. According to this method, the child practices until they understand effortlessly and then transitions to teaching per the traditional ABC method (Chall, 1967).

Many experts, not necessarily from the field of reading instruction, participated in developing reading instruction methods.

This development resulted in the necessity to foster reading acquisition and view reading instruction not as a mere acquisition of mechanical and technical skills but also as a pleasurable experience that enriches the young reader.

3.8 The First Methods of Education in Israel

Already at the age of three, the Jewish boy began to study in Europe. The first educational institution was a "*heder*" in which a rabbi taught. At that time the employed method of study was memorization of the Torah chapters (the Pentateuch) and the prayers.

At the end of the 19th century, with the first wave of immigration, new immigrants from Europe, Africa, and Asia arrived in Israel. Each immigrant spoke their mother tongue, and Hebrew was used for prayer and reading from the Torah only.

At that time, Eliezer Ben-Yehuda (see Chapter One) immigrated to Israel and settled in Jerusalem. Ben-Yehuda devoted his work to make Hebrew the language of everyday conversation. He edited newspapers and magazines in Hebrew.

In 1913 a heated debate known as the "War of Languages" broke out, and Ben-Yehuda participated in it. The controversy led to the victory and recognition of the Hebrew language as one of the three official languages of the Land of Israel. (Lam, 1999)

Eliezer Ben-Yehuda insisted that his family speak only Hebrew. He believed that the language of education and teaching should also be Hebrew. Ben Yehuda himself taught at the "Brit" school in Jerusalem. He wrote for a children's magazine and compiled a "dictionary" that contained various linguistic innovations (Lang, 2008).

In February 1914, the "War of Languages" ended with the victory of Hebrew supporters. In 1919, he persuaded the British High Commissioner, Herbert Samuel, to declare Hebrew one of the three official languages of the British Mandate in Israel.

As mentioned above, Ben-Yehuda made sure to speak only Hebrew with his family and even tried, with little success, to influence other families to behave like him. According to the family members' testimony, his son Ben-Zion did not speak until the age of three. His mother taught him Russian in secret, and when Ben-Yehuda found out, he was furious, and then the boy began to speak. Raising the child, Ben-Yehuda had to invent modern-day new words in Hebrew, e.g., a doll, ice cream, bicycle, etc. The family's success in speaking Hebrew led four more Jerusalem families to switch to Hebrew (Yudlivitz et al., -) but did not prompt many afterward.

Ben-Yehuda believed that only Hebrew should be the language of education and learning. For a short time, he taught in Hebrew at the "Torah and Craft" school of the Alliance in Jerusalem but soon retired due to health reasons. The idea of learning Hebrew in Hebrew found a sympathetic ear in some of the colonies of the first *aliyah* where Hebrew schools were established. This process also developed at a considerably slower pace.

Eliezer Ben-Yehuda died in Jerusalem on December 16, 1922, of tuberculosis and was buried in the Mount of Olives cemetery. The gravesite is a family plot surrounded by a decorative iron fence located in the Saints' Section. The graves of his son Itamar and his second wife Hemda are next to his.

Eliezer Ben-Yehuda's name is the name most associated with the process of the revival of the Hebrew language; most of his contribution was in the conceptual and symbolic fields. He was the first to raise the need for the renewal of Hebrew, published articles and newspapers on the subject, and worked tirelessly to keep the issue on the public agenda and fight against opponents of the process. However, his work did not succeed in inspiring wide circles. The practical activity that ultimately led to the revival of Hebrew occurred only in the colonies of the first and second immigration throughout

the country: Hebrew schools were established there, and Hebrew became the public language.

Ben-Yehuda's character was at the center of challenging debates throughout his life. One of the allegations against him was that he created words that desecrate the matters sacred to religious Judaism.

On the other hand, proponents of the revival process have elevated his figure to mythical proportions, glorifying his activity beyond its actual scope. It is safe to say that Ben-Yehuda's contribution to the revival of Hebrew is mainly on the symbolic level, as a figure who was identified with the process and excited the Hebrew speakers in the Land of Israel.

Schools in Jerusalem, Tel Aviv, and Ness Ziona carry the name of Eliezer Ben-Yehuda. In every city in Israel, there are streets named after him, including Ben-Yehuda Street in Jerusalem.

In the 1970s, a synthetic phonetic method was developed in Israel, implemented through a television program called "Bli Sodot" ("without secrets" in Hebrew). Over the years, the program has begun to incorporate an analytical approach, incorporating texts and content at a higher literacy level. The program focused on understanding texts and improving strategies (Haber, 1990).

Another method, "LITAF" (the Hebrew acronym for Individual Therapeutic Active Learning), is based on the synthetic and global approach. The teacher writes the whole word on the board and breaks it down into phonemes, and the student learns whole words, breaks them down, and builds new words.

The main purpose of reading instruction in "LITAF" is to impart a skill of deciphering and understanding what students read. The letters and sounds

are learned from the context of whole words (40 words only); all the words are familiar to students from their world.

According to this method, students master deciphering the elements of language from the context of words in sentences and short stories. Later, the children learn to break the words into sounds and compose new words.

The ability to form words expands a child's vocabulary and soon makes him an independent learner. The student will be able to read the tasks effortlessly and understand and perform them independently and without mediation.

The program study materials were designed considering differences between students and the fact that teachers should perform classroom work in diverse, differential learning groups.

This program has a diagnostic tool that allows students to identify difficulties and tailor study material to their needs. To conclude, this program has several stages:

Step 1: Visual representation of the complete word

Step 2: Break the word down into sounds

Step 3: Assemble new words

Step 4: Automatically decode text and read fluently ("LITAF" website)

Much-discussed today is the "*Mafteach HaKesem*" (Magic Key in Hebrew) program, wherewith students acquire reading in three stages in an easy, simple, and no tedious way. *The Mafteach HaKesem* method was developed under the language curriculum of the Ministry of Education in July 2011 (Ministry of Education, 2011).

The method cultivates linguistic skills and oral and written expression, along with the development of deciphering skills in reading and writing. With

this program, students learn the graphic forms, sounds, and names of the letters. It is based on the phonetic method; however, it incorporates a balanced approach. The program is simple and not burdensome for students. The teaching progresses in a gradual spiral manner.

Another program developed for education is called "*HaKoach Likro*" (Power to Read in Hebrew). The method is based on the neo-global approach (analytic-synthetic). The emphasis is on the word structure and meaning, with maximum attention to sound combinations.

3.9 Advantages and Disadvantages of Teaching Reading Methods in Israel

LITAF: Although the program has positive qualities, as mentioned above, it is worth noting that some of its aspects do not facilitate specific students' learning processes:

- Children in need of individual learning because the class and group instruction does not suit them;
- Children with visual memory problems who cannot memorize the global words and attribute the syllables to these words;
- Children with visual perception difficulties who are not aware of the difference between the letters and the words;
- Children who have auditory perception difficulties in distinguishing between similar sounds. In these cases, problems will arise in the final stages of teaching per this method. The method is suited for children who exhibit visual and auditory readiness (Schiff, 1983).

Mafteach HaKesem: Despite the program's intensive implementation in kindergartens, we should assume that in the coming years, there will be populations of children who, in developmental terms, will not acquire all the

skills necessary for the acquisition of reading and writing: immigrant children, children having difficulties and children with learning disabilities. In the initial stage of reading and writing acquisition, these children will need to master the rudimentary skills of reading literacy. Therefore, they will need lengthier periods of the acquisition process for vocabulary enrichment, nurturing listening and speaking ability, enhancing alphabetic skills, and adapting the materials and techniques to their level. The teachers will need to obtain tools to mediate learning through a database of printed, digitized, or televised activities (Ben-Ari & Levine, 2013).

HaKoach Likro: The method allows students with learning disabilities to use alternative tools that serve them as an alternative strategy for disabilities (e.g., attention deficit, immediate memory problems, and visual memory problems). The method helps overcome the difficulty of internalizing multiple vowel sounds using conventional symbols.

The distinctiveness of the method lies in the fact that it provides an answer to the students who struggle with learning to read and write according to conventional methods (students with learning disabilities and dyslexia).

The method is not suitable for more advanced students. Repetitiveness and multiple practice tasks produce frustration and loss of interest in the advanced-level student.

3.10 Reading Disabilities - Identification, Diagnosis and Treatment

When the student is unable to read at the end of the reading acquisition process and after attempts have been made to teach him by various and varied means of instruction, the problem probably stems from a "reading disorder". The term "learning disability" was coined by Samuel Kirk in 1963.

This definition included various phenomena such as:

1. Academic Skill Disorder
2. Developmental Arithmetic Disorder
3. Expressive writing disorder.

These definitions referred to the fact that academic skills did not develop as expected from the age of the child. When it comes to reading, Arn (2013) argues, without impaired reading, reading can lead to accompanying problems beyond the initial reading difficulties and secondarily impair the development of higher learning skills, such as: delay in the acquisition process of proper spelling, impaired reading comprehension and impaired comprehension in writing.

The role of the teacher is significant in identifying the same difficulties of the child in the classroom, providing support to the child within the school setting and referring for diagnosis if necessary. The signs that indicate a reading disability according to Arn (2013) are:

1. Developmental difficulties in language in early childhood, alongside proper functioning in other functions.
2. Difficulty in conceptualizing in early childhood (basic concepts of colors, shapes, numeral names).
3. Difficulty learning the names of the letters in preschool
4. Language retrieval difficulties: Difficulty using a specific word, despite previous familiarity with the word. A specific learning disorder, according to the definition of DSM-5 (2013), the guide for psychiatric diagnoses of the American Psychiatric Association, whose diagnoses are also accepted in Israel, takes place when the following conditions are met: there is difficulty in learning and using learning skills for at least 6 months, despite providing interventions and treatments.

The academic function is substantially reduced, and causes a disruption in the academic function and / or in daily activities. The difficulties in learning began during the school years, but can also be fully manifested at a later stage, when the demand for the use of skills affected by the learning disorder exceeds the abilities of the individual. Learning difficulties are not explained by intellectual disability [retardation], impaired sense organs, or other intervening variables (physiological, environmental, educational, mental, etc.) According to Arn (2013) the difficulty in retrieval can be reflected in the tax per modes:

1. Use words that are similar in sound.
2. Using semantically close words (similar content): For example: instead of saying "towel" - say: "dryer".
3. Use of general words - for example: this, that.
4. Explain in a sentence what the word is instead of using it - for example: instead of saying "tree" - "this thing that is in the yard with branches.
- "5. Difficulties in verbal auditory memory - remembering sequences, names, phone numbers, etc. Difficulties in the process of acquiring reading and writing in the elementary grades:
 6. The rate of reading acquisition is slow
 7. Difficulty internalizing the sounds of consonants and movements.
 8. Stuck over time in the French reading stage (reading each syllable separately without the ability to merge the sounds into a word).
 9. Gap in achievement in the pace and accuracy of reading compared to what is expected of his peers - slow and distorted reading.
 10. Difficulty spelling difficulties in writing processes - spelling errors beyond the expected age of the child. Writing is a complementary process to reading.

11. Reading disabilities will sometimes manifest themselves in multiple spelling errors.

12. Possible difficulties in reading comprehension skills. When the reading skill is not automatic and requires a lot of resources from the student, it is difficult to direct resources to understanding the text and producing meaning.

13. Most of the time the student needs support and mediation in the process of acquiring the reading, having difficulty getting rid of the use of memory aids (hints for remembering the consonants and movements).

14. There are cases where despite identifying the difficulties in reading and providing intensive support and mediation to the child, no improvement was observed in the acquisition of reading in the specific learning method.

15. Avoidance of reading - Children who refuse to read aloud in class, parents report refraining from reading in leisure time.

Arn (2013) argues that the prevalence among boys and girls in the population is almost equal, but in girls the accompanying disorders are less extroverted and less directed to diagnosis. Prevalence of comorbidities (comorbidity) in reading:

1. Speech and language disorders - appear with high frequency with reading disabilities. Such as difficulty in phonological awareness, difficulty in naming and difficulty in constructing a sentence. Hence considerable delay and defects in language development can sometimes predict a reading disability.

2. Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder - Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder has common risk factors. There are several possible sources of the disorder: Genetic source, neurological impairment, cognitive and linguistic source. In order to distinguish between reading difficulties and a specific reading disability, it is necessary to diagnose learning skills - didactic

diagnosis/psychodidactic diagnosis. Such a diagnosis examines, under laboratory conditions, the reading and writing functions, as well as the cognitive mechanisms that support these processes.

Only in the process of didactic / psychodidactic diagnosis can the factors underlying the difficulties seen in the classroom be identified. When an accurate diagnosis is made of the causes of difficulties in the reading and writing processes, the optimal work plan can be adapted to the subject's difficulties. To sum up, the DSM-5 establishes the perception that a disability is not a disability but a functional disorder and it allows for a more respectful attitude towards the child suffering from the disorder. The results of the diagnosis require the cooperation of the educational factors in order to build a differential learning program tailored to the needs and abilities of the child, it also specifies the type of framework in which the child should learn the severity of the disorder diagnosed.

Reading is one of the most basic, universal, and significant skills for human beings. However, this seemingly trivial ability is not easy to acquire, according to Aulstein and Cohe (as cited in Rom, 2003). Various reading acquisition methods were developed to help students in general, and particularly students who fail to master complete and fluent reading skills.

In 1943, a researcher named Grace argued that one should work on orthographic memory through the senses. According to her method, stimulating the speech centers and writing the word according to the kinesthetic memory will stimulate the articulatory loop connected to the phonological loop. However, this method is only suitable for working with a single student, not the full classroom.

According to Haber (1990), teaching methods draw on linguistics, psychology, education, etc. In addition, the teacher's attitudes and beliefs also play a crucial role in improving the teaching method.

The reading process will always begin with a visual stimulus, later joined by the meaning, and only then will the orthographic sequence will be introduced. Teachers call this stage the decoding stage. After achieving automaticity in the decoding stage, the student knows how to combine the spoken language with the written language, using proper syntactic and grammatical structures.

The teacher's role is to help the student in one of the most challenging tasks - learning to read. Therefore, the teacher must be familiar with the different methods and theories of reading acquisition. Eclecticism (combining several techniques) will provide an appropriate response to the needs of the students and the differences between them to reduce the gaps in the whole class.

A teacher who integrates several teaching methods in the same classroom in an experiential, multi-sensory, and kinesthetic way will also be able to reach 15% -20% of the students who would not be able to learn to read in a standard learning process (Pollatsek & Rayner, 1989 as cited in Wolf , 2000). And they feel frustrated by the repetition, the extensive practice, and the memorization.

3.11 The Written Language

The Importance of Writing

Writing is an essential activity in childhood; it is necessary for the child's ability to function, work and participate in an array of environments: in the classroom, at home, and in society (Daniel & Froude, 1998; Feder & Majnemer, 2007). Even in the 21st century, despite technological progress, the importance of writing as a human skill necessary for self-expression, communication, and academic abilities has not diminished over the years. Despite the broad

distribution and availability of the computer, people still write messages, checks, memos, and blessings in handwriting (Rapp & Beeson, 2003). Schools still do not have laptops on each student's desk, and students are required to spend a substantial part of their time both at school and at home performing tasks involving writing (McHale & Cermak, 1992; Parush et al., 1998).

Normal development of the handwriting skill is essential in communication, expression of academic abilities, and building the child's sense of capability (Feder & Majnemer, 2007). Despite the importance of handwriting in everyday life, literature tends to address handwriting less than reading. Recently, Wray and Medwell (2007) pointed out the lack of contemporary research and theoretical literature on the development of handwriting skills. This knowledge is necessary for a deeper understanding of the performance technique and for assessing handwriting difficulties among children of different ages (Lechter & Rosenblum, 2007).

3.12 Characteristics of the Handwriting and the Challenges in Writing (dysgraphia)

We can find the definition of the concept of writing both in the professional literature and in the field - among school teachers as related to the process of handwriting acquisition. Interpretations vary from the definition of handwriting as a sensory-motor skill to correct copying of the language (Van Engen, 1992).

Sometimes, the distinction is made between different levels of handwriting. A low level – automatic - is the motor skill of finger movements, whereas a higher level – cognitive – carries the importance of letterforms and writing size (Van Galen, 1991). Some students have practiced handwriting and copying and are skilled in holding the pencil and writing automatically. Their

writing is purely technical. In contrast, there are students whose writing is more planned; they will pay attention to the lines, the correct spacing between letters and words, and the organization and order of writing on the page.

Professor Rod Meulenbroek (1992) investigated the neurocognitive basis of complex movements, e.g., grasping, drawing, and writing, and defined handwriting as a product of several specific functions, such as the motor sense, a dominant hand, pace, orientation, eye-hand coordination, style, and movement automaticity. With practice, handwriting reaches the process of *automaticity* - the tendency of basic cognitive processes to use less effort and become more automatized.

Furthermore, we should add cultural conventions to handwriting ability: every language has its accepted signs and rules, also for writing (see "The steps in learning a language " for an expanded explanation); symbols, and language in which the sign is linked to the sound or the system, involving several motor and mental processes. The handwriting process is an intricate process that activates complex movements, such as correct grip employing the fingers and the wrist motion. On the one hand, it is a structure at least partially dependent on cognitive processes, e.g., hand-eye coordination. On the other, writing is communication and expression through signs and graphic symbols (Simons, 1995).

Characteristics of Handwriting

Writing is a complex human skill that serves us throughout life, and it is considered the highest level of human communication (Hammill & Poplin, 1980). For written production, the writer has to operate motor, sensory and cognitive skills simultaneously and think about the idea, plan, text production, spelling, sentence structure, and grammar while exercising self-control,

evaluation, and motor-orthographic integration (Berninger, 1994; Hooper et al., 1993; Jones & Christensen, 1999; Rosenblum et al., 2008).

Over the years, several theoretical models were developed designed to explain the process of handwriting. These models describe writing as the process that includes a transition from abstract representations to acting. According to van Galen's model (1991), at the initial stage, the writer has a motor plan which includes the information about the letter to be written. The parameters for letter production (size, width, length) are formed followed by a specific command to the group of muscles that produce the actual execution of the letter-writing on the paper. Kushnir (2015), who works in the field of reading acquisition, also developed a method of teaching handwriting with an emphasis on the design of the letters, writing directions, etc.

Berninger et al. (1999) stressed the significance of orthographic processing and orthographic information coding of letterforms that enable us to perform them adeptly and consistently. Berninger et al. (1999) claimed that the process belongs specifically to the unique identity of the letters and that it is different from the visuospatial process that involves visual perception in the process of handwriting. Badian (2000) added that in contrast to what is required in the reading process, the visual-orthographic components are necessary for the child to preserve the orientation and position of different letters in memory. Graham et al. (2006) added the component of visuospatial processes that Roeltgen and Denckla (1992) defined as "the stage of visuomotor integration". According to Roelten and Denckla (1992), this stage has a potential for difficulty among young writers; during this stage, the writer has to decide where on the page to position the letter (relative to the line and other letters). As we can understand, today's research emphasizes the importance of the stage of the letter form storage in memory and the significance of visuospatial

requirements, i.e., the manner of placing the letters on the space of the page during the act of handwriting.

Handwriting skills should develop and improve with age (Hamstra-Beltz & Blote, 1993; Graham et al., 1998; Lechter & Rosenblum, 2008). During the first three years of schooling, children are expected to acquire the handwriting skill that will allow them to use writing effectively as a tool for preparing school assignments (Laszlo & Broderick, 1991; Maeland & Karsdottir, 1991). In the fourth grade, written assignments tend to become longer and more frequent. The school requires children to submit written assignments and essays and write more detailed answers to test questions (Reisman, 1993; Cornhill & Case-Smith, 1996).

Most children can handle such tasks, and their writing skills are evident in their ability to write in legible handwriting with minimal effort. Moreover, among ordinary children, handwriting skill becomes automatic over time, so the writing production process does not require resources that interfere with their ability to creative thinking while writing. Unfortunately, some children fail to develop writing skills: organizing writing on the page, writing in large letters in cumbersome and illegible handwriting. Some teachers treat such students as lazy or not making enough effort to improve their handwriting; others call them dysgraphic.

Students who face difficulties of dysgraphia and dyslexia in the whole class experience great frustration and difficulty. Teaching teachers need to identify them and build a unique program for them that will suit their special needs.

Hamstra-Bletz and Blote (1993) Define dysgraphia as a disorder or difficulty in the production of written language related to the mechanical skill of writing production. This difficulty characterizes children with an average level of intelligence, who are not diagnosed as having a neurological problem.

Students who face difficulties of dysgraphia in the whole class experience great frustration and difficulty. Teachers need to identify them and build a unique program for them that will suit their special needs.

Most children with handwriting difficulties that are not identified and are not treated in grades 1-2 have no choice but to develop "survival" tactics in the classroom: they write very short, partial and often illegible answers in their notebooks. Sometimes they even choose not to perform tasks that involve writing (Shatil, 1993). Therefore, a poor skill in handwriting can lead to an almost complete paralysis of the child's self-expression, regardless of his knowledge potential and normative academic skills (Einat, 1997).

Handwriting impairments may also significantly affect emotional functioning. Both parents and teachers see the written product and influence the design of the manuscript through their expectations and reactions to assessment or criticism. These reactions often create stress reactions and fears in children (Retzon, 2002). The pressure and the need to write skillfully increases from year to year, because the child's level of learning and progress is judged by his handwriting, compared to the rest of the class's performance (Shatil, 1993). Awareness of their poor handwriting, difficulties and constant reminders of their failures may affect the children's self-image and their motivation to express themselves in writing due to their lack of faith in their abilities (Weintraub, 2000).

Diagnosis and treatment of handwriting difficulties are the areas of specialization of occupational therapy. Today, handwriting difficulties are one of the most common reasons school-age children are referred for therapy. In current terms of occupational therapy, handwriting is an activity required of the child in order to be able to participate in the school routine. Occupational therapy attaches great importance to the ability to perform essential activities

in participation in various life contexts. Hence the need for the identification and assessment of handwriting difficulties by occupational therapists.

Assessing handwritten difficulties that will allow educators to define intervention goals requires three levels:

1. Identifying the difficulties.
2. Evaluating the expression of difficulty in class/or during homework preparation.
3. Examining the personal elements/the demands of the task/the environment involved in the failure of the child to perform the handwriting action to his satisfaction, and/or in accordance with the demands of the environment (Case-Smith, 2002; Erhardt & Mead, 2005)

The technological developments in the field of computing in the last 20 years now allow us to study the manuscript process from a quantitative point of view, instead of relying only on writing products (Longstaff & Heath, 1997). Today it is possible to examine the handwriting process using a computerized system that provides the dimensions of time, space and pressure when the child performs the writing task (Rosenblum et al., 2003a).

The analysis of the handwriting process is done using an electronic board (digitization) connected to a computer and on which one writes with an ink pen, the size and weight of a normal pen, inside which pressure sensors are installed. Using digitization and the COMPET software, developed for handwriting evaluation, the position of the pen on the board is recorded 100 times per second, and the sensors in the pen record the pressure exerted by the writer's hand during the handwriting process. The program consists of two components: a data collection program, and a data analysis program that is constantly evolving. The objective information obtained from the system allows various applications in screening, evaluation and intervention processes

(Rosenblum et al., 2003a). According to this method, assessment requires only a laptop and digitization that is easy to bring to the child's natural environment for the purpose of assessment (Rosenblum et al., 2006).

Today, the computerized system gives a partial answer to the question of the personality components, the task requirements and the environment involved in the difficulty (the third level assessment of handwritten difficulties). It is still necessary to refine the data processing methods to get more accurate answers as to whether the source of the difficulty is cognitive, motor, sensory, etc. In light of the findings of various studies, a comprehensive assessment of handwriting difficulties that will enable the identification of sources of handwriting difficulty should include a variety of tools for evaluating handwriting processes, evaluating a written product, such as diagnostic tools developed in a bottom-up approach to evaluate hand skill, hand manipulation skill, and the sensory, visuomotor, and cognitive aspects, the metacognitive, etc. (Gall and others, 1995).

According to Shatil (1993), writing difficulties that are not treated at a young age in grades 1-2 may lead to a complete paralysis of the student's ability to express himself, regardless of his intellectual ability. This means that a child with a standard IQ can have difficulty writing. Therefore, as soon as a significant difficulty in writing is identified, an intervention program that includes writing assignments should be implemented, already in the first stages of teaching reading. Students with motor difficulties can receive art materials such as plasticine and clay or help them strengthen their shoulder girdle through games and various sports activities.

The writing phase is critical, and if it is not handled properly, there is a very likely chance that the student will develop low self-esteem, emotional problems and frustration. In conclusion, dyslexic and dysgraphic children can

learn to read and write, only when they learn in an adapted and precise process that will include experiential and multi-sensory training and practice.

3.13 Difficulties and Challenges in the Process of Reading Acquisition (dyslexia)

Dyslexia is a reading disorder is a congenital disability that is classified as a "learning disability" that interferes with cognitive processes (processes of organizing, processing and analyzing information) related to language skills and reading needs.

Belgor (1986, Inside the Bar, 1990) distinguishes between 'reading disabilities' in which the cause of the impairment lies in one or several of the psychological, physical, emotional, social or pedagogical categories, and 'dyslexia, in which the cause of the impairment is not low intelligence, cultural deprivation, damage Brain, emotional disorders, poor social relationships, sensory defects or inappropriate teaching methods. It dedicates this term to reading problems resulting from specific disruptions in the cognitive processes, which interfere with the precise transmission of the graphic stimuli. As we will see below, there is growing evidence for a causal link between neurological brain damage and learning disabilities. Geisling (1980, as cited in Haber,1990) distinguishes between five types of dyslexia:

1. Auditory dislexia.
2. Visual dislexia.
3. Visual auditory dyslexia.
4. Emotional dyslexia, manifested in a phobic attitude towards reading.

Pedagogical dyslexia, resulting from poor or inadequate teaching. According to Thompson (1982) the most common type of reading

impairment is the spatial visual impairment. A student with this disability is characterized by weak serial visual memory, difficulties in visual distinction, directionality and spelling of words that do not conform to the phonetic rules. He suffers from difficulties in analysis and visual synthesis and has difficulty with tasks of spatial orientation. In reading, the difficulty in reading the whole word is noticeable.

Rahmani (1984) talks about types of dyslexia:

1. Deep or phonemic dyslexia, characterized by: A. Difficulty reading through the connection between phoneme and graphima, that is, difficulties at the decoding level. This type will manifest itself in a complete inability to read treat words. B. When the quality of reading depends on the type of words: nouns are best called in this type of dyslexia, followed by adjectives, verbs and prepositions. C. The more tangible the word, the easier it will be read. D. Multiple visual, semantic and syntactic errors, especially in word inflections.
2. Phonological dyslexia, characterized by a relatively good reading of actual words, but an inability to read treat words.
3. Dyslexia of the word form, which characterizes people who exhibit relatively good writing ability. The salient feature of this group is the inability to read a word without recognizing all its components. Superficial dyslexia, characterized by the ability to read words and treat words as long as the spelling of those words is not complex.

Another division of reading disabilities is for developmental dyslexia, which manifests itself in loss of reading ability, generally as a result of brain damage. Temple (1984, as cited in Haber, 1990) divides them into two syndromes: superficial dyslexia and phonological dyslexia.

In area dyslexia, the ability to recognize whole words is impaired, and short words are read better than long ones. In phonological dyslexia, whole word reading is sometimes normal, but phonological ability is limited, a difficulty manifested in an inability to read tense words correctly. Unlike children with surface dyslexia, who use a phonological approach, those with phonological dyslexia tend to use a semantic approach. If so, the source of dyslexia is neurological; it is not the result of low intellectual functioning, emotional defects or poor teaching.

Dyslexia is the most common disability among the population with learning disabilities and exists in varying degrees of severity. It does not go away with age, but one can learn to deal with it. Some researchers argue that the link between dyslexia and dysgraphia (cognitive impairment) is evident in writing and spelling disorders, and certain types of dyslexia and dysgraphia are two forms of the same disability (Amala, 2000; Ronald, 2000).

The most significant treatment for dyslexia is learning to read and learning strategies for dealing effectively with written texts. At the end of a tailored and accurate process, even a dyslexic child can read. The impaired skill can be improved through appropriate learning, training and practice. Einat (1997) argues that although a dyslexic person's basic reading ability will not reach the level expected of his peers, any improvement can significantly facilitate his quality of life and emerge in his academic achievement. At the same time, educators need to address the gap between existing reading skills and what is required.

Davis (2003) proposes to try to circumvent the technical difficulty (by reading or recording the texts) and to create compensation mechanisms based on human areas of power (building an adapted learning style and imparting learning strategies). In addition, teachers should avoid creating secondary difficulties in the emotional-social field by providing reliable and explicit

information about the disabilities, strengthening the areas of personal ability, giving a listening ear, etc.

Conclusions

Language is a means of communication based on a complex system of symbols and rules. Communication is not only through voice, messages can also be conveyed through gestures, dance, song, etc. In order for a child to learn the language he must know the cultural concepts, language structure and its laws. , It will start the reading acquisition process.

Reading is an almost universal personal ability, and is the cornerstone of student success in school. Without this ability the child will lose many opportunities for self-fulfillment and a successful livelihood in the future. Reading is not only technical, it is a process of understanding the message written in the text. There are different approaches to teaching top-down-bottom-up and interactive reading. The different approaches come to address differences between students, so 15% of all students in the class fail to read. This is where the role of the teacher comes in, identifying the difficulties, implementing an appropriate intervention program and, if necessary, referring to a didactic diagnosis.

Dyslexia is a very common disability among the population of learning disabilities and exists to varying degrees. Disabilities do not go away but strategies can be taught to deal effectively with the written text and thus the difficulty can be overcome by various sensory means.

The next step is the writing acquisition process. Writing activity is a human skill that a student needs for his self-expression, communication and academic abilities.

Writing as well as reading has agreed-upon signs: the shape of the handle in the pencil, the writing directions, the design of the letters, different

writing styles such as writing a letter, writing a recipe for a cake and more ..., punctuation, etc.

Writing should activate sensory and cognitive motor skills while at the same time thinking about producing the written text. The writing stages should improve with the age of the child. In the first three years, the student is expected to acquire the basic skills such as: grasping, spatial orientation, organizing on the page, letter design. This is with the goal that in fourth grade the student will be required to write long texts on his own.

Despite all that we have described above, there are students within the class who belong to the group of students with special needs. When we talk about dyslexia and dysgraphia, we expect the teacher in the class to identify those students, in order to build them a special program.

Students with dysgraphia will have difficulty fluently writing essays. Their grades will be low as they do not express their knowledge through writing. These students will be characterized by writing short answers or will avoid writing at all. Occupational therapy is considered one of the methods for treating writing difficulties and dysgraphia. Dysgraphia difficulties that are not treated at a young age can lead to complete paralysis and dysfunction in the classroom.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL DEFINITION OF MULTISENSORY APPROACH

Proulx et al. (2014) claim that one of the most exciting findings in neuroscience was the ability for neuroplasticity in adult humans. Perceptual learning studies have provided insights into the mechanisms of neural plasticity and the changes in the functional neuroanatomy it confers. The researchers understood that practicing repetitive tasks and consistency leads to specific or general improvement.

4.1 General Definition - Multisensory Approach

Although much of the research focused on one sensory modality, primarily visual, there is a growing interest in multisensory perceptual learning. Proulx et al. (2014) focused on the development of sensory replacement devices for the blind to allow 'vision' to occur in the absence of visual input through the eyes. Visual information can be transferred via a sensory-replacement device to be processed similar to sound or touch. Exploratory auditory, visual and multisensory learning research can be highly beneficial for promoting sensory exchange. Exploring sensory deprivation and sensory exchange will also facilitate understanding of perceptual learning, reverse-hierarchy theory in particular. It is also significant for understanding the evolving brain in methodological terms where functional brain regions can best be determined by the calculations they perform rather than by the processing function specific to their senses. Over time, lack of involvement can lead to a state of frustration, e.g., when the student has difficulty in the reading acquisition process, while their classmates have already succeeded and become independent learners, the child develops feelings of disappointment, insecurity about themselves and their abilities.

Pagliano (2012) coined the term "learned helplessness" which characterizes a psychological state caused by multiple experiences of learning failure. In these cases, the sense of helplessness leads to low self-esteem and

decreased motivation. Pagliano (2012) argues that learned helplessness can evolve into learned optimism through multisensory stimulation and explains how a support program can shape and regulate learners' feelings by tapping into their interests and abilities.

Teachers can foster practical and easy-to-use assessment tools and intervention strategies in the learner - a sense of ease with the environment, enjoyment and happiness, motivation and motivation to motivate their desire to explore, encourage improved learning, social well-being, and quality of life. One of Pagliano's (2012) salient ideas is a multisensory stimulation possibly applied in play, leisure, therapy, and education. These practical resources need to be done consistently and supervised to ensure that they are used in the most efficient and enjoyable ways possible.

4.2 Multisensory Approach for the Whole Class

Studies on learning, especially perceptual learning, have focused on learning stimuli that consist of a single sensory modality. However, our experience in the world involves constant multisensory stimulation. Shams & Seitz (2008) explain that visual and auditory information is integrated into the performance of many tasks involving the integration and tracking of moving objects. Therefore, the human brain is likely to have evolved to learn and function optimally in multisensory environments. Thus, multisensory training can better utilize natural settings for more effective learning.

The basis for acquiring reading and writing is learning the connections between the letters and the appropriate speech sounds. Apart from this ability, there is little knowledge about how this audiovisual integration process works and what mechanisms are involved. Bolmert and Froyen (2010) explain that recent electrophysiological studies of voice processing reveal that it usually

takes readers years to reverse these associations, and dyslexic readers are less likely to demonstrate association automation. It has been argued that this effort in learning may stem from the nature of the audiovisual process mobilized for the integration of arbitrarily related elements of principle. It came to light that the combination of speech and writing sounds is not similar to the processes involved in combining natural audiovisual objects such as audiovisual speech. The automatic symmetrical recruitment of the presumed unilateral visual and auditory cortex combined with audiovisual speech does not occur with the combination of writing and speech sounds.

Bolmert and Froyen (2010) argue that the combination of speech and writing sounds is only partially similar to unfamiliarly linked audiovisual objects. Combining letter sounds and artificial audiovisual objects requires a narrow time window for an integration to occur. However, they are different from these artificial objects because they constitute a combination of partially recognizable elements which acquire meaning through the learning of orthography. Although speech and writing share similarities with audiovisual processing, and arbitrary and unfamiliar objects, they seem to evolve into unique audiovisual objects that also need to be uniquely processed to allow for fluent reading. Moreover, neurobiological learning mechanisms - other than those involved in learning unfamiliar natural or arbitrary audiovisual associations, - should be recruited.

Vision and hearing are two essential sensory systems for the reading acquisition process. Written words enter the brain through the visual system and the accompanying sounds through the auditory system. The reader's tasks before the reading acquisition process are basic. Hahn et al. (2014) explain that one must first learn the connection between orthographic signs and phonemic utterances and know how to create a smooth automatic pairing between the various language units on a sensory level. Learning to read requires the

formation of cross-sensory associations to the point of coded multisensory representation and deep conceptual understanding.

While most people manage this task with a high degree of expertise, some struggle to achieve these elementary abilities. This fact raises the question of why dyslexic people who study well in many other fields fail in this particular task?

Hahn et al. (2014) found significant support for multisensory deficits in dyslexia and argued that an in-depth understanding of its neurological basis necessitates a thorough examination of the integrity of the auditory-visual integration mechanisms.

Also, there is a direct connection between the primary sensory systems, vision, and hearing to the reading acquisition process; therefore, one needs to act and stimulate them to achieve beneficial and optimal learning.

Kazuhiro's study (2021) reviews the relationship between coding with senses and memory and examines the impact of multisensory learning in the classroom. Previous studies have shown that using multiple senses is more efficient for encoding information (Powers et al., 2014). Using this effect, a multisensory approach was developed for children with dyslexia. This disability is the most common among the population with learning disabilities found in varying degrees of severity.

Dyslexia is a learning disability in reading that manifests itself in difficulty acquiring reading, slowness in reading, disruptions, and difficulty in extracting meaning from what is read. In later stages, this defect is evident in difficulty coping and understanding long texts.

Dyslexia is defined as difficulty reading, recognizing sounds, words, and writing. In professional language, this difficulty is defined as a two-year

cognitive gap as compared to regular students who do not face dyslexia difficulties.

In light of these difficulties, many types of multisensory learning have evolved in recent years, according to Kazuhiro (2021). Each learning method is slightly different, but the basic concept is the same: using multiple senses at once.

Today, learners can use several types of materials to learn new things. Therefore, using multiple senses to encode new information is essential for students with learning disabilities, dyslexic students, and students for whom the traditional teaching methods do not suffice.

Supriatna and Ediyanto (2021) assert that children with specific learning difficulties and dyslexia experience difficulties in academic aspects. Therefore, it is necessary to prepare academic assessments and learning materials for teachers to improve reading skills and facilitate reading acquisition in students with dyslexia. The multisensory technique is an excellent alternative and serves as a tool for teachers to improve reading skills in heterogeneous students dealing with dyslexia.

Puspitaloka and Syarif (2021) explored the multisensory approach in teaching English reading to dyslexic students. The participants in this study were English teachers in an elementary school. The study's results indicated that a multi-experiential approach is appropriate for application to teaching English reading to students with dyslexia. Teachers can use learning tools as a supplement for multisensory use for students to be able to use more than one sense in the learning process. This approach has a positive impact on students with dyslexia learning English reading, but it requires a variety of costly supportive media. In the multisensory approach, short learning periods cannot be irrelevant because students need much time to learn.

Kamela (2014) indicates that one teaching strategy may not suit all students. Students with special needs require a distinct teaching strategy. Learning through the senses is the best way to learn anything. English reading instruction is a complex phenomenon for teachers who teach regular students. Beyond that, teaching reading skills to students with reading disabilities is a considerably more complex challenge for English teachers. Dyslexic students can be taught to read English effectively via a multisensory approach.

4.3 Multisensory Activity that Enhances Learning Achievements

A study conducted in Germany showed that students aged 12-14 enjoy vocabulary learning through motor and multisensory activities. Matthias et al. (2021) explain that children and adults enjoy learning in a combination of multisensory enrichment and pedagogy, e.g., combining images or gestures when learning vocabulary can improve learning outcomes as compared to nonsensory learning.

However, while adults appear to benefit more from multisensory enrichment such as performing gestures in contrast to multisensory enrichment in pictures, this is not the case in elementary-school children.

Young children tend to obtain information in visuographic learning combined with auditory phonology, and through multi-experiential enrichment combined with body movements. For example, Silverman and Hines (2009) found that short video clips complement teacher instruction in the classroom and significantly improve second-grader vocabulary. In addition, physical activity while learning increased memory retention compared to learning without physical activity.

We can deduce from this that students' engagement and participation in the teaching and learning process is preferable to watching a teacher as a pedagogical agent who performs the movements.

Another study examined how mental images created by students in vocabulary learning affected their extent of learning and remembering the meanings and pronunciation of words and significantly improved reading comprehension. Hence, the acquisition of words should be done through motor-sensory images that produce memory for and expand words and their meaning. According to Herman (2021), the teacher must create motor-sensory images that include auditory, visual, textual, olfactory senses, and kinesthetic characteristics to make students gain verbal control. The goal is for students to understand the meaning of the words used in the adult world.

The findings indicated a significant effect on word recall, although the training was significantly longer than in the verbal control group. In addition, students in the motor-sensory groups were reminded of more significant definitions than the verbal control group students. That is we can note that combining these methods can be of great educational value for students of all levels.

Language acquisition significantly impacts children's sense of failure in school. Thus, teachers should use methods that match children's abilities in the early stages of reading acquisition to avoid difficulties later on in other subjects. Many researchers have tried to test numerous techniques. One study examined the level of effectiveness of a multi-experiential method in reading. Rostan (2021) observed children who learned open syllables through in English multisensory activities such as sandpaper letters, alphabet jump, and tactile alphabet. Sixteen open syllables were identified: ma-, o-, su-, gi-, wi-, tu-, I, ga-, to-, bi-, se-, de-, po-, so-, re-.

The study showed that a multisensory technique facilitated reading skills in open syllables even when children come from different language backgrounds. Moreover, this technique helped children avoid confusion between English syllables in the presence of a stimulus during a reading activity. This study demonstrated that a stimulus-rich environment is essential for child development. It proposed significant factors for teachers in conveying meaningful experiences during learning.

Multisensory stimulation can aid the child's learning process, increase body awareness, and help them express themselves and move. A multisensory activity provides a unique opportunity and experience for children to achieve self-development in social, cognitive, and motor-sensory abilities. Multisensory learning stimulates children's senses while they are learning.

Setyawati (2017) defined a multisensory method as one of the systematic methods employed to help children increase their cognitive ability by focusing on all the senses stimulating them. The multisensory method enhances teaching through several senses: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile. This method can help children of different learning and intelligence levels. Indirectly, it gives children a chance to reach their self-potential. Nurul Farhanah Bakar & Mohd Jasmy Abd Rahman (2018) explain that children who do not receive encouragement and an environment rich in reading materials at the age of six years tend to lose motivation to read in the future. Therefore, it is possible to overcome the difficulty in reading in early school if six-year-olds gain experience and have a particularly effective reading environment at home and school.

Gardner (1983) introduced the theory of multiple intelligences. Gardner argued that nine types of intelligence vary in character (Gordon & Brown, 2017). This theory greatly influenced early childhood teaching and learning. The nine intelligence types include musical, bodily-kinesthetic, logical-

mathematical, verbal-linguistic, visual-spatial, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalist, and existential.

Given that children have different intelligence levels, the theory of multiple intelligences is highly pertinent for the multisensory approach to teaching reading. That is, learning to read cannot involve only one method. Bakar & Rahman (2018) explain that learning should result from receiving a stimulus. Each of the accepted stimuli will produce a response. Based on this theory, the learning atmosphere of fun and enjoyment can boost children's concentration and create positive behavior. The process of absorption and output is essential in the reading process because experientially taught material is absorbed and stored in memory for the long term; therefore, a reading lesson will be more effective if the stimulus occurs. An environment rich in stimuli is crucial for the child's development. A stimulus given by the teacher generates an appropriate experience in the children's learning.

Another parameter that requires consideration in the reading acquisition process is long-term memory, the stage or type of memory responsible for storing information for an extended period. Long-term memory plays a crucial role in our lives. It helps build a memory and information base that enables people to live productive lives. In addition, long-term memory is a meaningful part of building a solid foundation for learning, both in the classroom and beyond.

Bullock (2021) who studied long-term memory improvement in early childhood education through multisensory interventions explained that many factors hinder students' information retention, including distractions from their peers, home life, and mental capacity (Craik & Jennings, 1992). Children learn words better in established routines. Similarly, reinforcement by practice or repetition also strengthens long-term memory, which is crucial because if the

ability to store and retrieve information is poor, wrong conclusions and answers will entail (Tulving, 1985).

The results of this study support the beneficial effect of additional practice as part of a basic routine and strategic teaching interventions on long-term memory functions, such as practice and memorization, memory games, exercise, and experiential-emotional activities. These strategies improve long-term memory development.

Another aim of Bullock's study was to establish a link between practice through multisensory interventions and its effect on long-term memory functions. The results indicated that multisensory intervention is beneficial for students' retention of newly-learned information and the speed of reading visual words. Thus, we can conclude that students need explicit instruction, time to practice and rehearse, and opportunities to use different learning modes.

The following diagram will show the results of studies, mentioned before, that indicate the types of introduction of interventions to improve long-term memory and normal functioning.

	Visual	Auditory	Touch	Taste	Move ment	On general learning	On Vocabulary
Matthias, Andre, Schwager, Macedonia and Kriegstein (2021)						On general learning	Multisensory images and gestures for learning vocabulary
Silverman and Hines (2009)	V	V			V		Videos and physical activity for learning vocabulary

Herman (2021)	V	V	V	V	V		
Rostan (2021)			V	V	V		
Fajar Setyawati (2017)	V	V	V				
Nurul Farhanah Bakar & Mohd Jasmy Abd Rahman, (2018)						Provide students with appropriate stimulation in order to attract and maintain children's attention	
Gardner (1983)		V			V		
Craik & Jennings 1992)(V	V	V	V	V		
Tulving, (1985)						Learning will be done through repetition and memorization practice	
Bullock (2021)						Learning will be done through rehearsal and memorization practice	

As a Summary Silverman and Hines (2009), Herman (2021), Rostan (2021), Fajar Setyawati (2017), Gardner (1983), Craik and Jennings (1992) prove in their studies that the use of the multisensory methodology in the acquisition process of reading and vocabulary is preferable to other teaching methods.

4.4 How Does Learning Happen? How Does the Brain Work?

Why is it important to know how the brain works? As we further advance our knowledge of the human brain, we can dramatically influence and improve teaching and learning.

According to Sousa (2017), teachers are actually "brain replacements" because they know how the brain works and how to manipulate it. When a teacher who enters the classroom is hopeful, they will impart hope to students, thus boosting their learning ability. The degree of this hopefulness depends, of course, on the method and the course of teaching chosen by the teacher; therefore, they will be able to facilitate more student success. Sousa (2017) claims that the human brain is incredibly complex and is constantly shaping itself. This process is called neuroplasticity. As a result of attempts, practices, repetitions, and learning, it can become the most powerful force on Earth.

For centuries, researchers have tried to discover how the human brain works. They took functional structures and searched for concepts to explain their observations. Observations and experiments were held mainly on people with different brain injuries. Thus, if damage to the brain caused a specific impairment in a particular body area, the researchers understood that the injured part of the brain was responsible for that area of the body. For example, if an injury to the left side of the brain caused aphasia resulting in the loss of speech, the researchers concluded that the left side of the brain is responsible for the spoken language.

Early researchers divided the brain into three areas: forebrain, midbrain, and hindbrain. Maclean (1990) described the brain according to the three stages of evolution reptilian: (brain stem), paleomammalian (limbic system), and mammalian (frontal lobes).

Today, many technologies examine the brain structure and functionality, e.g., CT, MRI, EEG, etc. Computer imaging shows the interior brain structure and can identify flaws, malformations, and tumors that might damage the brain's proper functioning.

4.5 The Brain Areas Responsible for Memory and Learning

It is important to mention the main brain areas responsible for memory and learning, they are:

1. *The Frontal Lobes* are engaged in planning and thinking. It is the rational control and management of the brain responsible for troubleshooting and regulating the emotional system. This lobe trauma causes memory loss and difficulties in speech (Geday & Gjede, 2009; Nee & Jonides, 2014)
2. *The Temporal Lobes* situated behind the ears are responsible for sounds, music, interior identification, and object identification. They are also responsible for long-term memory. There is also an area responsible for speaking (in the left side of the brain). Injury in this lobe causes problems in hearing, difficulty recognizing a familiar person, and loss of sensory information.
3. *The Parietal Lobes* are responsible for sensory information integration, such as heat, cold, touch, taste, the sense of orientation in space, and identification and feeling with body organs. An injury to this brain area

will affect any sensation, identification of flavors, odors, touch, and work capability in space, right, left, up, down, before, and after.

4. *The Occipital Lobes* are responsible for visual processing, including the concept of forms and colors. Damage in this lobe can cause distorted vision.
5. Between the parietal and frontal lobes, two bands are situated in the top part of the brain from ear to ear. *The Motor Cortex* is the band closer to the front. It controls body movement and works with the cerebellum, coordinating the learning of motor skills. *The Somatosensory Cortex* is located behind the motor cortex; it processes touch signals sent by different parts of the body (Sousa, 2017).

The Limbic System

Another system is the limbic system. It is located above the brain stem and is responsible for creating emotions and processing emotional memories. This emotional system of the brain releases a large amount of the chemical called dopamine. Dopamine floods the brain with a sense of pleasure. This sensation is recorded in the brain's memory systems and serves as a basis for further learning.

The limbic system has four parts crucial for learning and memory (Sousa, 2017):

1. *The Thalamus* (inner chamber in Greek) is responsible for all the sensory information, except the smell. All information received through the senses first reaches the thalamus and then is transferred to other parts of the brain for further processing.
2. *The Hypothalamus* is located just below the thalamus and is responsible for the body's internal systems. It is also responsible for releasing

various hormones and bodily functions such as sleep, body temperature, food, fluids, etc.

If the body is out of balance, learning and memory get affected.

3. *The Hippocampus*: Its role is to consolidate learning and transfer information, via electrical signals, to long-term memory storage. This long-term storage process takes several days or even months. This process is essential for creating meaning for learning. In the 1960s, the researchers noticed that patients with injuries in this part of the hippocampus remembered just events before the brain injury. In the long run, they did not remember all their post-injury experiences. Also, such patients did not recall people they knew before and after the hippocampal injury. Thus, the researchers Samson (2015) and Postle (2016) understood through brain scans and case studies that the role of the hippocampus is to store permanent memories. For example, Alzheimer's disease gradually destroys this part of the brain and, as a result, causes complete memory loss. Balu & Lucki (2009) discovered that the hippocampus can produce new neurons in a process called neurogenesis. It has a significant effect on learning and memory. According to Hornsby (2016) and Kitamura et al. (2006), proper nutrition and exercise can enhance the production of neurons in the hippocampus. Loss of sleep and alcohol consumption weaken the formation of neurons.
4. *The Amygdala* (almond in Greek, due to its almond shape) is attached to the end of the hippocampus. It is responsible for emotions and especially the feeling of fear. The amygdala regulates survival-related interactions and sends signals in case of danger, escape, or attack.

Hermans (2014) also claimed that emotional components of memory are stored in the amygdala. The emotional component is recalled whenever the

memory of an event is recalled. This explains why people recalling a strong or meaningful emotional event will often experience the accompanying emotion. Interactions between the amygdala and the hippocampus ensure that we remember long-term emotional events.

These studies demonstrate the need for teachers to understand that students will remember what they have learned when learning triggers emotion. Because the hippocampus and the amygdala are located in the emotional area of the brain, the limbic system, there is a direct link between emotions and cognitive learning. Hence, learning accompanied by emotional experiences will result in long-term memory.

4.6 How Does the Brain Learn to Read?

Most adults do not remember how they began to read. They consider reading effortless and automatic. Sousa noted that speaking is an innate ability that involves different areas in the brain and is performed almost automatically in all children. However, many children find reading to be a complicated, complex challenge that requires years of conscious learning effort.

The eyes should scan the lines, the signs called alphabet, and connect them into words. Other areas of the brain make connections between the written symbols and the sounds of the language already stored in their head.

The brain can process and understand a complete sentence within a few seconds.

Recent years saw a wealth of scientific research. Today, various technologies allow observing the living brain, as stated at the beginning of this chapter.

Using these technologies, researchers succeeded in uncovering how the brain functions while performing specific tasks involving reading. Sousa (2014) details some processes that the brain goes through:

- a. Beginner readers use different brain pathways compared to experienced readers.
- b. People with reading difficulties use different brain regions to decipher the written text from those used by typical readers.
- c. The brains of people with reading problems work harder than skilled readers' brains.
- d. Although dyslexia is considered a brain disorder, it is treatable through proper and appropriate teaching methods.

Tailored teaching can help rewire young and dyslexic readers' brains to use the brain areas similar to typical readers. Through research and findings, it is possible, with a high degree of accuracy, to identify children at greater risk of developing reading problems even before such problems develop. The problem can be accurately diagnosed and managed through an effective treatment plan (Dehaene, 2009).

Habib (2003) notes that nowadays, brain imaging studies in developmental cognitive neurology allow observing how the brain responds to different types of environmental constraints. Through this imaging, scientists and educators will be able to work together toward a better understanding of the typical brain. New findings in neuroscience produced a new field of research called educational neuroscience (Souse, 2014).

In terms of education, the most significant contribution of neuroscientific research is the insights into how the brain learns to read because reading is essential for success in life. Thus, teaching all students to read is the highest priority of any school. Although most children learn to read well, many

children encounter difficulties. The first stage in the reading process is getting to know the spoken language. At two months, babies start mumbling syllables; later, they will say words without knowing their meaning (Singh, 2008; Yeung & Werker, 2009). By eight months, they will acquire many words and expand their vocabulary. The more the mother talks to the baby, the more the baby increases their meanwhile meaningless vocabulary. Later, the child will learn the connection between the word and the image, as perceived in their mind. For example, having encountered the word elephant, the child will vividly see the figure of an elephant in their mind. It is easier for children to memorize palpable words than abstract words, e.g., "justice". Swaab (2003 as cited in Dehaene 2009) and her colleagues examined, through EEG imaging, the brain's responses in a child who encounters abstract and tangible words. The researchers found that words signifying tangible images elicited more responses in the frontal lobes of the brain. This area is associated with the world of images, whereas abstract words prompt more responses in the central and upper parts of the brain (the apex) and the occipital lobe. In addition, they discerned an interaction between these regions during processing. This information demonstrates that the brain can activate several areas simultaneously and that while one area receives verbal information, the other is based on images. Hence, teachers should know that introducing abstract words, they should use concrete and visual images. For instance, teaching the word justice is best done using a picture of a judge and showing a video of a scene in the courtroom.

The Child's Vocabulary

In the early years, the child acquires most of their vocabulary from parents. A significant longitudinal study by Hart and Risley (2003) documented the size of a three-to-nine-year-old child's vocabulary and found

its direct correlation to children's socioeconomic status. This study conducted observations of 1300 conversations between parents and children from different social classes and found that lower-class children knew 1251 words, whereas upper-class children knew 2151. Lower socioeconomic-status students gradually acquire words in their vocabulary over the school years.

After six years, the researchers examined the language scores of the students in terms of listening, speaking, syntax, and semantics and discerned that students exposed to substantial vocabulary in the first years of life had higher outcomes than lower socioeconomic-status students who did not have exposure to a wide range of words.

This study highlighted the significance of the first few years of child literacy development and revealed the substantive vocabulary gap between students of different socioeconomic statuses.

Unfortunately, this gap continues to exist and stand out in the classroom. However, it can be bridged by meaningful help to families via tutorship and enrichment classes targeting developing early literacy and reducing language learning gaps in later stages.

Syntax and Semantics

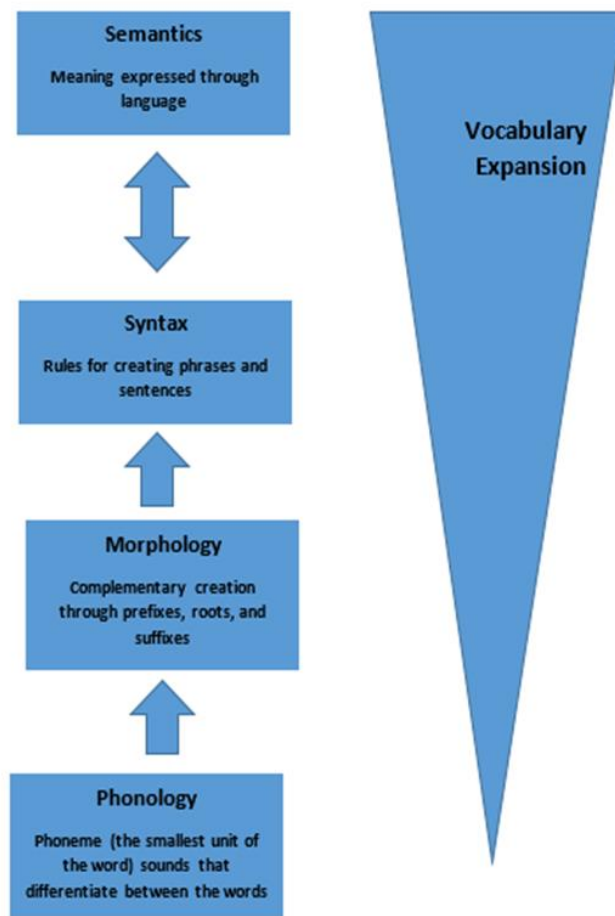
The child is more exposed to the world of speech and language; thus, they begin to understand the phonemes and the basic sounds and learn to add prefixes, suffixes, and additions. Children learn that there are rules for language and later create meaningful expressions and sentences.

Per Sousa (2014), children exhibit progress and development in language as their syntactic and semantic level rises. For example, if the child knows how to say the word "candy", they will later ask to "give me candy" and subsequently understand that changing the word in the sentence will change

the meaning. The more the child hears different expressions and variations of pronunciation, the more they learn language patterns.

The chart presented by Sousa (2014) shows the hierarchy between the stages in language acquisition. It is apparent that in the initial stages of semantic and syntactic development, the top-down and bottom-up processes occur in processing cognitive information and that the child increases their vocabulary while progressing through all these stages.

Figure 5. Hierarchy between the stages in language acquisition based on Sousa (2017)



Pinker (1999) adds that by the age of three, the child manages to say 90% of grammatically correct sentences because the child has built a network syntax that stores perceived grammar rules. For example, the child hears variations in the pronunciation of the words "keep" and "preserve" (in Hebrew, these two words have the same root) and revises their syntactic grid and, consequently, the rules and applies them to additional/other verbs.

Even if children sometimes commit errors, e.g., using the past and present tenses, under adult-assisted guidance and repetition - crucial for long-term memory they will gradually update a syntactic network and create additions to words automatically and without conscious thought. Thus, when the child experiences word additions and sometimes encounters incorrect additions the syntactic network will block the word and replace it with another word held in the child's mind and add it to the lexicon. The principle of closure of the knowledge is an essential component in mastering a spoken language that will ultimately lead to smooth and accurate reading (Sousa, 2014). Of course, the child's grammatical ability depends on the genetic mechanism. It is impossible to know beforehand how much grammar the child learns through listening and how much grammar the child has assimilated. Per Sousa (2014), the surest thing to know is that the more children are exposed to vocabulary in the spoken language at an early age, the better their basis for reading acquisition.

The Semantic Network

When phonemes are integrated into morphemes, morphemes into words, and words into sentences, the mind has to arrange and connect these components into sentences that express what the speaker wants to say. Meanwhile, the listener's language areas in the brain must distinguish speech sounds from other background noises and interpret the speaker's meaning.

This interaction between language components and the mind searching for meaning is called semantics.

According to Sousa (2014), semantic meaning occurs at three different levels of language: morphology, vocabulary, and sentence.

Morphology: In terms of semantics, meaning can come through the word parts or morphology. The longest word has two morphemes, a root, and a suffix. When children can successfully analyze the morphology of words, their mental lexicon becomes enriched. They learn that words with common roots often have similar meanings, such as national and nationality, and that prefixes and suffixes change the meaning of words in specific ways. Hebrew, for example, is one of the Semitic languages like Arabic and Amharic. That is, most words in a language have word families with the same meaning that stem from the same, usually triconsonantal, root with the addition of letters before or after the root letters. For example, in Hebrew, "wrote", "letter", "writing", and (newspaper) "article" are written similarly, have similar meanings, and stem from the same triconsonantal root.

Morphological knowledge also helps children learn and generate new words and aids with correct spelling and pronunciation.

Vocabulary in Semantics: A listener who does not understand many vocabulary words in a conversation will have difficulty understanding the meaning. Of course, the listener may infer meaning based on the context, but this is not credible unless the listener understands most of the vocabulary. Children face this dilemma daily when adults around them use words they do not understand.

The sentence in Semantics: The sentence "Cool boiling dreams go fast for good" illustrates that morphology and syntax can be correct in a sentence without semantics. The words appear in an appropriate syntactic sequence, yet the

whole sentence does not make sense. Adults recognize this irrationality immediately. However, children often encounter a spoken language that makes no sense.

To understand language, the listener needs to identify meaning on several levels. Because adults seldom speak meaningless sentences, the child's difficulty finding meaning may stem from a sense that it has meaning for one person but not another. Also, at this level, the listener's background knowledge or experience regarding the subject will affect the perceived meaning; the brain processes involved in the production and interpretation of meaning must occur with incredible speed during the normal flow of the conversation.

Each child creates a mental lexicon for themselves following their exposure to different contents, written words, and adult discourse. Sousa (2014) explained that the mental lexicon is organized within neural networks based on significant connections between words. This child's ability is of great importance in teaching and learning because the teacher who knows that the brain "knows" how to store words may intentionally group related words in the same lesson to enrich students' vocabulary.

In Morris and Stockel's (2012, as cited in Sousa 2014) imaging study, participants were asked to name people, animals, and tools. It emerged that individual names in the same category activated the same area in the brain. According to this study, the brain stores clusters of closely related words in minimal time, but activating words between networks takes longer.

In 1975, Coulis and Lawton (as cited in Sousa ,2014) proposed a model of vocabulary learning through semantic connections between words, for example, lemon, grapefruit, and tangerine. These words have a solid semantic connection, are stored in the same place, and are easily retrieved at maximum speed, compared, for instance, to the word "bird" with no semantic connection with these words

From Words to Sentences

If the mind stores and recognizes words effectively when there is logic, then the mind will store a sentence with words arranged in a logical sequence. Languages have developed for themselves specific rules called grammar that aims to control the order of the words so that speakers of the language can understand each other.

In the Hebrew language, the order of the words in a sentence can change its entire meaning, for example: "The boat is in the water" versus "The water is in the boat". Hence, the child's syntactic and semantic networks are constantly evolving. The connection between the words is essential for understanding the meaning. When the child hears a sentence, e.g., "The man ate a hot dog at the fair", they realize that the man ate food, not a dog.

Understanding the sentence stems from the context of the words in it, the interpretation and knowledge of the world, and the child's understanding.

The Nature of the Language and the Area in the Brain Involved

A study initiated by the European Union examined 13 different languages using the same number of students from the same socioeconomic status. The teachers taught per the same method and received the same training. The researchers referred to a uniform list of words and found that, by the end of first grade, students who learned regular languages such as Finnish, Greek, and German, succeeded in learning all the words well. On the other hand, the students who studied those words in Danish, Portuguese, and Scottish - irregular languages, had great difficulty reading those words.

The study informed us that students learn regular languages relatively effortlessly because the initial stages in the reading acquisition process and the basis of the spoken language greatly influence the subsequent learning stages.

The researcher Perfetti (2007) found that each language stimulates a different area in the brain, i.e., contrary to alphabetical languages, the Chinese reader, for example, could read any pictographic reading because they did not have to break the word down into sounds.

In conclusion, there are similarities and differences between languages. It is evident that areas in the brain related to coding and meaning are similar in speakers of all languages, and the left area of the brain is also active in all languages.

The difference was evident in Chinese readers, for example, who have activated more of the hind area of the brain in orthographic reading. Also, the study showed that there is a constant integration between the mind and writing in a notebook. Thus, the human mind works in the same patterns, but each language activates slightly different brain areas.

4.7 How Does Hebrew Activate the Brain?

The Hebrew language is a system of alphabetic symbols joined by five vocalizations. Hebrew is written either with or without *niqqud* - diacritics (notation of vocalizations). The *niqqud* method was introduced into the Hebrew language in the second half of the first millennium AD by Masoretic scholars living in the Jewish community of Tiberias who saw the need to mark the pronunciation of the words in writing. After 2000 years of using the Hebrew language without diacritics, the *niqqud* system entered the language, so the diacritics method in Hebrew is relatively new. The Hebrew without *niqqud* holds greater potential for meaning and information about words. For instance, written without notations of vocalizations, the word "book" can be interpreted as "book", "hairdresser", "book", "told/recounted", etc. The meaning changes depending on the placement of the word in the sentence

and its context within the text. For example, "The hairdresser is in the salon", or "This book is in the library". Shimron's study (1981, as cited in Dromi 1997)) showed that even adult skilled readers sometimes have to decipher Hebrew to read accurately and fluently, especially when encountering uncommon words. Initially, Hebrew is taught with *niqqud* (marked vocalizations) and further along without *niqqud*.

Professor Share et al. (2017) found that children learn to read the Hebrew language with the vowels like the children in EU research learning a regular language. That implies that most children will succeed in reading Hebrew texts with *niqqud* by the end of first grade. Towards the fourth grade, students begin learning to read without *niqqud*. The process is gradual, and at that point, students have to gather all the information they have accumulated until then and glean information from words without *niqqud* in the text in other ways. This transition is not a simple challenge, and at that stage, many fourth-graders begin to develop gaps in language learning.

The Hebrew language is complex and arduous. While most students succeed in learning to read, a group of challenging and dyslexic students fails to decipher the alphabet code.

4.8. Conclusions

The learning process includes storage and retrieval. The brain receives external information through the five senses, transmits it via processing, and stores it in the memory storage of different types in different areas in the brain. The more efficiently the information is stored, the easier it is for the learner to extract from memory and use it for various needs. Two basic conditions are required for a successful learning process:

a. Proper functioning of the emotional system known as the limbic system located in the core of the brain;

b. Retention of schematic information in existing memory storage in the brain.

At any given moment, millions of information fragments reach the brain through the different senses. The brain cannot absorb all the incoming knowledge, so it has to filter the information for selected pieces of information to take in. How does the brain know what to retain and what to filter out? The research into the brain indicates two things that the brain "wants", and they are:

a. Discovery of something new - innovation;

b. A sense of pleasure.

The information received in the brain is held in working memory for a few seconds. The sensor of the attention system will pick up the information that has an element of novelty and automatically review this information. The brain will not stop tackling the new information until those hypotheses are verified or ruled out. The sense of pleasure released in the brain (dopamine) is recorded in the brain memory systems and serves as a basis for further learning. This information is essential for a classroom teacher who must be aware of the need to stimulate and mobilize the attention system through teaching methods that transmit the message to the brain. The teacher can maintain such stimulation by changing the voice or item of clothing, employing humor, music, drama, or any other creative idea that stimulates the attention system so that the information passes the initial filter.

If so, in the first stage of the lesson, the teacher will evoke the existing knowledge that conveys the new information they want to teach to students. Out of familiarity with the students and the learning materials, the teacher will know how to employ an appropriate activity to bring up prior knowledge to

student awareness. Whether the process will proceed depends solely on the received information being meaningful to the learning mind. Upon reaching the cerebral cortex, the information undergoes various thought processes. The same processes bestow the information its meaning and thus direct it to memory. The more information received in multiple channels, the more memory will be stored, and the easier it will be for the student to retrieve it when they require the information in different situations.

The emotional system plays a central role in the entire learning process. Once dopamine is released in the brain during learning, the brain will become "thirsty" for more information. In the classroom, we will see a recruited, motivated student who is eager to face challenges. But when a negative emotional experience is recorded in the limbic system and burned into memory, the path to information transfer to the cortex is blocked, and nerve cells transfer the information to the thalamus in the brainstem. This area is the most primitive area of the brain, and its primary function is to preserve the life of animals and humans. It is responsible for respiration, digestion, and survival. Survival is manifested in two ways: attack or avoidance. In the brain with the memories of continuous failure, frustration, insult, and shame burned, the amygdala signals that it is a "risk" to be guarded against, and thus the survival system comes into play. In the field, we see students who "act out", disrupt the course of the lesson, and even have outbursts of anger and violence, or "zoned out" students who refrain from any learning.

This information highlights the importance of creating a safe classroom climate for all learners. A safe climate means a place where no ridicule, insult, or shaming poses a threat to the limbic system; a place where the message to the student is that the teacher is by his side and will do everything in their power to reach out and help them learn. It is a commitment on the teacher's part to build a relationship with the student based on an in-depth familiarity

with different aspects of the student's life. The teacher possesses multiple tools, and with their help, they can draw and sustain the attention of the various students and make sure that the significant information pieces will find their way to various memory stores. This way, the student will be able to use them whenever necessary, while attending to their emotional wellbeing so that the way to the cortex remains unobstructed and available.

CHAPTER 5

FIELDWORK

5.1. Research Method

A literature review is necessary to consolidate the foundations of a discipline; it helps the field to progress at the theoretical and conceptual levels (Palmatier et al., 2018).

Formulating the Problem: The literature review on literacy methods developed in the theoretical framework made it possible to know the theoretical foundations of literacy. It thus helped to define the desired characteristics of a literacy method to critically review the literacy methods for teaching Hebrew: *"In the Secret of Letters* (in Hebrew *Besod haOtiot*) and *The Magic Key* (in Hebrew *Maft'e'ach haKesem*).

Literature Research: The search for references followed the classical scheme of conducting initial research in Web of Science and Scopus. The terms used in the search were Literacy, Multisensory Approach, and Hebrew. Once we obtained the initial set, we extended the search via Google Scholar to identify other studies.

Evaluation and Selection of Studies: To select the academic papers relevant to the object of this study, we surveyed titles and abstracts, establishing as selection criteria that they dealt with Literarily, Multisensory Approach, and Hebrew.

In the *Assessment for the Selection of the Studies*, the criterion was that the works to be analyzed should deal with literacy development in students in the first years of primary education. After this phase, the number of studies for review stood at 19, and we wrote the chapters: *How does the brain learn to read?* and *"Literacy Methodologies*.

Data Extraction: The literature review yielded the data subsequently used for the description of the mother tongue literacy methods and the two literacy methods for learning Hebrew: *In the Secret of Letters* and *The Magic Key*.

Analysis and Synthesis: We proceeded to analyze and synthesize the characteristics of a literacy method for teaching Hebrew concerning the data obtained from the literature review with the parameters of eclectic approach, brain-friendly, the three levels of work: word-sentence-text and the activities related to student development.

The researchers based their *conclusions* on the synthesis of literacy approach characteristics applied to the two reviewed methods: *In the Secret of Letters* and *The Magic Key*.

This study occurred in several stages. First, before going into the field, we explored relevant literature and conducted a broad literature review on reading acquisition approaches and teaching strategies of the Israeli education system.

During the study, we conducted an in-depth and critical analysis of the literature related to the field of research. The analysis describes the updated academic literature relevant to the study. Specifically, our research addressed the contribution of research literature to the theoretical principles of the various reading instruction strategies in the Israeli education system.

The study aimed to make innovative and significant contributions to the field of theoretical knowledge: on the one hand, to summarize the modern teaching strategies implemented in Israeli schools through textbooks written by teachers, educators, and members of the Academy for Experienced Teachers, and wide use and expansion of knowledge, and on the other, integrate new teaching and teacher-training models and expose teachers to innovative models.

Following the conclusions drawn from the teachers' interviews, the researchers developed an eclectic approach to reading Hebrew as a mother tongue for the first and second grades based on a combination of the five

senses. Next, the method will be integrated into schools in Israel to analyze its effectiveness.

Research Population

Table 1. *Research Sample*

Category	Principals	Teachers
Age	Age range: 40-52 2 principals aged 40-47 (6.6%) 2 principals aged 50-52 (6.6%)	Age range: 25-52 10 teachers aged 25-35 (33.3%) 11 teachers aged 35-45 (36.6%) 5 teachers aged 45-52 (16.6%)
Education	Bachelor's and Master's Degrees 4 M.A. graduates (13.3%) All have teaching certificates (13.3%)	Bachelor's and Master's Degrees 12 B.A. graduates (40%) 14 M.A. graduates (46.6%) All hold a teaching certificate (86.6%)
Seniority in reading instruction	2 principals 20-26 years (6.6%) 2 principals 10-13 years (6.6%)	14 teachers 5-15 years (46.6%) 12 teachers 20-30 years (40%)
No. students per class	2 principals - 7-15 students (6.6%) 2 principals - 25-30 students (6.6%)	9 teachers - 7-13 students (30%) 17 teachers - 24-30 students (56.6%)
Does the number of students affect the quality of teaching?	All principals and teachers answered "yes" (100%)	
Difficulties in reading instruction	Attention and concentration, emotional maturity, a large number of students, different abilities of students, lack of digital means, emotional problems, difficulty in memory, difficulty in retrieval, difficulty in recognizing letters, difficulty in phonological awareness, lack of motivation, and low self-confidence.	
Ministry of Education decides on teaching tools	3 principals answered "yes" (10%) 1 principal answered "no" (3.3%)	18 teachers answered "yes" (60%) 8 teachers answered "no" (26.6%)
Religious affiliation	4 Jewish principals in secular public schools (13.3%)	16 Jewish teachers in secular public schools (53.3%) 10 Jewish teachers in state religious schools (33.3%)

In conclusion, all participating teachers have at least a teaching certificate and a B.A. Degree. The age range of the teachers ranges from 25 to 52 years. The interviewed teachers had previous experience in teaching reading or were teaching at the time of the interviews.

Research Instruments

A semi-structured interview was the chosen research tool. Before the interviews began, the researchers presented the participants with the research question, and each interview began with a general question: "Please tell us about yourself," and continued with questions focuses on the research topic (see Annex I).

The information to respond to the objectives was collected through a semi-structured interview designed specifically for this research. Thanks to it, it is possible to find out what the participants think, say, do... These characteristics favoured the fact that this was the instrument chosen to collect the information in this research. However, given that there were no already elaborated and validated interviews on this topic, it was necessary to design one that would accurately measure the desired construct. To carry out the data collection design, different steps were followed.

The information to answer the objectives was collected through a semi-structured interview specifically designed for this research. Thanks to it, it is possible to find out what the participants think, say, do.... These characteristics meant that this was the instrument chosen to collect the information in this research. However, given that there were no already elaborated and validated interviews on this topic, it was necessary to design one that would accurately measure the desired construct. In order to carry out the design of the data collection, different steps were followed.

Subsequently, once the first version of the questionnaire had been designed, which initially met almost all the requirements to be used as an instrument for collecting information in this research, its validity was analysed and, to this end, it was subjected to the judgement of three experts. According to Escobar-Pérez and Cuervo Martínez (2008): "expert judgement is defined as an informed opinion of people with experience in the subject, who are recognised by others as qualified experts in the subject, and who can provide information, evidence, judgements and evaluations" (p.29). For this reason, fifteen professionals were selected, each of whom had expertise in a range of topics clearly related to the research.

Firstly, these judges were contacted by means of an introductory email explaining the objectives of the research and the reason why they had been chosen as experts to participate in the validation of the instrument. They were then asked to participate and, when they agreed to collaborate, a template was attached that included the two different blocks of the interview. This template included boxes in which the experts had to rate the clarity, sufficiency, coherence and relevance of each of the items with a score between 1 and 4 (1 being not at all or not very clear/relevant/sufficient/coherent, 2 clear/relevant/sufficient/coherent, 3 quite clear/relevant/sufficient/coherent and 4 totally clear/relevant/sufficient/coherent). They were also asked to make suggestions for improvement if their score was between 1 and 2 on the scale provided.

The aim of submitting the initial version of the interview to this validation was to eliminate or modify certain poorly formulated items and to determine the correct wording of the rest, as well as to ensure that the instrument measured the desired constructs.

The proposals for improvement collected from the validation templates are included in the final version of the questionnaire, which is included in

Annex 1 and consists, first of all, of 9 socio-demographic questions. The questionnaire then consists of a second block with 28 free-response items and informed consent. Each of the items is related to a type of strategy: studies about teaching, characteristics of students, ministry of education and laws about the teaching of readings, teaching methodology, teaching strategies when lesson planning, teaching resources on reading, parents integration, continuous teaching training, improving the teaching strategies, participation of the whole school .

In addition, a section for observations is included, thanks to which the participants have the possibility of noting down aspects that they consider relevant in relation to the subject matter and that they have not had the opportunity to do so during the questionnaire.

Finally, the technique known as Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to analyse the reliability of the interview. Hernández Pina and Cuesta (2015) define it as: "a model of internal consistency based on the average of the correlations between items". The authors state that, thanks to this technique, it is possible to know how the reliability of the instrument would improve or worsen if one of its items were eliminated.

Applying Cronbach's Alpha technique using the IBM SPSS vs. 24 statistical programme, a value of .899 was obtained. Taking this value into account and according to De Vellis (2003), a high internal consistency of the instrument has been obtained, given that it is higher than .80.

The study was carried out with a favourable report from the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Murcia, as shown in Appendix III.

We interviewed 30 first and second-grade teachers with at least five years of experience in teaching reading in both regular and special education. In addition, the study outline included language instructors working on

developing curricula for reading acquisition. The teachers all speak Hebrew (their mother tongue). Today, everyone who teaches the curriculum in Israel is familiar with various curricula for reading instruction and teaching strategies.

For the semi-structured interview, we constructed the questions, subsequently checked by the experts, and located the interviewees through various media channels.

The researchers chose a sterile environment that the interviewees agreed on and felt most comfortable with.

We informed the participants that the interview time range was one hour to one and a half hours, so the interviewee would use the time optimally and not feel pressed for time. The interview form was a one-on-one conversation.

After revising and correcting the questions, we arranged them as follows at the beginning of the interview: socio-demographic questions, such as sex, age, years of experience, academic training, marital status, place of residence, and more (see Annex I).

The interviewees then answered questions about the teaching strategies they employ in the classroom for teaching reading and writing, e.g.:

How do you choose the teaching methods?

What teaching methods do you think are appropriate?

Which teaching methods are less suitable?

The teachers also answered questions about the number of students in the class and how it affects the teaching process. In addition, there were questions on lesson preparation and the lesson aids. The questions related to the teaching resources and according to whom they are determined.

Later, the teachers answered questions about resources they thought could be helpful and make it easier for the students to acquire reading and writing and whether technological means were used (see Annex I).

The researchers performed a qualitative analysis following the semi-structured open interviews conducted among the teacher population.

Analysis of the 30 teachers' interviews yielded the following issues:

1. How the teacher chooses the teaching method?
2. Additional resources and aids - the most relevant processes for promoting the process of acquiring reading and writing.
3. Educational atmosphere and learning environments.
4. External factors that are not under the control and responsibility of the teacher in Israel.

5.2. Results

5.2.1. Theme I: Teachers' Choice of Methods

The theme focuses on how teachers choose methods to examine whether they have autonomy in choosing the programs or whether the Ministry of Education or the school principal dictates the agenda in advance.

Interviewee 1: "Personally, I work per an eclectic method that I get from any book and learn. I always believe that the book works for me, not I work for the book. I choose what suits me. I do much research looking for things that the kids connect with; that way, I get to them and inspire them to learn."

Interviewee 2: "Usually, I teach per the "*Ko'ach Likro*" (Hebrew for "the Power to Read") program developed by Dganit Snir, but I believe in the eclectic approach. I draw on multiple resources, websites, and books and adapt the teaching method to any student so that they connect with it. Some textbooks

have vivid colors, and some are less cluttered with a bigger or smaller font. Thus, I choose according to the student's needs. There was a student for whom I made a book with worksheets from various programs."

Interviewee 3: "You need to work with all the students using the same method in a very orderly, structured, and systematic way. The teacher needs to connect and love her teaching method. For example, I like Carmela Langenthal-Nesher's program *"In the Secret of Letters"*. At the beginning, she works on letter combinations, words, and then sentences. The method is very organized and structured, and this is very important."

Interviewee 4: "I like to work with Dganit Snir's *"The Power to Read"* program. It is a phonetic method that is very good for students."

Interviewee 5: "I try to adapt the teaching method to each child individually and usually combine several teaching methods. For example, if the child has a hearing impairment, I would try to adapt a reading method based on additional memory aids such as movement, visual aids, or one that integrates the teaching of global words."

Interviewee 6: "The teacher should choose the method according to the students - first, get to know the student's abilities and difficulties, perform a general preparation and then teach the sounds followed by reading. I always like to add to my lessons poetry, recitation, crafting with plasticine, newspapers, drawing, cutting, custom presentation, or video games."

Interviewee 7: "At our school, the principal chooses the curriculum based on the experience from previous years. If the method has proven itself to be good, we will continue to work with it in the years to come."

Interviewee 8: "At the end of each year, the teaching staff of the class gather and choose the curriculum for the next year. Usually, we continue to teach according to the program they taught the previous year."

Interviewee 9: "At our school, they work according to a program of the Ministry of Education. Last year, we worked with a certain program, and this year, we continued to work with the same program. We work with "*The Magic Key*" method. The children really liked it, but some students could not read by this method."

Interviewee 10: "We usually use the teaching method we used in the past at school. If we want to change the teaching method, we consult with the class coordinator, the language education coordinator, and the principal, present our considerations for changing the program, and then switch to another method. For example, in our school, we have been working for many years with "*The Magic Key*" program, now called "*Magic and Friends*". Following the educators' demands, they introduced some changes to the program and its name, but it is the same program."

Interviewee 11: "We usually use the method the school used in the past. We must inform the school principal if we want to change it."

Interviewee 12: "I don't teach according to one particular method. At the beginning of my career as a teacher, I did not have sufficient knowledge and tools to deal with struggling students, so I went to study some methods privately. Thus I created a "toolbox" for myself. Today, I first identify the child's strengths and build an individual work plan for them."

Interviewee 13: "I used to work with the program "*Sounds from Numbers*", and now I work with "*The Magic Key*". In the past, when I was a teaching assistant and taught with another teacher in the class, I learned many methods from her. I think that the teacher is the method and not the book. The book is a means, not the end target."

Interviewee 14: "We work with one program called "*Wonders*" developed by Sarah Lipkin. The textbook is colorful, and the students love it."

Interviewee 15: "I work with the Ministry of Education's program that the school chose."

Interviewee 16: "I work with the "Yated" program. It is suitable for students with Down syndrome".

Interviewee 17: "At the beginning of the year, I consult with the kindergarten teacher and get to know the child before I prepare a curriculum for them. In the first month, I identify the student's strengths and weaknesses and build a special program for them."

Interviewee 18: "In the beginning, I worked with *"The Magic Key"* textbook, but I saw that many students could not learn to read per this method. Then, another teacher taught me the *"Talking Letters"* method by Zehava Kellner. I fell in love with the program and saw that many students succeeded in learning per this method. Hence, today, I only use this program."

Interviewee 19: "Our school has been working with *"The Magic Key"* program for many years. The textbook is colorful, and the children love it."

Interviewee 20: "The school chooses the program. Usually, it's a program that they work with for many years."

Interviewee 21: "I am not a teacher who has worked according to one method for years. I know several ways and several methods for teaching reading."

The textbook we use at school is *"The Magic Key"*, but I also use Dganit Snir's *"The Power to Read"* book and selectively from the *"Speech as a Whole"* program. Over the years, I have built myself a toolbox; thus, for each student, I "tailor" a program and a method that suits them. I also like to work with differential forms, when each child works at their own pace and adopts the approach that suits them."

Interviewee 22: "I teach students with moderate intellectual disabilities, and, therefore, I employ several methods of teaching readings, such as *"The Sound Word Story"* method, written by Hilary Hertzberger, who is herself a speech therapist. She developed the method for students who experience difficulties in reading acquisition stemming from a disability or developmental delay. Some children have trouble remembering, retrieving, or with phonological awareness and thus have difficulty breaking down and creating a word. This method helps a lot with challenging students. I work with the *"Yated"* method intended for students with Down syndrome. Per the *"Yated"* program, the work is from the whole to the parts; children learn global words and break the word down into sounds. Per the *"Sound, word story"* method, first, students learn parts and then the whole word. According to this method, a child needs to know how to synthesize. We teach four letters (consonants), followed by four vowels/vocalizations, then connect the letter to the sound and work on the word's meaning. I often work with the students on clues - with pictures and visual aids that they will remember. I work very slowly but precisely, and the students learn very well."

Interviewee 23: "I teach according to Zehava Kellner's method of *"Speaking Letters"* This is a global phonetic method. Students learn 25 words and must pay attention to what happens to the mouth and where the tongue is while pronouncing the words. I don't do an explanation in a large group. Instead, I sit with two or three students. Then, I start teaching the words. I give each student a mirror, and they look into it and observe what happens when they say the word. That way, I work on the student's visual and auditory memory. In the beginning, I teach them 25 short words containing all the sounds for the students to have a basis for getting to know the sounds. Later, I teach them more complex words. In traditional education, you learn all 22 Hebrew letters individually, followed by each vowel separately (five vowels),

and then the students learn to combine the letter and the sound. It's a lot to remember and, in my opinion, very complex and complicated for the students. In the "*Speaking Letters*" method, the students learn 25 short words that are the milestones. This method teaches with many motor cues because the children's auditory memory is weaker, and most children's visual and motor memory is more robust."

Interviewee 24: "We have worked with "*The Magic Key*" textbook for many years. The method works first on learning the letters of the alphabet and proceeds with the vocalization [a], adding the sound to each consonant letter, learning 15 letters combined with this sound, and subsequently moving to another vocalization (vowel) sound. The goal of learning several letter combinations with the same vocalization and switching to another sound is to prevent students from fixating on a particular vocalization, as it will be difficult for them to break free from it and switch to another sound. Along with the sounds, we also learn global words. Characters from the book, for example, the girl Tamar and the boys Barak and Shahar, accompany the global words - the name "Tamar" also contains the sounds we learn at the beginning. The children really like the textbook; it's colorful and exciting. Yet, some students require more practice and repetition, so I always bring more accessories, add worksheets and do more motor work."

Interviewee 28: "I teach students in a special-education class. When I started teaching 15 years ago, I had a principal who used to be a speech therapist. She told us, teachers, to only work a little on reading because it is challenging for the students and frustrates them. And that's how we worked. Thus, for example, when the winter season came, we taught students only four words about winter: umbrella, boots, clouds, and rain. So all winter, we taught them only four words. I thought to myself that it didn't make any sense. Why not try to teach the children to read or at least try? I went into a conversation

with the principal, explained the rationale, and told her that it didn't make sense that we didn't let the children at least try to learn to read like regular students. The manager disagreed with me, but after I convinced her, she was willing to let me try. I went to the library and sat for hours reading a teacher's guide and learning the theory of reading. I started teaching in class. It was rather complex and intense, but the children gradually began to understand. Then, suddenly, they started to read short words by themselves. I was so excited! I believe that, in special education, we should start teaching reading from a young age, already in kindergarten, to give children the environment to read and not wait. Unfortunately, in special education, there is no organized program by the Ministry of Education for teaching reading; each teacher does it according to the needs of her class. Some teachers think it is essential to teach reading, while others consider it less important. But I am sure that even a child with difficulties can learn to read - obviously, with a program that suits them and their strengths."

Interviewee 29: "The educator is the leader in the entire reading acquisition process, but sometimes, I consult with a language coordinator. In addition, the staff and I take language training courses to learn new methods - different from ours - to diversify the learning within the classrooms. Over the years, we have observed that the reading acquisition process has become more complicated, so we are looking for didactic tools to help children. We rely on the syllabus by the Ministry of Education but add, change, and adapt it to our needs. If, for example, the Ministry of Education requires that we teach a specific subject, we will add more reading, writing, and creation to the topic to make the subject more exciting and appealing to students. In teaching reading, we use the "*Magic and Friends*" method. I have been working with this method for many years. I like the fact that the books are varied and colorful, and the learning is a spiral. The textbook has instructions as visual symbols, and after

a while, the children learn what is required of them and become independent learners. Then, they begin to complete the tasks themselves without my or the assistant's help. For example, the child knows they have to write if there is a picture of a mouse holding a pencil. The picture of a mouse holding numbers means the child has to cut out. They only need a brief explanation and then work independently. That way, I accustom them to being independent learners and not dependent on the teacher. This way, I am also more available and freer to help struggling students."

Interviewee 30: "The teaching faculty of the classes sit every weekend to build the plan for the following week. In addition, we enter the teachers' forums and websites and try to find ways to diversify the teaching. A language coordinator accompanies the learning, and an external instructor from the Ministry of Education comes to the school monthly to guide us and help build the programs. Every period, we check the teaching method to see if it is good and if it suits us. For example, we have been working with *"The Magic Key"* program for many years, and some students have difficulty and cannot learn to read using this method. Therefore, we teach these students per Dganit Snir's *"The Power to Read"* approach because they need more internalization, repetition, and work on phonology."

Conclusions

We find that the opinions differ after examining how teachers choose methods of teaching reading and writing at school. In some schools, the teachers have the autonomy to select the curriculum and the teaching method in the classroom, while in others, the Ministry of Education or the principal and the professional staff in the linguistic discipline determine the program. Therefore, there is no apparent fixed policy for teaching methods.

5.2.2. Theme II: Additional Resources and Aids -The Most Relevant Processes for Promoting Reading and Writing Acquisition

This theme deals with additional aids and resources teachers use to teach reading and writing in the first and second grades. It is essential to list the other resources teachers employ and examine their effectiveness and significance for teaching reading and writing.

Interviewee 1: "When we learn about the sound [r], the children look for an object in the picture or a word that starts with the sound. The students cut out words from magazines, figures, and pictures that start with the sound we are studying. Then we write the sound on the table, each other's backs to practice the word differently. I teach the sounds using all the senses. Connecting what we learn to the children's world and the words they already know is crucial. So, I also use a lot of games and videos". Interviewee 1 adds: "For the weak students, I use a lot of visual illustrations and plasticine."

Interviewee 2: "Some students have difficulty concentrating and learning with a textbook, so they practice working with a computer and using an auditory channel. I work with struggling students through songs, recitations, rhymes, and other means. Some students have to engage the sense of touch in learning, so we work with them using plasticine, balloons, and sand. We get more creative to reach struggling students. I always ask myself how many more aids I can come up with, and then I discover a poem, another recitation, a story, or a game. I am an actor, singer, magician, and more in my class. The students have a lot of fun when they dance and cooperate. I take a word and replace the opening sound with another sound, thus creating a new word. It is significant for the students because they play with the known words and learn new ones. For example, I write the letter "t" of a "tree" on the board, so all the students make themselves into trees. We celebrate the birthday of the sound "t"; the students bring gifts that start with the letter. I inject many colors,

songs, and games into the lessons. Children absorb songs and games. Singing is like a mantra, and young learners absorb it very quickly this way. In class, I use the body a lot. I will have the students create the shape of the letters with their bodies. I use the computer for games and songs to a great extent and a smart board. For example, I play the letter song to the children so they practice learning the letters while singing".

Interviewee 3: "I have a song that I always start the lesson with. It's a song the children love, so I repeat it daily. It is the letter song; I play it in class, and the students sing along and have much fun. During singing, the teacher points to the letters on the board. The children love it when I utter a sound, and they look for words or objects that start with that sound in the classroom. I also play with them, disassembling and assembling words. Sometimes, I say a word broken down into sounds, and the children put them together. Another time, I invite students to say disjointed words while all the class members connect them. Finally, I work intensively on the opening and closing sounds in the word. We do it by clapping our hands when we divide the words into sounds. In addition, if a video fits the sound we are learning, I show it to the children on the smart board in the classroom. The children like songs and videos. They learn a lot."

Interviewee 4: "Every lesson must start with an attractive and exciting experiential opening to inspire students' interest and increase their motivation. For me, the lesson always starts with a piece of a song or a game. Then, I enjoy dressing up and playing a role for the kids or asking a group of students to do a play. It arouses much interest in the lesson, especially for the weaker students. For example, when we learned a new sound, I would disguise myself as a postman who delivers a letter with lyrics of the newly taught sound written on it. Also, when we learned the sound [ah], I dressed up as a doctor and asked the children to open their mouths and say "ah". I always bring new and exciting

objects to class. Then, I ask questions about those objects and sing songs to the children. In addition, for each new sound we learn, the children cut stickers, draw, and create the letter from clay or plasticine. First, the children touch the letters to feel them. Then, we write the sound on the desk and each other's backs to grasp the letter and its sound in a multi-sensory way. Beyond that, for the students to understand that a word comprises syllables, we would knock on the desks and clap our hands according to the number of syllables in the word. To reach each student in the classroom, we have a pool of games and prepared booklets that the child would work with independently. I can approach each child individually and show them where to write or find the line in the notebook during this time. And, of course, later, we work in groups. In the group, the children acquire more knowledge."

Interviewee 4: "I bring many accessories to my lessons and, as I arrive earlier than my students in the morning, scatter the things I brought around in the classroom. Then, the children come in and sit down, and after a brief introduction, I ask them to look around for new objects. They wander around, search and find them. Finally, we place the objects on the table and try to find their commonalities. Usually, the commonality will be the newly learned sound. After they find the connection, we learn how to write the sound. Then, the students try to write it on the board and check newspapers for the letter in the pictures, illustrations, and words."

Interviewee 6: "I like to let the students play word games and put together a sentence. Each child receives a word, and jointly, the students connect them into a sentence; thus, all the children in the class read together. Also, the students experience group learning and succeed in reading. It is worth noting that a classmate will help students who fail to achieve; it contributes significantly to self-confidence. The student needs much reinforcement and encouragement to read aloud; parents sign off on the child's reading at home,

whereas in class, the teacher gives the student smiley stickers. There is always room for students' creative ideas in the lesson."

Interviewee 7 says: "I like teaching songs and stories and thus enrich the student's vocabulary. I enjoy showing videos and presentations to children. Many children are eager to play computer reading games. It is an excellent solution for students with ADHD."

Interviewee 9: "I must do individual lessons for students. Each teacher in the system has five individual hours for teaching in small groups. I like to take the struggling students during these hours and help them study. Also, I often give the students reading passages as a home assignment so that they can practice with their parents. It is essential to practice at home to improve reading fluency. I learned the teaching methods myself from experience in the field and from veteran teachers. I employ a lot of didactic games, and the students love to play them. It is necessary to use videos, presentations, and songs, and it is no less significant to tell children stories to enrich their verbal language."

Interviewee 10: "I read many stories to children. In addition, I bring books that will interest the children. I show them the book's cover and ask them what they think it will be about. It gives them time to talk and develop ideas and helps develop their imagination and spoken language. Then, I start reading the story and sometimes stop to ask the children what will happen next. When I finish telling the story, I give the students all kinds of tasks, for example: writing the summary of the story - a challenging task suitable only for the best students in the class. Also, I give a group of students costumes and ask them to put on a show. To a weaker student group, I give words from the story. Then, they can copy them into a notebook, write sentences or draw. I need to create interest and motivation in the student. Teaching becomes much simpler when a student is eager and motivated to learn. It is vital that learning is experiential, interesting, stimulating, and exciting. When I work with stories, I point out the

problematic words unknown to children. Then I ask them to explain and use them in a new sentence. I prepare the words on the cards, hang them on the board, and use them all week. I search online for games that the students play and know. I also include the subject of art in the lesson. Through art, we can inspire emotion and create interest. All students can express themselves through art and discover their connection points.

Interviewee 11: "Every lesson in class starts with a dictation: I tell the students to write seven words by hearing. The words have no relation to each other and do not belong to the same subject. This combination of the oral and written segments is essential for reading acquisition. After the dictation, I spend 10 minutes practicing and memorizing. Also, I work intensively on memory, especially visual memory. The brain is like a muscle that needs practice and training; the more you practice, the stronger it is. My method also engages a lot of touch and movement. Through this way of teaching, the child suddenly begins to gain confidence. Sometimes, I see a sad child having experienced failures and anger from the parents and, perhaps, from the teacher, and as far as I'm concerned, they are just starting to develop and blossom like a flower. I allow the student to experience true success. Children are clever; telling them they can read while they do not know how is not an authentic experience. They truly feel when they start reading. The child's academic motivation increases, and they come to study with me for fun."

Interviewee 16: "I teach reading using the global method. I introduce the whole word with a visual representation and then break it down into phonemes. I have taught students with Down syndrome in a very organized "Yated" program for the past two years. It is a global visual method. Each word has a visual representation. For example, the word balloon comes with a picture of a balloon. That way, the students learn image and visual representation. After the children learn five words, they begin to break down

the sounds they learned into phonemes and then learn to connect new words. Unfortunately, only two students successfully learned to read using this method, so I only teach functional everyday words. For instance, when I taught the word "chocolate", I brought in a box of chocolate, made chocolate with the children, and gave them hot chocolate. Next, we glued stickers with the word chocolate. Also, I asked them to find "chocolate" among all the familiar words: the students received a worksheet with multiple words and had to find and circle the word "chocolate". Each word should be tangible for the students because they don't understand otherwise. I gradually separated the word from the visual representation in the next lesson. For example, I showed the word "chocolate" and pronounced it, teaching the students it said "chocolate". Then we had two classes, using only the graphic representation and without the visual presentation until the children grasped it. I frequently use memory, lotto, word-to-picture, and other games. In the third lesson, I would work on writing the word "chocolate". Everything must be very experiential, very tangible, stimulating, and engaging. I have students with pronunciation problems and speaking difficulties, so their language is unintelligible. Hence, I work with them on audio recordings. First, I record myself saying the words we learned - for example, chocolate - and then attach stickers with these words on buttons. When I say "chocolate" to them, they press the chocolate button, so they play with the words written on the buttons, hear and learn them, and connect the auditory channel with the visual representation."

Interviewee 19: "I always start teaching the names of the letters. I prepare a practice booklet for the students with the letter names, and in the first month, we only work on identifying the letters of the alphabet. Many students come from kindergarten without knowing the alphabet, and we must ensure that each student learns the letter names. From there, we proceed to teach sounds. In this program, I like using characters, and the children connect

meaningfully. There is a website with games, and children love to play and practice the letters on the computer in the classroom and at home. To evaluate how well each student is doing, I give monthly tests. I like to bring a big box with multiple objects inside that start with the same letter sound. Then I would ask the students what I got in the box. They begin to guess, and that way, I foster their world of imagination. Then I start taking out objects; each begins with the same sound. I encourage them to find what all the objects have in common, and, finally, the students discover the connection and the newly learned sound. Then, we write the word on the board, showing the direction of the writing. Also, I ask the students to draw it with a finger on their friend's back and create it in plasticine or with stones or leaves from the yard - I do much creative work with the students. The children bring objects from home that have the sound we learned in class. It is crucial to be consistent, constantly check what the child does or does not know, and teach them again, thus preventing gap accumulation. Therefore, it is essential to conduct systematic tests."

Interviewee 20: "Usually, I work intensively on analysis and synthesis: separating the letter from the sound so that the children understand the connection. You have to practice extensively until the students understand. Also, practicing phonological awareness is highly beneficial: you find the opening and closing sounds via games and songs. I noticed that in the first and second grades, children struggle to learn from a textbook; they must see many things tangibly. So I start with phonological awareness, working extensively on the alphabet letter names. Children need to know the letter's name to make the graphic connection between the letter and the sound. This challenging task should occur through much play and experience. It is a formative action between the two lobes of the brain; therefore, reading is often a matter of maturity and development of the brain. Sometimes, at a later age, the child

suddenly starts reading; it is merely indicative of the maturation of the brain because, in some students, it occurs later. I always start the lesson with a game - it can be a board game, and then teach reading the sound and writing it. I am not particularly eager to use a notebook when we initially write letters. Instead, I take the children into nature, ask them to collect stones, for example, and write with rocks, leaves, or sand. Learning must be experiential and visual. The students arrive without learning habits; sitting for long periods is difficult, so the class must be experiential, varied, and enjoyable. That's why I like to teach in nature, so even the children who have trouble sitting find interest suddenly and start learning. I like to use songs and let the children practice on the computer. I use a site called "Wall of Words": you write the topic, and numerous possibilities for games and practice immediately pop up. It is a great site. Also, at a later learning stage, I would use the "*Gamba*" site. I frequently use eraser boards when writing, as I do not particularly like using notebooks. So, I use sand, Lego blocks, and plasticine. I like to use flashcards to develop and train memory when reading. I play with the students the game "What's missing?" I would place many words on the desk, let the children look at them, and then ask them to close their eyes for a few seconds. Then, while they keep their eyes shut, I say one word, and when they open their eyes, I ask the students: "What's missing?" Sometimes I use global words or add new ones to challenge and expose the students to new vocabulary; it also inspires the strong students' interest as they don't need much practice."

Interviewee 21: "I open the lesson with the letter song in sign language; thus, each time, the children learn how to indicate a letter in sign language (the language of deaf people). Also, I review the known letters via flashcards every morning. Sometimes I would take a word, cut it up, and the kids have to put it back together. Today I started working with the students in groups. I give each group a task, and during this time, I invite small groups to work so that I can

reach everyone. Every weekend, we build a weekly program to know what exactly we teach during the week. I also like sending the plan to parents so they can ask the children at home. It is crucial to share with the parents what is happening in the class and inform them of each student's progress. It is essential to rule out that the problem is cognitive, and if that is the case, refer the parents for professional help. Giving parents the tools to help their children at home is also possible. For example, a child whose parents are involved in learning will succeed and progress more."

Interviewee 22 says: "If I work according to the "sound-word-story" sequence, I teach the letter, then let the students go over the letter using different materials, such as sand, shaving foam, soap foam so that the students internalize the graphic form. I enjoy working with the senses; the contact with the material is experiential for the children. If I work with the "*Yated*" method, I teach a whole word - three words; each word for five lessons. For example, while learning the word "bread", we cut, bake and eat bread - every class involves a different activity with the bread. After teaching 30 words, I move on to breaking down the sounds. With this method, we teach everyday words and verbs such as eat and drink - words that the child will notice when they walk down the street or go to the grocery store. These words are functional; it is less expected of a child with Down syndrome or intellectual disability to read a book for experience and pleasure. Instead, they learn practical words so that they can manage in life. Some students have difficulty with short-term memory. So I teach them the word, show its visual representation, give them a memory aid, and then, after a few minutes, ask them what word they learned. They don't know how to answer and say: "I don't know." At first, it is somewhat discouraging, but I don't give up. Instead, I continue to train the students' brains through multiple repetitions and playing many memory games. Eventually, I would observe an improvement in both short-term and long-term

memory. As I said, I work with many games and materials, such as sand, shaving foam, soap, and plasticine - lots of sense-stimulating substances. I use flashcards and big pictures - lots of visual representation. I have a computer in the classroom, tablets, and an eraser board for each student. They genuinely like working with an eraser board and practicing writing."

Interviewee 23: "I use many games and songs and do experiential lessons for students. Only from experience do students remember and learn. Therefore, the class should be enjoyable, with lots of fun. And, of course, according to Zehava Kellner's method, students also use a mirror, showing the shape of the mouth with each sound. This year, the assistants and I play a lot with the students in the class: *Taki*, dominoes, memory games, puzzles, cards, and more - for at least one hour a day. Through the game, we talk, communicate with the children, and, above all, have fun."

Interviewee 24: "Each lesson opens with a song about the letters of the alphabet. I have several songs, and the children genuinely like to sing. So while they sing, I show them the letters on the board. Sometimes, I also use a short video with the song, and the clip shows the letters. Each letter has a visual representation, for example, a balloon for the letter "b". I show the new letter and tell the students its name, for example, "*Aleph*" (the first letter of the Hebrew alphabet), and explain: "If you add a friend to it, it will become an "aa" sound." After that, we say words with the sound we have learned and look for objects in the classroom that start with the sound. Then we move on to writing. Finally, the students write the letter in the notebook and draw pictures that begin with the sound. We conclude by practicing in the textbook. For example, the children should match an image to a word or a sound, circle the opening or closing sound of the word, and more."

Interviewee 28: "I have many games, computers, and a tablet for each student in my class. Every weekend, I prepare books for the children to read;

each student receives a textbook from me according to their learning level. In addition, I share what we learn in class with the parents to engage them at home so that they encourage their children to tell what they learned in class. I ask the parents to read the book with the child every weekend. It creates a connection between the parent and the child and quality time that busy parents who work long hours don't always have to sit with their child during the week. This time to read together that I create on purpose also encourages a conversation between the parent and child vital for developing the world of imagination, vocabulary expansion, and more. In addition, the child also needs to collect their family members' signatures. A student who brings the most signatures for having read the reading passage at home will receive a small gift in class. The kids love it. It boosts their motivation for learning to read."

Interviewee 29: "I also like to involve parents in the learning process. For instance, I ask the parents to let their child bring an object that starts with the sound we will learn in class. Next, each student presents their object. Then, I ask what all the things have in common. The children make various assumptions and, finally, discover that the sound in the names of all the objects they brought is the sound I will teach in class. We write the sound on the board and sing songs with the sound, and each student writes the sound on the back of the friend sitting next to them. I work in all channels - visual, auditory, and sensory. After we have done all these actions, the students practice with the textbook. It is essential to work slowly and thoroughly at first: always make sure the students understand and do multiple repetitions of learned material. I start each lesson by reviewing the previously learned material and then teach something new. In addition, parents must cooperate because when they help the child practice at home, it helps a lot in the classroom. The children are still not independent at the beginning of the reading and writing acquisition process. For example, some children do not know how to write in a notebook

or organize the writing on the page; therefore, children whose parents work with them at home are more successful. The child's progress and significant achievements are subject to three factors' involvement in the process: parents, teacher, and student."

Interviewee 30: "Personally, I only work a little with the book. It is the last thing I touch on in my teaching method. I start with a poem, a play, or a recitation. If I'm teaching a new sound, I take the children out into the yard and look for objects that start with that sound. We write the sound in sand or with pebbles and branches. Also, children might bring things from home. I have them cut out lots of pictures from magazines, and then they write the opening sound of the object under each image. That way, I also work on phonology. In the end, I get help from the book, and though I rarely succeed in working with the textbook in class, I give the students the book home, and they practice with the parents. The textbook is a tool to achieve the goal; it is not the goal per se.

Conclusions

In this section, the teachers discussed on aids, resources, and other didactic accessories meaningful in teaching reading and writing. The teachers said they use pictures, magazines, visual illustrations, writing on the board, the computer, presentations, songs, plasticine, balloons, sand, tree leaves, and other aids.

Some teachers reported that they become singers, actors, doctors, magicians, clowns, and more in class. According to the teachers, additional accessories and creative ways stimulate students' motivation to learn; the lesson becomes fascinating even for weaker students with attention and concentration problems.

All the teachers reported using additional learning aids besides the textbook. For example, some teachers reported not using the reader or a notebook in the initial reading and writing acquisition phase.

Also, the teachers stated that it was essential for the children to learn the letters of the alphabet to get to know their names and how to write them. The learning of the letters occurs through singing and playing.

Analysis and synthesis of the words are critical in reading acquisition and can be experiential.

According to the teachers, the lesson's opening must be stimulating and exciting to develop the students' curiosity and create interest in them.

The teachers reported that they use reading stories when after the students have heard the story, they will receive tasks such as: preparing a play, dressing up, writing words from the story, writing a poem, the script, and more.

All the teachers stated that combining movement, touch, and multi-sensory experience is crucial in reading and writing acquisition.

5.2.3. Theme III: Educational Atmosphere and Learning Environments

This theme examines the effect of the educational atmosphere and environment on the first and second-grade students' learning experience.

Interviewee 1: "A classroom content board always mentions skills and concepts. I like to change the content board to create interest constantly. There is always a learning environment that invites independent learning. For example, if I ask the students to write questions so that they have a stock of question words like: Why? How? And what's more, the students go to the inventory and take question words from it and use it, which helps them write question sentences. Some swift children finish the task first. For them, I prepare assignments in various fields to maintain their curiosity and motivation. The learning environment in my classroom is a living environment; it is permanently active. The environment should be encouraging and inviting for learning and work".

Interviewee 2: "I have an activity board with letters that stick to the board; the students build words on the board. There is a place for the exhibition of gifts I mentioned earlier, which the students bring from home when we learn a new sound. A letter board is always in front of students' eyes. Under each letter drawing is the drawing of an object with that letter. So, for example, underneath B (the letter Beit in Hebrew) will be a banana drawing. It is called a "memory supporter"; the students remember the sound by the picture. There is also room in the classroom for topics, holidays, seasons, special events, the Hebrew calendar months, and a board of the State of Israel with the photographs of the Prime Minister, the President of the State, the Chief of Staff, the State Flag, the State Symbol, and the National Anthem of the State of Israel. The Ministry of Education in Israel requires that every classroom have such a corner. I also have play corners with pillows, dolls, Lego blocks, books, and more. Sometimes, I teach a group, and another group studies with the assistant,

while another group plays. Then I rotate between the groups to meet all the students in the class. It is an effective way to reach all the students and check their progress. This way, I promoted weak groups to work at an independent level. In these sessions, I teach a strategy for reading comprehension and more. It is essential to learn strategies for reading comprehension at the very beginning. I often see adults who read and do not understand what they are reading. So it is true that reading is essential, but comprehension is no less important."

Interviewee 3: "I always have music in class, flashcards, learning games, and an electronic board. The program I mentioned before contains many ready-made games, colored cards, and more. In addition, I prepare a word stock for every subject I teach. Thus, when I teach a specific topic, I have numerous words ready for that subject so that the children can write sentences and a story".

Interviewee 5 claims: "The room where I teach is a small room adapted to a small group of students. I believe that a child studying should not have many distractions and too many stimuli on the walls, so I don't have many things in the classroom. I only have a board of letters and pictures."

Interviewee 6: "My class is large; it has a computer where the students work and practice, taking turns. On the computer, the children go to different websites on my recommendation to practice letters, reading, and writing. I have a wallboard that changes depending on the seasons and holidays. I also have a projector and a smart board in the classroom to show videos to the students."

Interviewee 7: "I have a large classroom with no boards on the walls. Last year, the class coordinator decided to remove the wall panels and paint the walls in calm colors. We also removed the desks and turned the classroom into corners, such as a game, reading, and creative hubs. We have desks that

come out of the wall for children who need a table. We have a corner with grass where the students can lie on the grass to read or work; we have large pillows on the floor for children who like to work lying down. Of course, there is also a computer, projector, and smart board. The idea behind changing the class is that the students today are not like they used to be, and, therefore, the classroom needs to change. For example, in recent years, we have seen that many students find it challenging to sit at a table; they want to work differently, which is fine too. Therefore, the teacher should not "fight" the students about how to sit. Everyone can sit as they like."

Interviewee 9: "My classroom is very special. A year ago, the class coordinator changed the atmosphere in the primary school classrooms following the sharp transition between kindergarten and school. In kindergarten, the children sit in playing and working stations of different shapes, and when they reach first grade, we expect them to sit for a long time in one particular form. Many students feel frustrated by the matter, and the problems and disruptions in the class arise from that. Therefore, the class coordinator asked to remove all the regular desks and create corners to work in the class. Instead, there is a play area, a reading area, several tables attached to the wall, a carpet on the floor, and large pillows. Each student can choose to sit in any way they want. In the morning, all the students bring their chairs, we sit in a circle, tell a story, speak about experiences, and then each student goes to work. The teacher constantly invites another group of students to join her, and she thus works with them differentially, while other students are busy with other activities and do not disturb the teacher and the students. This method is excellent, but the issue is that we also need an assistant teacher to help while the teacher is teaching. Regarding the students' equipment, at the beginning of the year, the parents bring the teacher all the equipment for the class. The teacher stores the equipment in the classroom and takes it out as needed. The

kit also includes writing instruments. This way, all students have their equipment and never lack any. The students end each school day by organizing the equipment necessary for the next day. The students come to school with only a bag containing food and a water bottle because all the school supplies are in the classroom. When there is homework, the students take the assignments home and return them the next day."

Interviewee 10: "Above the board, I have a visual representation of the letters of the alphabet; there is a picture under each letter. I have charts with the class students' names arranged per group. I like working in groups because it enriches the students a lot. Strong students help struggling students. I have a computer, a reading corner with lots of books, children's newspapers, and an area with a carpet for games."

Interviewee 11: "My classroom is relatively large. The students sit in groups. At first, they sit in heterogeneous groups; during the year, I change the students' seating positions, and the groups become homogeneous. In addition, I have pictures on the wall that I change according to the holidays and seasons. I have a computer and a projector in the classroom. A student in my class has hearing problems, so I have an amplifier near the board for the student to hear better."

Interviewee 12: "My class is small because I believe in teaching in an intimate atmosphere and small groups. I have a few things and pictures on the walls. I have a large board, a physioball, memory games, plasticine, and cards. Each child has a personal board. I love working with personal boards when we practice writing. For example, I ask the students to write a word, the students write the word on the board, and as soon as I give them a sign, they all show me what they wrote."

Interviewee 14: "I have the desks in my classroom arranged in two straight rows - especially at the beginning of the year when I receive the

students from kindergarten and must teach them rules and regulations. With laws in the classroom, it is possible to begin teaching and learning. So in the first month, I only teach the students how to sit in class, when they can leave or eat, and what is allowed and not allowed during the lesson.

When I teach directions, such as right and left, I need all the students to face me rather than sit at different angles. Knowing directions is crucial in reading and writing acquisition because you write from right to left in Hebrew."

Interviewee 15: "I had the desks in the classroom arranged according to study groups. There is equipment, eraser boards, and markers on the desks. Each student has a strip of the alphabet letters of the alphabet taped to the table, and under each letter, there is a picture that begins with the sound of the letter. The classroom has a place for games, computer games, and a reading corner that the students can go to in their free time. Also, they can read from the variety of books in the library. It is crucial to give the students time to read to enrich their vocabulary".

Interviewee 16: "My classroom is large, and each student has a separate desk. We have a computer and iPads for each child, but mainly lots of games."

Interviewee 20: "My class is medium size; each student has a separate desk. The desks are trapezoidal, so we move them together to create a group sitting when necessary. For example, in the mornings, the students sit individually facing the front of the class. Later during the day, I ask the students to put the tables into groups, and they pull them together according to my request. Sometimes, I ask to create heterogeneous or homogeneous groups. I have three stationary computers in the classroom used for reading and writing practice. Also, there are reading and game areas."

Interviewee 21: "The classroom structure is relatively large; each student has a separate desk. In addition, we have a computer, a smart board, eraser boards for students, speakers for playing songs, board games, creative materials, and a book corner in the classroom. Every morning, we start the day by reading. The students arrive and immediately sit down to read. Even if the first-grade students do not read yet, they get used to holding a book in their hands. The atmosphere in the morning is relaxed and calm; it is when I take the opportunity to go among the students, ask how they are doing, see that everyone feels good, and start the morning pleasantly. It is essential to learn to listen to the children, ask how they are, and show them that we care about them. The teacher has to reach each child's heart - it just takes time, and you must offer plenty of patience, creativity, and an open mind. We should teach with love. In my opinion, those who do not teach out of love are not in the right place. A teacher who does not work wholeheartedly should not work in teaching."

Interviewee 22: "My classroom is large and spacious and has various games and accessories that help to learn. Yet, my motto is that you have to believe in the child. Some teachers tend not to have faith in children's abilities - especially children with Down syndrome and mental retardation. They claim you should not insist on reading with them; working with them on other, more essential things is better. Every child has the right to learn to read independently, even if they have Down syndrome or a developmental delay, even if they do not reach the level expected of a typical child of the same age. Every teacher should tell themselves not to give up on the child and give him their maximum for the child to succeed in reading. Another thing is that you need to teach several methods combined, not fixate on a single approach. If your chosen strategy does not work for the child, immediately switch to

another plan. If another technique works, immediately adopt it, lest the child feels frustrated."

Interviewee 24: "The most important thing for me is the relationship with the child, that they feel that I believe in them, love them, and am there to help them with whatever they need. I do so by giving them shorter tasks that they can deal with and thus experience genuine albeit small successes that they will know and feel they can achieve.

The children come to class physically and mentally small at the beginning of the school year. It is difficult for them to sit in for a long time; you have to allow them time to refresh themselves occasionally. For example, I love to dance and sing with them. I always put music in the class for a positive, pleasant, and happy atmosphere. While the students work, I like to put on pleasant and relaxing music. Many students enjoy working this way. Sometimes, when I see that the students are tired, I stop teaching, and then we dance in class. It's liberating and fun."

Interviewee 26: "It is vital to have an emotional connection between the teacher and the child. It is also always my recommendation for a novice teacher. It is forbidden to give students the feeling that they are alone. I teach students with mental disabilities. A child with a mental disability is not regular, and sometimes it is difficult to connect emotionally with them. The teacher must make every effort to communicate with the child.

It is essential to trust the child, tell them they will be able to read, and reinforce them for all their progress, such as giving them short tasks to succeed so that they experience success. Thus, we encourage and motivate the child to learn so that they do their best in learning to read.

The process is very long, and the teacher must be patient, consistent, and thorough. But, in the end, it brings great happiness to the teacher, parents, and the child themselves when a child succeeds in reading."

Interviewee 27: "The classroom should be pleasant and clean. You don't need to fill the classroom with many objects so the students can move around in space. The children must learn to organize their personal belongings as well. We should clean the tables and tidy the classroom at the end of each day. When there is order, the children are calmer, especially the students who deal with attention and concentration. That is why order and cleanliness in the classroom are significant. In addition, one should be sensitive and attentive to the student's needs, and it is essential to make home visits. The children are excited about the teacher's home visits. It connects and strengthens the relationship between the teacher and the child. When I visited students' homes, I always took a small gift for the children. It is also crucial to have a good relationship with the parents. The teacher should be available to parents. When the parent calls the teacher, the teacher should respond and pass on the information about the child's academic, emotional, and social situation to the parents. The parents must believe and trust the teacher; therefore, you have to be professional and explain to the parents the process of reading and writing acquisition and share with them; even when there is a difficulty with the student, the parents will mobilize to help the child at home."

Interviewee 29: "A teacher needs a lot of tolerance and patience; they need plenty of passion for the profession and love. Without this, the students will quickly feel the teacher's impatience and lose the motivation and desire to learn and succeed. Every novice teacher must have a mentor because new teachers often need clarification and must learn everything quickly. They need to understand the system and how to prepare suitable lessons because they may think that their lesson plan is good, while in practice in the classroom, it

will be a failure. So, every school must assign an experienced teacher to a beginner teacher - with enough patience to help them. A teacher should come to class prepared, constantly introduce novel things to the students and inspire their interest. But, unfortunately, students sense when the teacher comes unprepared to class. That leads to an explosive, uneasy, or restless atmosphere in the classroom. The teacher should convey much confidence to the students. The classroom should be neat and clean and with a pleasant smell. An organized and tidy classroom creates less of a mess in the eyes of the students, especially for students with attention and concentration issues. Therefore, when the lesson is structured and organized, it instills confidence in the teacher and the students. The students promptly recognize the teacher's weaknesses, which can be a problem as it affects the positive atmosphere in the classroom. It also affects the students' trust in the teacher and their professionalism, and then the parents notice that the teacher is unprofessional, thus generating trust issues."

Interviewee 30: "The children sit in the first half of the year in straight lines facing the direction of the teacher. At the beginning of the year, I work a lot on general rules for how to sit in class. I am also working on writing directions. We write in Hebrew from right to left, whereas arithmetic is from left to right, so it is imperative to teach students spatial orientation. For a good and pleasant atmosphere in the classroom, it is crucial to work on the connection between the children. We are working on getting to know the students because each student comes from a different school, and the children do not know each other, so it is important that everyone sees everyone, gets to know each other, and plays with each other during breaks. A student who feels loved and accepted in the classroom will be free to learn. On the other hand, a student who thinks they do not belong in the class will grow sad, frustrated, and unavailable for learning. After there is calm and the children get to know

each other, we begin working in groups. Learning in groups also connects the children. I ask them to help each other with the tasks before they turn to the teacher. This approach is conducive to creating close relationships among the students and allows me to work with genuinely struggling students. The classroom has a large area with many games, art equipment, computers, and a reading corner. It is vital to have areas for learning and play and a large and spacious space where kids can dance and move. It is difficult for today's students, in general, and young students, in particular, to sit for a long time. Every 10 minutes, the teacher needs to change their assignment to keep them interested. Young students should mainly engage in learning tasks containing movement, song, dance, crafts, materials, and more.

Conclusions

The teachers discussed the classroom learning atmosphere and the critical factors affecting reading and writing acquisition regarding this issue.

The teachers stated that the students should have a learning environment that includes various aids, e.g., the alphabet letters, a picture for each sound, a concept board, target words, and question words, including aids that the students can use for independent learning.

The environment should encourage and encourage learning; the classroom should be clean and tidy. The classroom should have areas designated for play, reading, and crafts to provide the students with various tasks and different ways of learning.

On the other hand, some teachers said there is no need for a classroom with many accessories and information on the walls because it interferes with students dealing with ADHD.

Teachers reported using music to make the classroom atmosphere pleasant, thus enhancing the learning atmosphere. Many teachers discussed the need to build a personal relationship of trust with the student so that the student knows they have someone to lean on and who will hear them out and help when needed.

According to the teachers, parental participation is significant in the process, and the parents should also believe in the teacher and their professionalism.

Fostering contact between the students of the class and enhancing each student's sense of belonging makes a pleasant atmosphere; confident students are free to learn.

A teacher should come to class ready for the lesson and exhibit professionalism and knowledge.

5.2.4. Theme IV: External Factors not under the Teacher's Control and Responsibility in Israel

This theme deals with external factors that are not under the teacher's control and responsibility and affect the quality of teaching. The topics raised by the teachers were the number of students in the class and its effect on the quality of education, the rate of student progress, and the personal attitude toward each student in the large class. In addition, a large class means diversity and heterogeneity, and bridging said diversity and heterogeneity in the Israeli classroom presents another challenge. In addition, another issue arose regarding the need for more resources and faculty and how the combination of teaching assistants, students, or any other auxiliary force can benefit the reading acquisition process.

The number of students in the class and its effect on the quality of teaching

In this part, the teachers answered as follows:

Interviewee 1: "I had a full class for many years. I used to ask myself: "How can you teach reading to 35 students and more? When the number of students in the class is smaller, is it possible to teach more individually?" After many years of teaching, I realized that it is better to work in the classroom with a small group of students and thus reach every child."

Interviewee 5: "I think that the number of students in the class is very high and does not allow the teachers to reach every student and enable good reading acquisition genuinely. In addition, many regular classes currently include many students with learning disabilities and AD(H)D who often accumulate gaps in reading acquisition and go up to the third grade without reading proficiently."

Interviewee 6: "The number of students currently studying in the educational sector dramatically influences learning and reading. A large number of students, about 28 on average in a class, poses a difficult challenge for the teacher and even more for the student. There are 30 students in my class - all typical students with different learning gaps."

Interviewee 7: "I teach 30 students in the first grade. It is tough to teach reading alone. It affects the teaching of reading significantly."

Interviewee 9: "There are 22 students in my class this year - the lowest number of students in the class I teach. Other classes have 30-32 students in each class. I think it is challenging to teach reading to as many students."

Interviewee 10: "I teach a second-grade class of 30-35 students. The number of students dramatically affects the teaching, especially without assistance."

Interviewee 17 says: "The number of students in the class greatly affects the quality of teaching because you have to give each child what they need."

Interviewee 18: "There are 10-15 students in my class. It's a special-education class, but I teach reading in small groups of two-three students. In special-education classes, we always work in small groups, even one-on-one, sometimes."

Interviewee 19: "The number of students in the class greatly affects the quality of teaching. For example, today, I am a first-grade teacher with 35 students in my class. It is a huge group in which I struggle to reach everyone. In such a large class, I only have to work in small groups because otherwise, I can't reach all the students".

Interviewee 19: "The number of students greatly affects the teaching in the classroom. When a teacher works with three-four students, they can advance well and differently."

Interviewee 21: "This year, there are 30 students in my class. Therefore, it is complex, and working in a large class is tough."

Interviewee 23: "I know that in regular classes, the teachers teach 30-35 students in a class. It's just crazy and illogical; I don't know how they manage and how it is possible to reach so many students in one class and with only one teacher."

Interviewee 26: "I taught a maximum of 15 students. So I don't know what it's like to teach in a typical class of 30 students. I don't think it's easy at all."

Interviewee 29: "Today, I have 27 students in the class. Undoubtedly, the number of students affects the quality of teaching. Today, due to the coronavirus pandemic, we work with half a class because the number of students in the class is large, and the Ministry of Health does not allow crowded seating. This matter has a favorable implication for the education system. We manage to see all the students because we teach in small groups and meet all the students in the class."

Interviewee 30: "A class with many students is tough to teach and even impossible."

Heterogeneous and diverse classes

In this part, the teachers gave the following answers:

Interviewee 2: "This year, I had 15 six-eight-year-old students in special education. The class is complex and diverse; some students have behavioral or emotional problems and learning disabilities. Therefore, it is critical to have a small number of children in the class to reach everyone, to meet each child's needs - in regular education and even more so in special education."

Interviewee 3: "Teaching a language with such a composition of students is not easy at all. However, if everyone learns per the same method, it works. But since there are several learning levels, the teacher should divide the students into groups according to levels and work differently."

Interviewee 6: "The class contains plenty of students with different abilities; therefore, I should adapt the way of learning to each student."

Interviewee 7: "The students in the class have different abilities. Each child comes from a different family background and learns differently, so there is no uniformity between the children. The diversity in student composition can be advantageous because due to the diversity, the students learn from each other, and detrimental as some weak students would delay learning."

Interviewee 8: "There are 27 students in my class. The class is very heterogeneous, so there are many learning gaps between the students. When the class is large, it is tough to reach everyone."

Interviewee 9: "This year, the students in my class are very challenging. I deal with many students with behavioral problems, emotional problems, and ADHD. These students' issues disrupt the pace of learning and delay the other students."

Interviewee 10: "I have diverse students in the class: motivated, studying, and well-behaved students along with students with learning difficulties and behavioral problems."

Interviewee 11: "The students are very diverse: brilliant students with a broad knowledge of the world, the average learners, and the group of weak students. They usually also have behavior problems, difficulties with attention and concentration, and emotional problems."

Interviewee 12: "I have a Bachelor's Degree in special education and a Master's in remedial teaching, so, at school, I am a special education teacher. I

take students out of the classes and teach them in groups of five-seven students. I build a good relationship with the children; they genuinely like coming to my class. However, I must point out that these are struggling students from low socioeconomic status."

Interviewee 13: "This year, I am a second-grade teacher with 29 students. This year, I have a group of good students with good learning abilities. Also, I only have three students with learning difficulties, so it depends on the student composition in the class."

Interviewee 14: "I have only boys in the class, 20-25 boys. They are different and diverse students, as in any heterogeneous class."

Interviewee 17: "My class comprises seven-ten students aged six to twelve, with developmental monitoring but normal cognition. As they have multiple motor and speech problems, it is difficult to understand what they are saying; they have speech sound disorders."

Interviewee 18: "The students in the class are very diverse. I have a student with a hearing impairment, students with behavioral problems, and students with emotional problems. If we don't work in small groups and in a differentiated way, we won't be able to reach all the students and see results."

Interviewee 20: "Because the students in the class are very diverse, I teach reading in small groups of two-three students. Some students have good learning habits, while others don't. I have students with ADD who find it very difficult to focus and concentrate; they scatter."

Interviewee 21: "I have many complex students, but I'm not in a hurry to label them. I like to give them a chance to prove themselves."

Interviewee 23: "For the past two years, I have been teaching at a special education school for students with severe emotional problems who have been

released from psychiatric hospitalization or are on the way to the hospital. Everyone in the class receives psychiatric medication treatment."

Interviewee 26: "This year, I have a class of seven students with mental disabilities."

Interviewee 27: "In my class, I have 30 very diverse students, including students with emotional problems. But in recent years especially, I have encountered many very spoiled students; their parents are too indulgent, and the children do not know how to refuse or delay gratification and take "no" for an answer. In addition, they do not have working and learning habits; many exhibit writing and motor difficulties. For example, they don't know how to hold the pencil correctly or use the scissors and cut (they tear the page)."

Interviewee 29: "In addition, in my class, there are seven students from special education. Their parents have objected to enrolling them in special education, so they attend regular classes. During the school day, they receive all the support, such as remedial teaching, speech therapy, and art therapy. All the other students are also diverse; some have emotional problems, some have behavioral problems, and some come eager to learn - with the latter, everything goes "by the book."

Interviewee 30: "This year, I am teaching second-grade students aged seven-eight. Every year, I see the quality and abilities of the students who come to the school. Children come to first grade unprepared. There are many students with emotional problems, which greatly affect learning. We spend much time dealing with the emotional process that the child goes through and less with learning. In the first half of the year, we are like kindergarteners, teaching students how to hold a pencil, cut and paste and, in general, what it is like to sit in class and study - how to be a student. Only when we establish a calm atmosphere in the class are the students emotionally available to study, and we start teaching reading."

Teaching assistants and aides

In this segment, the teachers responded as follows:

Interviewee 9: "When I taught in Cleveland, USA, I taught six-ten students in a class and had an assistant. When the class is huge, reaching all the students is difficult; there must be another teacher or student to help."

Interviewee 10: "My group of students is extensive, and this greatly affects the teaching of reading. Without assistance in the classroom, it is tough."

Interviewee 15: "This year, I am a second-grade special education teacher and have 12 students in the class. However, in the past, I taught 19 students in a special education class. I teach in a class with an assistant because it is challenging to reach all the students, especially students with special needs."

Interviewee 16: "I usually teach small groups of seven to ten students and always have an assistant. But, of course, it is complicated to reach everyone in large classes."

Interviewee 17: "Usually, a special education class comprises no more than ten students, and there is always an aide and other teachers who come in to help."

Interviewee 19: "I have help in the classroom because I have a student with a peanut allergy who requires medical observation, so I use the allergic student's medical assistant for academic help with the other students as well."

Interviewee 21: "I don't always have help; there is an assistant who rotates between the classrooms, but often, I am alone and without help."

Interviewee 23: "For the past 15 years, I have taught a special education class in a regular school. I teach between nine to fifteen students in a class. I always have an assistant. This year, I have three teachers and three classroom

assistants. There are days when every child in the class has an aide or a teacher, which is extremely helpful because every student gets individual help and exactly what they need."

Interviewee 24: "I teach between 25-30 students in a regular school. I usually work alone and don't have an assistant. Working alone is challenging - especially at the beginning of the first grade with little kids who come from kindergarten and need help taking the equipment out of the bag, holding the pencil, and with the food. Many children come independently and require immediate help, and if you don't give them help, they instantly start crying."

Interviewee 27: "Some students have difficulty understanding the simplest instructions, such as taking the notebook or a pencil out of the bag. At the beginning of the year, in the first grade, they need much help. Then, when they fail, they immediately burst into tears, and you have to calm them down, which is tough when the teacher is alone in a class with 30 students, even impossible."

Interviewee 29: "Lucky me, I have an assistant in the class, so each of us takes a group of students and advances it."

Conclusions

On this issue, the teachers reported that teaching a class with many students was challenging due to the difficulty in reaching each student and helping them. It affects the student's academic achievements, according to the teachers.

Due to the overcrowding, the class develops many educational gaps that require bridging. Also, in a smaller class, there are fewer challenges, thus allowing the teacher to reach each student and meet their needs. According to

the teachers, working in small groups alone yields positive results and achievements; a differential approach is also practical.

In addition, the teachers indicated that their classes were very diverse. Per the teachers, the diversity manifested in students' behavioral and emotional problems, learning disabilities, AD(H)D, developmental problems, sound speech difficulties, motor difficulties, and more. Moreover, each student comes from a different background and socioeconomic status; some students are more motivated than others; some students have solid learning habits, while others do not, and some indulged students need to learn how to delay gratification. The above construct a diverse and challenging class that necessitates help and assistance. The teachers emphasized the need for aid in all classrooms to reduce the gaps in student achievement and offer them support whenever necessary.

CHAPTER 6

DIDACTIC PROPOSAL - A METHOD INTEGRATING THE FIVE SENSES

Justification

The Hebrew language, Jewish literature, and culture are at the center of language education in the elementary school in Israel. The integration of each student in studies, society, and culture is achieved through their mastery of the language. Language is a crucial component in consolidating students' cultural and national identity in their country due to the many difficulties that the Hebrew language went through until it became an official language in the Land of Israel.

With the establishment of the State of Israel, the residents did not speak a single language. Each immigrant brought in the language and culture of the country in which they grew up. In Israel, multilingualism developed, and a uniform language was necessary to create something unique and unifying. Raphael (1997) explains that the task was not easy because the immigrants came as religious and secular, Oriental and European, and each ethnic group absorbed the culture, religion, and beliefs of their Diaspora country.

As described in detail in the literary review, Eliezer Ben Yehuda and his friends made great efforts to introduce the Hebrew language as an official language in the Land of Israel in general and in schools in particular. According to Bar (1992), numerous programs were developed for the Hebrew language studies, as spoken in those days and hitherto used only as a sacred language in prayers, blessings, and Bible studies.

From the beginning of the Hebrew language's revival in Israel until today, as every year, programs are written for learning to read and write in Hebrew. Each program tries to be more diverse, colorful, and solid. In recent years in Israeli schools, principals and teaching staff gained autonomy to choose schoolbooks. Educational staff members sit down, discuss, and decide which textbooks to use for their students. At the discussion's conclusion, they select a uniform program for each grade level.

This way, all classes are taught according to one method; it does not make sense that all the students can learn reading according to the same method.

Therefore, we should introduce diverse and multisensory teaching methods into the classroom. After all, every student has developed their own sense, and if we are talking about multiple intelligences (e.g., Gardner, 1983), then all the senses, and all the methods should be employed to reach dyslexic students, students with learning disabilities, and students diagnosed with ADHD.

Furthermore, in education in Israel, they realized that it is necessary to teach according to a differential method. This method intends that each student receives the level that suits them. For instance, in second grade, when we introduce the theme of the seasons, the teacher will use a text about the seasons in three or four levels adapted to the strongest, average, weak, and very weak students.

This way, the student works in class at their level, progresses at an individual pace, does not accumulate frustrations, and thus avoids discipline problems caused by frustration and inaction.

The educational approach described here is based on educational principles that guided teachers for many years. The guiding principle is that children learn better when they are active and when learning is relevant and tangible. First and second-grade educators explain that their job is to guide students through all the initial stages of the Hebrew reading process because these stages are central for the continuation of the learning journey in which children will need to acquire additional language skills to interpret, manipulate and control.

For educators to receive the best and most practical tools for improving the reading process, we will present in the following chapters practicable tools

which will contribute to the quality of teaching and learning in the first years and enhance students' motivation.

6.1 The Rationale for the Method

In the theoretical part we dealt with a number of main topics:

The Hebrew language, communication, the oral language and the written language and in addition we dealt with the subject of how the brain learns to read (multisensory approach).

Chapter 1: The Hebrew Language: In a sense, we must say that this is going to be a method of learning Hebrew as a mother tongue, but of course the method can be used for other languages as well. In the first chapter, we delved into the complexity of Israeli society, which unites within the classrooms a wide variety of students from different homes and different cultures. This method will help the teacher to teach within the whole classroom, taking into account the differences and needs of the students. We will also mention that the traditional "Heder" has undergone many changes and has become the modern school where not only the Bible and sacred studies are taught, but also other subjects, the teaching methods are different depending on the nature and needs of the students. Despite the diversity in Israeli culture, every student is expected to have literacy skills in order to develop the student's personal, social and cultural connections. This method will allow all students in the class to acquire reading and writing in the best way in order to become a literate person.

Chapter 2 – Communication - Teaching to communicate in Hebrew, through a method that fosters communication, social interaction and interaction with objects and contents, with a teacher as mediator. Communication is very important to the reading acquisition process. The method will emphasize the importance of communication between parent and child and between teacher and student. In the theory chapter we learned that

communication is the basis for language learning through the senses. Babies communicate through body language, long before language acquisition. The attachment is done gradually until the child is aware of the phonological processes that take place in the language. This method will emphasize the importance of the teacher's interaction and the great impact it has on the student in cognitive, communicative, social, emotional, behavioral and neurological development. A good teacher-student interaction, a sense of trust in the child and a sense of ability, will give the student the motivation to learn and encourage him or her to experiment with tasks he or she does not yet master.

Chapter 3: The Hebrew Language - spoken reading and writing. In a way, this method will deal with teaching reading and writing in grades 1-2. Reading is an almost universal personal ability, and is the cornerstone of student success in school. Without this ability the child will lose many opportunities for self-fulfillment and successful livelihood in the future and therefore in order for all the students in the class to succeed in the process, a multi-sensory eclectic method is presented here that will address the differences in the class. When a group of students in a class fail to read about the teacher identify the difficulties and implement an appropriate intervention program. Dyslexia is a very common disability among the population with learning disabilities and exists to varying degrees. Disabilities do not go away but strategies can be taught to deal effectively with the written text and thus the difficulty can be overcome by various sensory means. Writing activity is also a human skill that the student needs for his self-expression, communication and academic abilities. The writing stages should improve with the age of the child and therefore if there is no improvement and there is a delay in the process, an intervention program should be run. Dyslexia and dysgraphia difficulties that are not treated at a young age can lead to complete

paralysis and dysfunction in the classroom and therefore the multi-sensory eclectic method can address even students with these objective difficulties.

Chapter 4 — Neuroeducation: Multisensory Approach. The learning process includes storage and retrieval. The brain receives external information through the five senses, transmits it through processing, and stores it in memory storage of different types in different areas of the brain. The more efficiently the information is stored, the easier it is for the learner to extract from the memory and use it for various purposes. Two things the brain "wants" are:

- A. Discovery of something new - innovation
- B. A sense of pleasure

The information received in the brain is held in working memory for a few seconds. The sensor of the attentional system will pick up the information that has an element of renewal and will automatically review this information. The brain will not stop dealing with the new information until these hypotheses are verified or rejected. The sense of pleasure released in the brain (dopamine) is recorded in the memory systems of the brain and serves as a basis for further learning. This information is essential for a classroom teacher who must be aware of the need to stimulate and mobilize the attentional system through teaching methods that convey the message to the brain. The teacher can maintain such a stimulus by changing the voice or item of clothing, using humor, music, drama or any other creative idea that stimulates the attentional system so that the information passes the initial filter.

The same processes give information its meaning and thus direct it to memory. The more information received in multiple channels, the more memory will be retained, and it will be easier for the student to recover it when they need information in different situations.

The emotional system plays a central role in the entire learning process. After the release of dopamine in the brain during learning, the brain will become "thirsty" for more information. The class seems to be a recruited student, imbued with motivation, eager to face challenges. But when a negative emotional experience is recorded in the limbic system and burned into memory, the way to transfer the information to the cortex is blocked, and nerve cells transfer the information to the thalamus in the brainstem. This area is the most primitive area in the brain, and its main function is to preserve the lives of animals and humans. The amygdala signals that it is a "risk" to be guarded against, and thus the system of survival enters the picture. In the field we see students who disrupt the course of the lesson, and even erupt in outbursts of anger and violence or refrain from learning.

This information highlights the importance of creating a safe classroom climate for all learners.

The student's sense of trust in the teacher, the sense of ability, the experience of success in assignments, are important steps in the process of acquiring reading and writing.

A classroom climate is a place where there is no ridicule, insult or shame to the student, so this does not pose a threat to the limbic system and then the student will be motivated to learn and will not disturb all the students in the class.

In this method the teacher has multiple tools and endless didactic ideas and means with which he can attract and retain the attention of the diverse students and make sure that the significant pieces of information find their way to different memory stores while maintaining their emotional well-being so uninterrupted and available throughout the study.

Objectives in the Hebrew Curriculum of the Ministry of Israel

The overarching goal of learning the Hebrew language, according to the Hebrew Curriculum of the Ministry of Education (2003), is to cultivate a literate person who uses language for the following purposes:

a. They will have a good command of the Hebrew language and know how to use it both in writing and orally.

b. They will be able to use the written and spoken language to fulfill the communication needs, for example: conversing, understanding, transmitting information in Hebrew, even if they do not speak Hebrew as a mother tongue.

c. They will succeed in understanding texts written in various styles, e.g., song, story, Bible passage, legend, liturgical poem, prayer, and more.

d. They will be readers who love books, enjoy literary texts, can review a work of literature in Hebrew, and converse about ancient Jewish sources.

e. They will develop linguistic awareness, expand linguistic knowledge, enjoy the language experience and understand basic principles.

Reading is an essential skill that is very important for gaining academic knowledge. Reading is the translation of the written word into the sounds of speech, and, therefore, its acquisition is not simple and not automatic for many students and dyslexics.

Learning objectives

Students should acquire the following objectives related to the reading process:

- To develop the awareness of phonemics (knowing that words are composed of sounds);
- To know the sounds (links between sounds and letters);

- To learn vocabulary related to the children world (what do words mean and how are they said);
- To read with fluency (ability to read accurately at an appropriate stage);
- To acquire reading comprehension (ability to understand what you are reading).
- The students will master standard Hebrew and know how to use it in writing and orally in an appropriate manner.
- To learn spoken and written language to fulfill communication services: to converse, to convey information.
- Understand a written text in a variety of genres, and even produce texts that combine the topic, the communication channel, the recipients, the goals of the communication and the websites.
- They will perfect the function in the language as agreed and desired in the discourse communities they operate and will operate in the future.
- They will be book-loving readers who enjoy literary texts - original and translated.
- The student will have the ability to read literary texts in an intelligent way; to identify with generations of Hebrew creation and maintain a dialogue with the origins of Judaism.
- In the state-religious education: extracting meaning from reading a guest and praying for life according to the tradition.
- The language will be used to express the inner world and develop self-awareness.
- The language will be used to form a world view and make autonomous decisions in a conscious and critical way.
- Develop linguistic awareness and expand linguistic knowledge.
- They will benefit from experiencing the language and understanding the principles behind it (from the Hebrew curriculum 2014).

According to Kamala (2014), multi-sensory teaching is built on the learner's strong channels while developing the weak. It includes making apparent connections between the visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile senses. That means that activity should involve at least two of the following senses: (a) listening - listening to something such as a song, a story, the teacher's explanation; (b) sight - visual photograph, video, movement, writing, speech (kinesthetic), (c) tactile - touch or feeling of something; (d) taste and smell - another sensory experience that can arouse the experience and curiosity.

The study conducted by Kamala (2014) into dyslexia found that for most dyslexic students, reading acquisition is difficult and frustrating, and, consequently, they face problems in controlling reading skills, fluent reading, and reading comprehension. In terms of those students, it does not mean that they will be unable to read. They can read using other teaching strategies.

A multisensory approach is one of the suitable approaches to teaching reading to dyslexic students. So if a multisensory approach is appropriate for dyslexic students, it can indeed be suitable for additional students.

The method's goal is to provide the teacher with the tools for teaching all the students in the class to read and write. Many written programs are not suitable for all students. Many students encounter difficulties; they and their parents are frustrated trying to figure out what is wrong. Teachers begin to label students as having ADHD, verbal disability, learning disability, and more.

6.2 Characteristics of the Method

This method is designed to foster the Hebrew language in a more complete way, because of that these are its main characteristics:

- a. A multisensory program will serve all students in the class.
- b. It will be a rich, varied, experiential, and fun program.

- c. We will prevent parents' and students' frustration through this program.
- d. We will reduce classroom discipline-related issues.
- e. We will address differences between students.
- f. The program will create motivation and a desire to learn and succeed.
- g. It will make the child into an independent learner.

Contents

The official study contents of the Ministry of Education:

- A. Developing listening and speaking skills
- B. Acquiring reading and writing and establishing reading fluency
- C. Reading Comprehension
- D. Reading and understanding of literary works
- E. Encouraging Reading
- F. Developing the ability to write and express in writing
- G. Vocabulary enrichment
- H. The development of linguistic awareness and the love of the Hebrew language
- I. Combining literacy skills in different subjects
- J. Expanding the mind and education

Language skills to develop

Although children who reach first grade are already sufficiently proficient in the language and have learned in kindergarten, they still lack experience using language in specific ways. Teachers of young children will recognize what their students can manage and what they are still insufficiently skilled to do. The same skills they will need to acquire in the best way to lay the foundation for continuous learning of the letters, reading, and writing.

Language skills are in the following areas: speaking, listening, group discussion and interaction, class assignments, and drama.

Speaking skill

The child must learn the different uses of the language, e.g., learn to speak loudly, clearly, and explicitly, and be considerate of the audience.

While speaking, the child should turn their gaze to the listeners. During a conversation, the student should focus on the topic in question and present their thoughts about it in a logical sequence.

The student must use different styles and forms of language and speech appropriate in specific situations, such as intonation in reading a joke or a suspenseful story.

The student must acquire many words in the spoken language to use them in a broader verbal repertoire.

Listening skill

Students will learn to listen to each other. For example, they will learn to wait patiently for their turn to speak when having a conversation with a group of students.

The student should wait silently and not interrupt when others are talking.

Students will learn to identify ideas in the speaker's words and find additional connections and insights. They will learn to announce an example: "Following Yossi's words, I want to add that ...", or "I connect to Yossi's words, etc." It is also possible to add to, support, or oppose others' opinions.

Students should respond respectfully to the words of others, not laugh at a friend's words, nor belittle the opinions of others. You can disagree with a friend but express your position respectfully.

Students will learn to ask the speaker clarifying questions if something is unclear to the listener.

Students will learn to appreciate the ideas or the angle of interpretation offered.

Reading Skill

Already in kindergarten, the infrastructure for reading and writing is acquired among the children through the curriculum for kindergarten (published by the Ministry of Education 2014). This program focuses on the development of early literacy components and defines the expected achievements from the age of 3 years to 6 years. The skills required of a student in reading in first grade are:

A. Alpha-household skills: familiarity with the names of the letters and initial experiences such as writing the first name and other global words such as mother, father.

B. Phonological awareness: the opening sound in the word and the closing sound (an important step that will later be used as a basis for learning to write).

C. Analysis and synthesis: decomposing and assembling words, in the first stages it is done orally, then the student will be required to do it in writing.

D. Linguistic competence: dictionary, syntax, morphology and pragmatics.

E. Decoding and reading fluency:

Teaching decoding processes and reading fluency. Familiarity with all the learned combinations and after practice and repetition the reading fluency will be established. It is important to progress with the combinations

methodically and gradually according to the students' learning processes and differences in their knowledge.

F. Repeated experiences with phonological awareness while learning to read and write - both at the conjunction level and at the consonant phoneme level. At the conjunction level, you can practice identifying conjunctions, for example: "Which of the words begins with the conjunction sho(?) You can play or show pictures of objects and the students. They will recognize the opening and closing conjunction. Omission of ksudnv conjunctions: "say banana without Ba"

Exchange of conjunctions: "What word will we get if we replace the sound with the word..."

It is important to incorporate into the practice of phonological awareness the distinction between all the vowels using vocabulary familiar to the students, for example: the names of the students in the class.

G. Establishing reading fluency through reading and practice.

H. Comprehension of what is read. After establishing the reading fluency, it is possible to work on comprehension, since until now the student was busy deciphering and did not pay attention to understanding the written text.

Writing Skill

The promotion of students from phonetic writing to orthographic writing will be done gradually and on the basis of knowing the sequence of writing development:

A. Orientation in space: students must know the directions, right and left up and down. This knowledge will be used for them in the process of

acquiring writing and organizing on the page in a notebook, since the Hebrew language is written from right to left and most letters are written from top to bottom.

B. The design of the letters - it is important to teach the students to design the letters according to the accepted writing direction of each letter, and this so that their handwriting is clear and legible.

C. In the early stages of acquiring writing, it is recommended to teach writing the words separately from each other, in order to establish familiarity with the consonants and vowels.

D. The student knew how to write his first name and other words such as mother, father

E. It is recommended to demonstrate the process of writing a word, for example: the teacher says I want to write the word "sun", with which letter should I start writing the word? The next sound I am He hears and so on. This activity can take place in plenary or in a small group. Later, the students can also be invited to write the words on the teacher's board and conduct a control using the observing students.

F. Since the writing process at the beginning is complex and requires a lot of resources, you should practice breaking down the word, retrieving the appropriate letter and writing it.

G. It is recommended to exercise discretion with regard to the treatment of writing that does not follow the spelling conventions expressed in homophonic substitutions in the root letters, for example: treatment of homophonic substitutions that appear in words belonging to a common word family that the students were exposed to.

H. It is important to use the rules of the language as an infrastructure for correct spelling through the presentation of the linguistic phenomenon, its

application, its identification by the students and their repeated experiences in the application of its use. An example for learning the form of the plural (The ending in Hebrew for the male form is "Aim" and for the female form "Ot") For example: demonstrate to the students the legality with the help of words that appear in the text they read or words that the teacher presents. Recognize what the words have in common both in terms of meaning and in terms of linguistic legality.

I. Many male endings are -ym and many female endings are -ut

J. Emphasize the fact that in writing, the suffix joins the word and is not written separately. The students are asked to find in the texts found in the school environment, in posters, etc., more words in which the phenomenon occurs. The students are offered to experiment with writing their own words. At the end of the process, the "linguistic law" is formulated in the language of the students, including examples, and presented in a prominent place in the class.

It is important to give students experiences that support remembering the orthographic sequence - writing all the consonants and vowels in a word, example:

Choose a common word that the students have difficulty writing and whose orthographic representation does not represent a linguistic rule, for example the Hebrew word "now" present the word on the board, ask the students to say it out loud and spell it. It is useful to deal with roots and word families, and other age-appropriate linguistic phenomena .It must be remembered that one-time experiences in remembering the exact orthographic representation of words are not enough for most students. Therefore, it is important to repeat these experiences several times through games and other means to develop the orthographic knowledge of the spelling of words.

It is desirable to hold various activities that encourage return. It is recommended to convene a supportive learning environment where different letters, combinations, words and linguistic phenomena are prominently displayed so that students can use these representations when they are required to write.

L. Dictation: experience in writing words accurately - for this activity it is important to choose words that represent one of the principles learned in class, such as the letter A that opens verbs in the first person future, words with a common root (word families), etc. Before this experience, the words and the rules must be repeated for writing them. You can use the flash cards, suggest that the students write each word several times, spell it out loud, etc. This activity should not involve evaluation for the sake of getting a grade, since the learning process towards accurate writing while understanding the relevant principle is important.

It is important to have teaching processes that build the students' knowledge of the legality of spelling and language according to their age level, thus establishing their self-control abilities.

Group Discussion and Interaction Activity

Students will learn to work in a work and learning group. For instance, students will learn to participate in a group learning activity, where each group member works to advance the group. In the learning group, the students are assisted by their peers, when coping with a difficult task.

Students will learn to collaborate with team members.

The student within the group knows how to express an opinion/position/idea.

When the group talks about a particular matter, the student knows to wait for their turn - to reject gratifications.

Class assignments

* Interact with others in a game or task. For example, the children will learn to form social bonds with other children in the group who are not necessarily their friends. Thus they increase the circle of friends, and the new interactions with other students enrich their knowledge and word.

* Raise relevant points in the discussion. For instance, if there is an assignment about the seasons, the weather, clothing items, temperature, and precipitation are topics relevant for discussion.

* Reference other contributions. For example, if all members of a group of students are engaged in the task, the task performance will be successful, and the student will be a part of the success.

Drama Activity

* Participate in a role-playing game, e.g., students are asked to act out a story they have read. They are required to divide roles, write the play, and prepare scenery and costumes.

* Make a presentation to others. Strong students can prepare a presentation for the class on a topic that interests them, thus expanding their own and all the students' knowledge of the subject.

Such goals, as presented in the Hebrew curriculum published by the Ministry of Education (2014), will help students in the early stages so that later they can plan a literate activity themselves. Therefore, the teacher needs to invite students to a range of similar activities to encourage them to gain experience in these areas.

Wells (1986) found that the language in the classroom is richer than that of the home, and, therefore, it is an important message for educators, who should view children's questions, explanations, and comments as significant and valuable if they want to foster their learning. Listening and speaking are an essential part of learning and the basis for Hebrew language development.

Games Activity (GAMIFICATION)

Combining game characteristics (such as competitiveness or scheduling tasks) in a non-game activity, as a means of achieving an educational, social or behavioral goal, defined by the teacher.

The Gamification motivates the students to perform routine (and maybe even boring...) actions, by making them more enjoyable; helps the teacher to focus the students' attention on the activity; Fosters in the student a sense of achievement and ability and fosters behavioral changes.

We will choose the type of game according to the goals (recess, deepening, enjoyment, challenge, diversity of teaching methods, acquisition of knowledge/skill, practice or application), we will think about how to organize the class for the game (several groups, seating arrangement, going outside), and determine the The time frame - starting from an activity of a few minutes, through a whole lesson, an active break or a peak activity to learning that incorporates play throughout the entire school day.

There are a variety of types of games that can be used to promote learning, reading and writing:

A. Card games: games that help build vocabulary and develop communication skills and compliance with social rules.

B. Box games: games that develop thinking and teamwork. Creating a box game based on a familiar game (monopoly, ladders and ropes, etc.) can be used both as a learning tool and as an assessment alternative.

C. Games to get to know the names of the letters, for example: The teacher says: Who is the student whose name starts with the letter A? Who is the student whose name ends with the letter C?

D. Disassembling and assembling the words will be done by clapping hands or patting on the thighs..

E. Interactive games to get to know the letters and the sounds

F. To reveal the sound learned in class, the teacher brings pictures or objects that start with the same sound and the students identify what the common sound is.

G. One of the most important rules in Gamification is to divide the tasks into stages and to evaluate each stage. Through the division into stages, the teacher can encourage his students to perform a large and complex task - the small stages, which are easier to perform, invite a strengthening of the student's sense of ability, who sees that he succeeded in completing the intermediate tasks. In doing so, we encourage the student to reach the finish line, which is the completion of the big task. It is also recommended that the tasks be of increasing difficulty, so that we start with easy tasks that will enable the student to receive a reward relatively easily and then increase the level of difficulty (challenge), so that the student does not lose interest.

H. Badges: A badge is a visual representation (online or real) of the achievements, skill or learning habits that the learner has acquired. The teacher can combine the distribution of rewards in the form of badges, in addition to (or as an alternative to) the normal grade - for completing a task or a sequence of tasks, high grades, Creativity, a successful performance, arriving at class on time, submitting an assignment, helping others, etc. The distribution of tags can be real, using stickiness for example. But it can also be virtual, by publishing a table with the names of the students and the badges each has won so far.

T. The mashish must not be integrated throughout the entire learning process. It is possible to determine a worn combination in a certain study unit or a single lesson. When it is a long-term process, it is recommended to give

feedback on tasks of a varied nature. Although we have a definite goal, we would not want the other areas to be neglected... that is why we give feedback on the submission of tasks, the quality of the task, academic behavior, social behavior, coming to class, teamwork, imagination, and more.

J. As in a game, also in a game, the rules must be defined in advance - what is allowed, what is forbidden, what is the goal we strive to reach.

A game that encourages learning, stimulates motivation and keeps the students alert and focused. It is important to incorporate a game in every lesson for the benefit of students who have difficulty and those with low abilities. There are students who do not stand out in the regular class and the game encourages them to participate and take part in what is done in the class. You can also learn through a game, the learning becomes experiential and fun.

All the activities mentioned above: speaking, listening, reading, writing, group discussion and interaction, drama games, are directly related to the visual, auditory and kinaesthetic senses. When all the senses are used in the learning process, then there is optimal learning that is burned into the student's memory.

6.3 The Method

Students are considered as the centre of the teaching process, and we have to bear in mind that most of the students do not have a uniform learning style. What sets us apart are our styles and preferences; each person has different senses of hearing, movement, etc. According to Whitman & Kelleher (2016), students have varying intelligence components, and there is also a significant environmental component. That is how teachers choose their teaching style. More meaningful learning occurs when we mobilize more than one sense even when we have an innate preference for a specific sense that

supports and enhances the learning experience. It does not mean that other senses are inactive, - they overlap and work together. For example, visual learners prefer to learn when the information is in front of their eyes through cards, memory supports, and more. Children who prefer visual learning will favor games that involve cards and pictures, books with colors and vivid pictures, e-books, etc. The teacher builds a sound personal program based on students' strengths and weaknesses (Whitman & Kelleher, 2016).

Learners with a more developed hearing will get the most through auditory learning and respond verbally to what they learn. If the child quickly absorbs instructions and likes to hear stories, invent rhymes, and sing songs to memorize new words and texts, they are probably auditory learners, and their sense of hearing is better developed.

Learners with more developed tactile skills will prefer to touch and explore anything new with their hands. They will choose to disassemble and build and not just hear or see the thing. The child is preoccupied with assembling and taking apart objects, devices, LEGO, etc. is probably a tactile learner (e.g., the Gymboree room, rich in colors and textures, gives the child a multisensory experience and encourages movement). The purpose of multisensory learning is to allow each learner to learn in their preferred way, as part of a group of different learners. The teacher must create learning so that a single activity activates all the senses; each child thus finds their way to learn experientially. Teaching should accommodate everyone. Experiential learning, then, is meaningful learning.

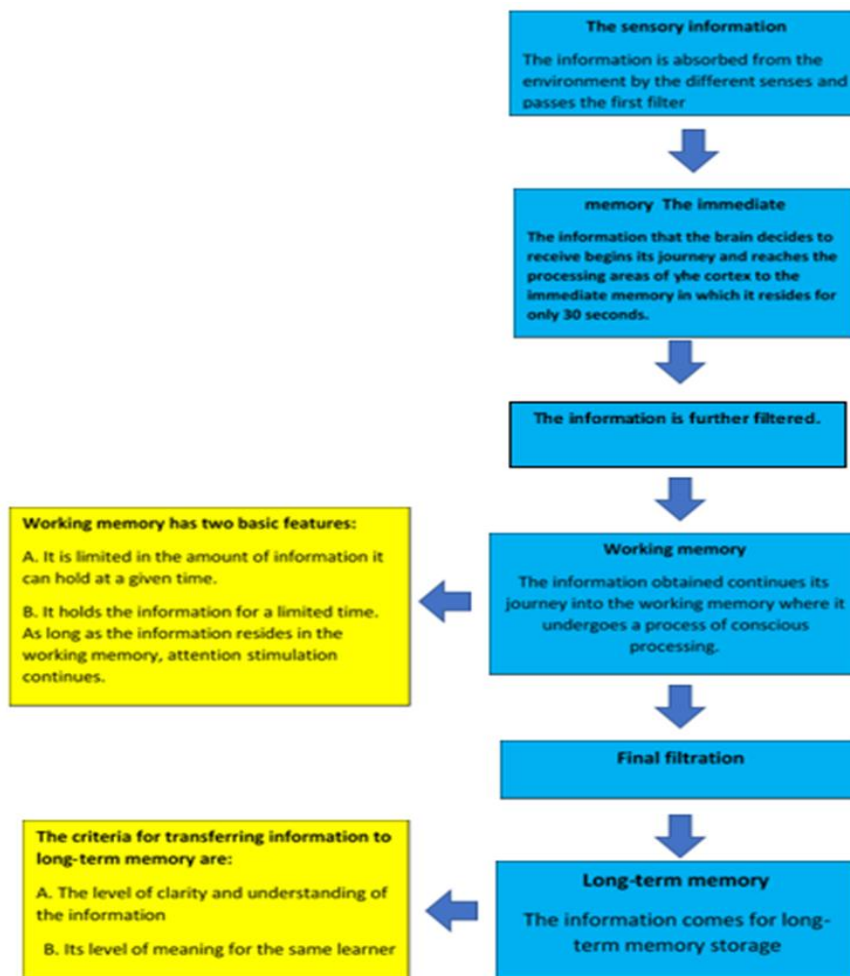
Also, Souza (2011) explains that as reading is communication between several centers in the brain and the nervous system connects the systems of vision, hearing, processing, and phonological meaning, it is desirable for these parts to grow biologically mature and sufficiently developed for the child to start reading. In such case also, for all these systems of sight, phonological

meaning, and processing to continue to develop properly, one must continue to strengthen these connections through experiential and sensory stimuli.

6.4. Resources: Material Resources Involving the Five Senses in Teaching the Letters, Vocabulary, and Sentences in Hebrew

In his book "How the Brain Learns" , Sousa (2014) presents a model that illustrates the complex findings of neuroscientists metaphorically so that the teacher who is not versed in the field of neuroscience can understand them. He created the model in the hope that this information would encourage the teacher to test their teaching processes against the processes occurring in the brain and produce a balance between the two.

This model presents a dynamic and interactive process that takes place in the brain during learning and includes learning, storage and memory.



The human brain takes from the environment information identified by our five senses. The five classic senses are sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch. They send special sensory receptors to the body that recognize internal signals. According to Sousa (2011), an individual has receptors in the ear and body muscles that identify the body's movement and location in space. The senses of hair in the ear are responsible for balance and gravity.

In the reading acquisition process, we will focus only on the five traditional senses to create experiential learning, rich in external stimuli, that strives to introduce the student optimally to the world of reading and writing in the Hebrew language.

Furthermore, according to Sousa, the more we connect information with meaning for children, the greater the likelihood that students will store that

information in long-term memory. For example, if you watched a show, you would not remember the details - only whether it was fun or boring. Moreover, if the show reminded you of a personal experience, then the meaning was there, and you are more likely to remember more things from that show. The information goes into long-term memory.

For the complex process of learning to read to be done effectively, one must work in an experiential way filled with meaning. Below, we will explain and describe the resources related to the senses, which we will employ in teaching reading in Hebrew.

6.4.1. The First Sense: Hearing /Listening

Exposing the student to vocabulary is very important in the reading acquisition process and, later, reading comprehension. According to Herman (2021), the teacher must create sensory-motor images that include auditory, visual, textual, scented, and artistic properties for students to achieve verbal control. The goal is for students to understand the meaning of the words used in the adult world.

The classroom must offer regular practice; students should hear a story told by the teacher, watch a video clip by a skilled reader, or listen to a CD every day.

- a. Shared story-reading is another way to develop a rich dialogue with children. First-graders are expected to be familiar with children's books and the language of the books and will show interest in the stories and a desire to listen to them. Also, the children are supposed to know the reading and writing rules and the conventions of writing and printing. For example, they should be familiar with the direction of reading in Hebrew: from right to left (in a row), from top to bottom (on the page), and the spacing between the words, etc.

b. It is recommended to establish an active classroom "lending library". Teachers should ensure that the library includes a sufficient number of books available for the needs of regular classroom activities and home delivery, at least once a week, during the entire school period. Children should perceive books as important and helpful; teachers should respect books, and teach children how to preserve books.

c. It is recommended that the library in the classroom include a variety of books of different types - books designed to enrich knowledge such as encyclopedia, dictionary, science books, the human body, art as well as fiction and poetry books for children, tales, folk tales, and biblical stories.

The library should include translated books and books by various authors. It is recommended that the library have a few copies of specific books to allow for a joint study of a group of children. The teacher should lead and accompany studying sessions and allocate time for this in the system. There should be free access to the library.

d. To enrich linguistic knowledge, it is essential to have a fruitful discussion that will address the type of text. To this end, teachers have to draw the children's attention to the text, enrich their vocabulary by explaining difficult or new words in the story or song. Educators should encourage children to observe letter shapes, titles, chapter headings, and the differences in line lengths in the story or poem.

You can perform the same activities while listening to a song. One can teach the students the melody, learn the lyrics orally, interpret unfamiliar lyrics, and, of course, comprehend the meaning of the song and the poet's purpose.

Teachers should play rhyming games with the children and sing complex songs of a high linguistic level with rhymes. The assimilation of rhymes requires less effort when the teacher sings the song (lyrics and melody together) with the children.

Art and music are vital to our evolutionary development, and it is not for nothing that they evolved first, before the development of writing and reading. According to Sousa (2017), many cultures engage in dialogue only through the world of art and sounds. In addition, Sousa explains that specific structures in the cerebral cortex respond well to sounds, melody, and dance. Musical literacy refers to the child's ability to communicate through verbal and nonverbal representations (Gordon & Brown 2017). One way to cultivate musical literacy is for the teacher to introduce a musical piece through a movement that describes the musical work, its form, flow, and energy, with subsequent imitation of the said movement by the children. The presentation of music in motion is a means to remember and reproduce the work of music or its excerpts and encourage exposure to diverse interpretations. A second way is through graphic drawing. Children listen and record a rhythm, a musical piece, or a song. Through observation of children's drawings, one can discern the developmental process they are going through: from an associative to a detailed description that reflects their musical understanding and thinking style (Kobobi, 2004). Children can express the atmosphere and associations by drawing, for instance, a flower or a butterfly - to describe a happy-sounding passage or a monster - to depict a frightening passage.

The recording of the music reflects the child's musical understanding. The trained educator provides positive, credible, and detailed feedback and thus boosts the child's ability and cultivates their status in their own eyes and the eyes of their friends. This way, the child builds awareness of their intuitive knowledge, and drawing becomes a learning strategy.

Early musical experience, accompanied by the cultivation of literacy, may improve language reading and writing skills. Music is a source of pleasure, so using it to develop literacy will likely be both productive and pleasant. According to Browne (2002), language development does not occur in one subject area only; it draws its content from other learning contents and

serves as an aid in all areas of school life and beyond. Most activities entail conversation, encourage and even require speech and listening for various purposes. Over time, children learn oral techniques and skills as their use gradually develops.

The list of activities mentioned in Hearing and Listening:

Sensory motor imagery;

Hear a story;

Video clip;

Listening to a CD;

Reading a story together;

Lending Books;

Fruitful discussion;

Vocabulary enrichment;

Explain difficult words;

Encourage students to observe the text (the shape of the letters, the structure of the text, titles and more);

Listen to songs;

Play rhyming games;

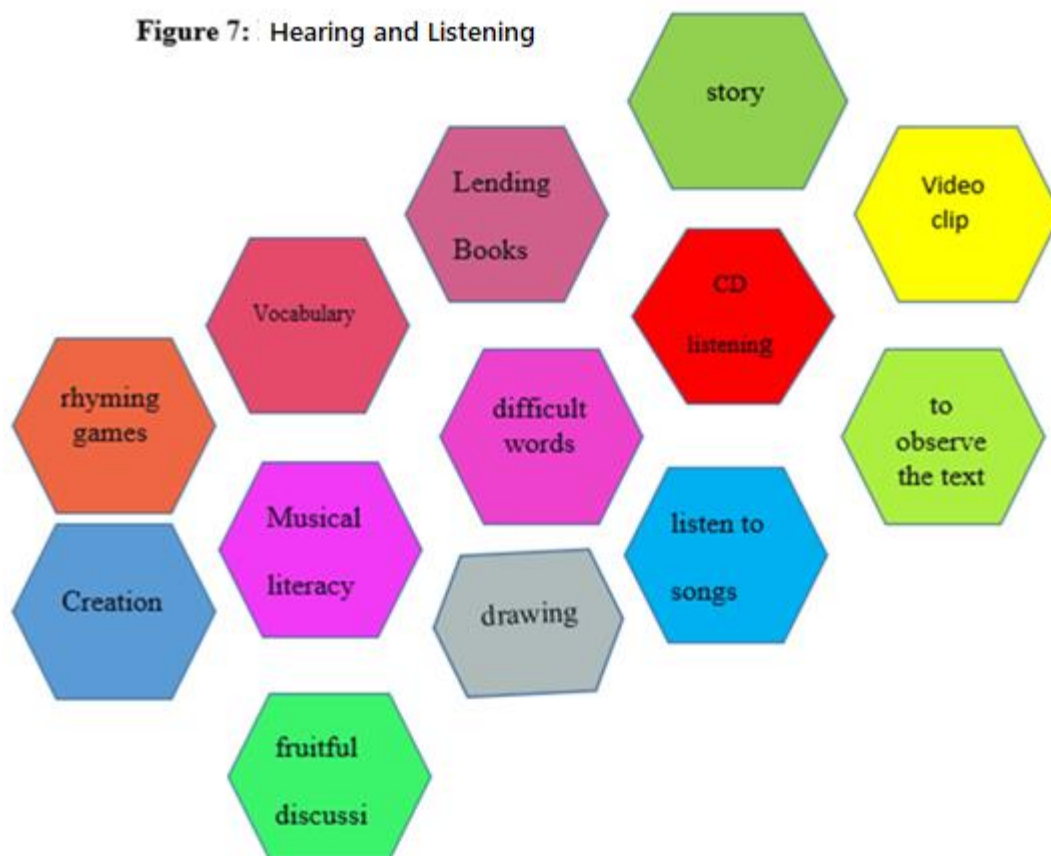
Musical literacy;

Creating through movement;

Observing and deepening graphic drawing;

Creating following listening to music.

Figure 7: Hearing and Listening



6.4.2. The Second Sense: Visualization

The multi-sensory approach emphasizes the importance of activation and participation of most senses in learning to read but mainly the integration between the auditory system (hearing) and the visual system (vision) According to Haber (1990), the more senses involved in the learning process, the stronger the input, leaving a more solid record and contributing to more effective learning.

Herman (2021) emphasizes in his study that students who produce sensory-motor images produce better memory of words and their meaning - better than students who practice verbal meanings for words. In addition, he argues that a good teacher prompts students to produce sensory-motor images that will include auditory, visual, textural, olfactory, sensory, and artistic

features for the newly acquired information to be absorbed into long-term memory and the brain. Examples:

The reading process is complex and involves various cognitive processes. Per Breznitz (2006), one of the primary and necessary processes is synchronization or timing between the phonological process and the visual processing. For the retrieval process to occur, this process must be efficient. Visual processing is at the heart of the reading process and is the central aspect that distinguishes ordinary from struggling readers. The key research approach in the psychology of reading posits that the same phonological decoding processes occurring during word recognition and word processing are steered by the visual attention resources needed to be available during the process and, accordingly, during reading (Everatt, 1999).

The word recognition process begins with visual processing of the orthographic pattern of the word. The eyes scan the written pattern using a series of fixation movements and saccades. When the eyes stabilize on the word during scanning, the condition is called fixation. The eye movement towards the next word is called a saccadic motion. The two eye movements, both fixative and vigilant, play a vital role in centralizing the word pattern scanned in the most sensitive area of the eye, the fovea area, to increase the chance of the word processing in a maximum way. The success of the said visual scanning process requires the mobilization of sufficient visual attention resources. On the other hand, studies in the psychology of reading show that flaws in the visual attention processes interfere with eye movements during the reading process of words (Everett et al., 1999; Hierwang & Hugdahl, 2003; Jaśkowski & Rusiak, 2005).

Psychophysiology and neuropsychology studies suggest that the areas of vision in the parietal lobe of the brain are related to the direction of eye movements and visual attention processes (Glickstein, 2000; Godale & Milner, 2004; Milner & Godal, 1995).

Kinsey et al. (2004) assume that visual attention plays an especially significant role in reading new words and prayers. On the other hand, the failure of readers with reading disabilities in reading simple words can be attributed to their deficiency in the visual processing of the orthographic pattern of the written word (Heiervang & Hugdahl, 2003). A similar failure in processes that involve visual attention during reading results in indistinguishability of the letter's position in a word; this condition causes misreading and switching the order of letters in the word (leading, as mentioned, to altered word meanings) (Friedman & Gvion, 2001).

Studies comparing the performance of readers with reading disabilities versus regular readers in tasks that examine visual attention and spatial processing processes have shown that readers with reading disabilities have shown lower performance than regular readers (Casco & Coauthors, 1998; Facchetti & Turatto, 2000; Vidyasagar & Pamer, 1999). Based on the review above, it is apparent that the research in the field of reading acquisition and word recognition skills highlights the development of a variety of cognitive functions related to the reading acquisition process, the most prominent of which is the synchronization between the phonological process and the visual processing.

In order for the auditory system to translate what it heard to the visual system, the following resources must be used:

Producing sensory-motor images;

Sensory-motor images;

Displaying the words as a global template;

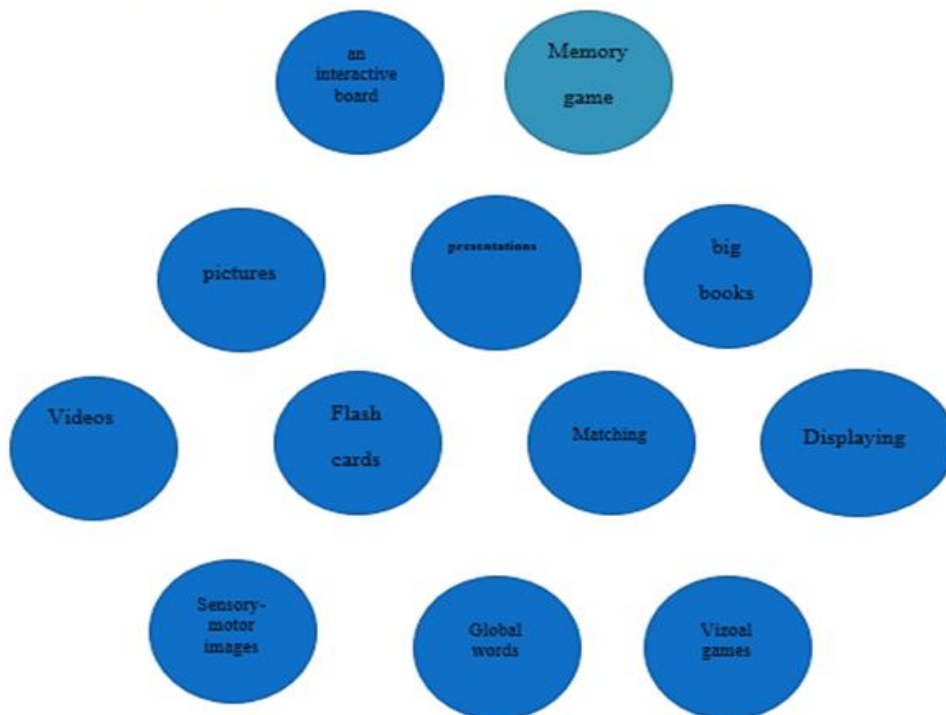
Matching word to picture;

Flash cards;

Videos;

Large pictures;
Large books;
Colorful pictures that attract the eye;
Presentations;
Games on an interactive board;
Memory game.

Figure 8: *Visualization*



6.4.3. The Third Sense: Touch/Contact

It is through the senses that young children perceive the world around them. They actively use sound, appearance, touch, smell, and taste to feel and perceive relationships of various kinds, such as size relationships, figure and background, cause and effect relationships, and more. The sensory experiences lead to different emotions and the organization of cognitive structures.

The artistic experience by its very nature is related to sensory experience. Integrated learning through the senses is natural, but its enrichment and cultivation are subject to the conscious and informed intervention of the educational staff.

According to Farner (1943), the Visual-Auditory-Kinesthetic (Tactile) learning method refers to activating the kinesthetic and tactile senses in the reading acquisition process simultaneously with sight and hearing. It creates a situation where the student is "bombarded" with visual, vocal, artistic, and tactile performances.

Learning to read and write through creating materials is a significant source of sensory, emotional, and cognitive experiences essential for the child's general development. Therefore, we should value its significance and contribution to the building and realization of developmental and educational goals for all children.

In an educational environment with set creative focal points, students have a first-hand experience of the materials, to ensure the attainment of crucial developmental goals: emotional-social development, sensory-motor development (gross motor skills, fine motor skills, visual-motor coordination), and cognitive enrichment (Koppel et al., 1979).

Art materials, such as clay, chinks, hand paints, gouache paint, and glue are multi-directional materials, usable in a wide variety of ways, and they allow learning and expression for children of all ages, abilities, and needs regardless of their intellectual, emotional, or "artistic" abilities (Haas, 2000). Apart from

the learning and tactile experiences, using creative materials allows for differential work. In differential work, each child receives treatment according to their needs. When children work with art materials, their end-products are not judged and assessed as a test. Each piece is unique and special for the children themselves.

Working with these materials promotes abstract thinking (linking action to the outcome, viewing and planning processes, sorting, naming, etc.). The use of substances stimulates the children's senses; they turn the stimuli into information. In the future, the data be processed and become available and ready to use.

Working with art material is a strenuous activity of trial and error during which children learn to choose, plan, shape, and create. It is a lengthy process of the child's discovery of what they can do with art material. According to Haas (2000), working with materials fosters children's learning about their colors, textures, and other properties. Moreover, they improve their motor coordination, significantly strengthen the muscles and the shoulder girdle, especially during the graphic design stage of writing the letters and words. In addition, it is an essential ability when they reach the stage when they want to shape the materials into specific shapes, e.g., the alphabet letters. The educational staff must support the children and help them develop their abilities and independence to face the challenges themselves. Once children understand that they can create as much as they please, they will spend a lot of time in "centers of creation", experimenting with materials and experiencing positive, enriching, and motivating experiences (Copple et al., 1979).

It is essential to create a good, open, and accepting atmosphere and an educational climate that boost and encourage children's personal and emotional expression because they learn to meet adults' expectations that do not always match children's authentic aspirations.

Students should have access to the materials and be encouraged to create independently. The student who created the artwork deems it beautiful and is sentimentally attached to it, even though it may not look aesthetically pleasing and beautiful. Hence, educators should treat student work with respect and sensitivity, encourage and support the student, and give them constructive feedback to improve their subsequent work.

The following are examples of different art materials and their use during the lesson with clay/plasticine and wax chalk and hand paint:

Clay/Plasticine/Dough

Clay activity provides immense sensory pleasure. The feeling of moisture and stickiness of the clay pleases the children and helps them focus. It is a motor-sensory experience that transcends children's motor-sensory experiences into activities of pleasure and learning. They can learn outside the classroom, in the playground, play letter-related games to incorporate action and the whole body movements into a learning experience.

Working with clay is offered the whole week as a group activity. The children sit in a chair with a backrest at a free table. The teacher hands them individual clay balls, and they work directly on the table so that their movements are as unrestrained as possible. The teacher sits in such a way as to see all the children and reach them without getting up. Children can create:

- their first name;
- the new sound they learned that day;
- a character that begins with the newly-learned sound;
- a word that starts with the newly-learned sound;
- a character/ characters from a story told by the teacher.

It is recommended to supplement students' toolkits with a rolling pin, bowls, and stencils of different animal shapes and letter shapes. Children can

utter sounds, and afterward, together with their group members, create new words.

The clay works of art are left to dry on a cardboard tray. When they are dry, children can paint them in vibrant colors. The teacher can send the children's work to their parents to show them what is happening in the classroom. Alternatively, they can create a classroom corner to display pieces of artwork with the children's nametags.

Wax chalk

Chalk gives children great learning opportunities; it is thick, made of good wax, and saturated with pigments. Wax chinks are hard, tilt with pressure, and allow children to produce new shades. When the child grips wax chalk, the teacher can examine their grip, and if it is incorrect, the parents are advised to contact an occupational therapist. Drawing in chalk is offered as a group activity. The children sit around the table, and the teacher hands each child a flat box with five chinks and a drawing sheet. The children study and explore, each in their way, the properties of the chalk and paper. During the activity, the teacher imparts work habits: straightens a crumpled page, picks up chalk that has fallen to the floor, returns a page that has moved, and of course, examines the proper grip of the wax chalk and the experience.

Additional activities include:

- free drawing as a continuation or summary of a previous activity such as a story, a new topic studied, and more;
- writing the first name;
- experience in writing the letters and sounds;
- improving painting skills within the boundaries of the drawing/page

Hand paint

Unlike clay and other activities, hand-painting activities require children to have advanced self-control and remember complex activity habits, so it is best to start only after the children have acquired steady work habits in other activities. Hand-painting allows relief from the cleaning requirements and is suitable for students not afraid or averse to dirt.

The serving set allows children sensory expression while setting clear boundaries. The page in front of the child is the space for their independent and unique activities, and they must learn to respect their friends' activities and be careful not to harm them or their page (social field). When children are engaged in a sufficiently emotional and stimulating activity, teachers can demand social concessions from them (Haas, 2000).

The recommended place for hand-painting activities is a shaded terrace, outside the classroom or the school junkyard, where they work and develop a growing range of movements. They can experiment as they please, as long as the paper remains intact and on the table.

- a. When they smear paints on the page, children can experiment with writing with their fingers:
- b. write their first name, experience writing the alphabet letters, writing the newly-learned sound, writing newly-learned words, writing their classmates' names.

Other materials, e.g., sand, soap bubbles, shaving foam, etc., can be utilized so long as they do not endanger students who create and enjoy the touch. According to Browne (2002), teachers should not be content with making the materials accessible to students; they should inspire them toward creative, experiential, and learning activities to advance their achievement level. Students' work and interaction within the group foster dialogue and discussion among the group members.

The resources mentioned in this passage belonging to the sense of touch/contact are:



6.4.4. The Fourth and Fifth Senses: Taste and Smell

The senses of taste and smell are related, and a defect in one means the other also becomes impaired. The taste center in the brain receives signals from taste and smell receptors found in the mouth and nose. When a receptor cell is activated, it sends neural signals to the taste and smell areas of the cortex.

It is worth mentioning that the nerve signals generated in response to the chemicals found in food are sent to the area in the cortex responsible for taste. Similarly, the olfactory signals are formed in response to chemicals floating in the air and sent to the cortex area responsible for the smell. When new substances stimulate the receptors, the brain shapes a memory of the odor to reproduce it the next time it encounters that odor (Sousa, 2017). When you want to give students the sense of experience and learning memory, it is possible and recommended to use these two senses, taste and smell.

The possible activities to implement in the classroom are:

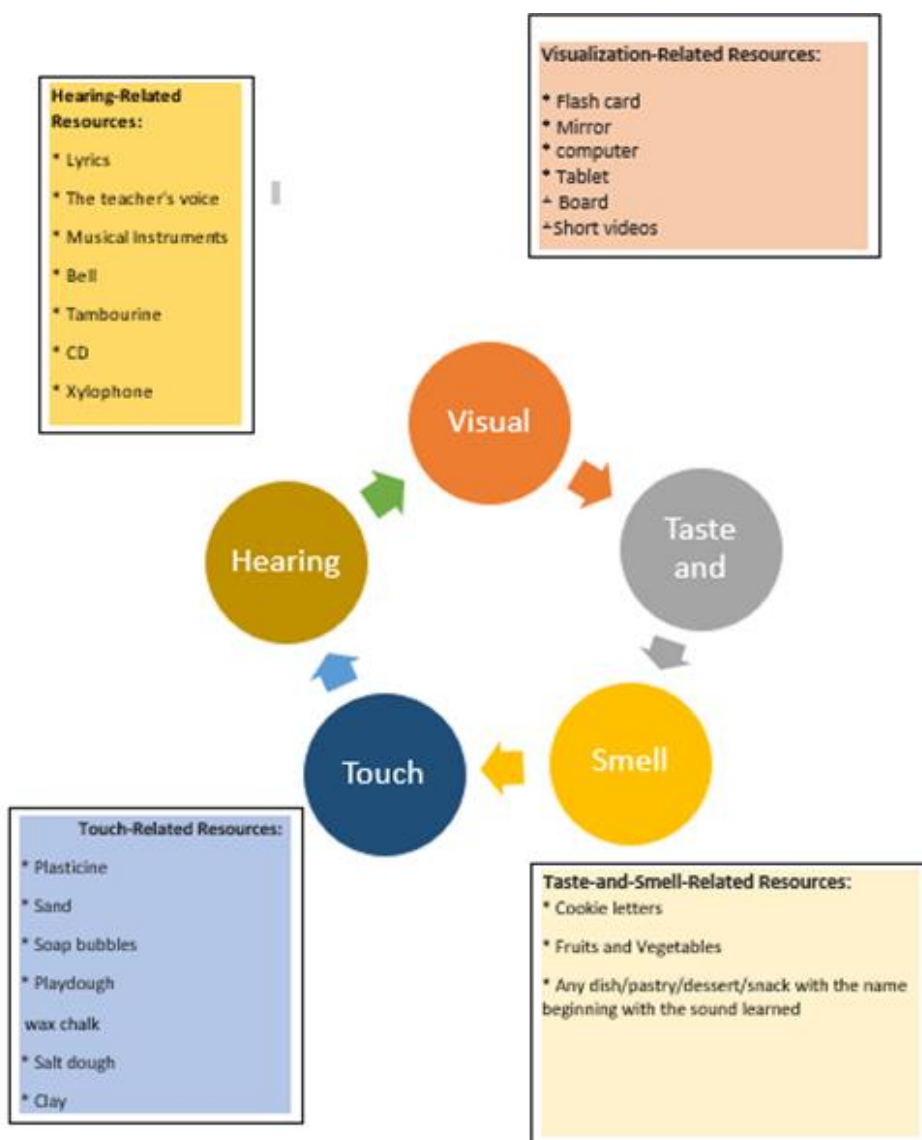
- Letter cookies - students can be taught the design of the letters through the preparation of cookies. The taste and smell experience will serve to support long-term memory.
- Fruit and vegetables - the teacher should bring fruits and vegetables of different colors and types to the class. Students will sort the fruits and vegetables, write their names, learn about their nutritional values and the importance of eating fruits and vegetables for health benefits.
- Introducing into teaching the names of any dish/pastry/dessert/snack that start with the sound that the teacher chose to teach during the lesson.

You can also write down a sample recipe of the dishes: a vegetable soup or a pie recipe.

All the said activities will facilitate happy learning in a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere with scents that children usually associate with home. The odors

will stimulate the receptors in the brain, and, for instance, when the student encounters the familiar scent, they will recall learning about the letter S and cooking vegetable soup in the class.

To sum up, the teacher should use different kind of activities when teaching how to read and write where senses have to be implied, because help the brain in its learning process. These activities need the proper materials according to the different senses as we mentioned before, and as we can see in the following picture (Figure 11)



6.5. The Students

As we explained in depth in Chapter Six, many studies indicate that students enjoy learning vocabulary via motor and multisensory activities. Matthias et al. (2021) explain that children and adults take pleasure in a combined enrichment and multisensory and motor-sensory pedagogy that includes images or gestures. Multisensory activities significantly improve learning outcomes relative to nonsensory learning. In addition, physical activity while learning helps increase memory, compared to physically inactive learning.

The fact teaches us that students' activation and participation in the teaching and learning processes is preferable to watching a teacher serve as a pedagogical factor performing the movements.

Per Herman (2021), the teacher must create motor-sensory images that include auditory, visual, textual, fragrant, and kinesthetic characteristics to make students master verbal control. The goal is for students to understand the meaning of the words used in the adult world.

Multisensory stimulation can aid children's learning process and self-expression, increase body awareness and help them progress. A multisensory activity provides a unique opportunity and experience for children to reach self-development in social, cognitive, and motor-sensory abilities. Multisensory learning stimulates the children's senses while learning.

Setyawati (2017) defined the multisensory system as one of the systematic methods aimed at helping children increase their cognitive ability by focusing on all the senses that stimulate them. A multisensory method enhances teaching by involving multiple senses: sight, hearing, kinesthetic-tactile. This method can help children with different levels of learning and intelligence. Indirectly, this method allows children to have an opportunity to reach their self-potential. Children who do not receive encouragement and an

environment rich in reading materials when they are six years old will tend to lose motivation for reading in the future. Therefore, reading difficulties early on in school can be overcome if six-year-olds gain experience and have a particularly effective reading environment at home and school.

Reading involves an application of several strategies. Readers approach texts with the expectation that they are meaningful. To predict the words and the content they apply their familiarity with the subject, previous experience of written material, knowledge of reading, and expectation of meaning. When they read, the readers use knowledge of sounds, letters, words, and syntax. The reader's knowledge and experience, text structure strategies, sentence, and vocabulary level are combined to allow the student to read the words in the text and understand the author's meaning. According to Browne (2002), it is essential to develop all reading strategies to allow young children to become gradually more aware of reading functions and use their accumulated language knowledge and abilities. It is likely to happen when adults share and talk with children about books, stories, and environmental publications and teach them the skills of word, sentence, and text in the context of enjoyable reading experiences.

Young students learn to read based on oral language, learning through their experience as speakers and listeners. Children are familiar with syntactic, semantic, and auditory strategies as techniques of processing and producing oral language. Thus, they expect the language to make sense and understand what they hear. As they learn to read, children should become aware that written language has some similarities to oral language and thus be encouraged to apply their existing knowledge to the act of reading. Breznitz (2006) argues that it is essential to explain to students that reading implies reconstructing meaning and providing experiences through reading books, stories, and writing so that students understand the importance of reading and their motivation to learn will increase.

When children begin to learn the language orally, they do not learn speaking by sounds or by learning a set of pre-determined words and then practicing. What language learning occurs in the context of their experiences? In their speaking experience, children receive responses and encouragement from experienced speakers, usually the parents. Browne posits (2002) that children are not afraid to speak words, despite their inexperience and nonstandard language at an early stage. The listeners (parents/kindergartener/caregiver) respond with forgiveness and even enjoy and laugh at the words improperly used or pronounced. The child receives feedback from the experienced speaker, and their language thus gets refined. Learning to read may become easier and more relevant for children if teachers work with children on reading and employ methods similar to successful and supportive oral language development methods. Applying these agreeable conditions of learning language orally to learning to read leads to an approach in which children encounter, from the beginning, positive expectations of their ability to master a reading skill. They find themselves surrounded by books and reading sessions. When reading whole texts together, the adult's role is to support and expand what the child is attempting to do. It is the ideal context for encouraging learning: "Young children do not sit passively and wait to be told what to learn" (Browne, 2002). They learn through experience, by experiencing things, materials (mentioned above), and encounters with friends. Reading acquisition in children is an ongoing process of experimentation, risk-taking, and negotiation, in purposeful and intentional ways (Wray et al., 1989). During their early learning about the world, they are exposed to printed material in kindergarten, at home, and school. Although they cannot read or write skillfully, they understand a lot about literacy, the purposes of reading and writing, and how others read and write. As they grow up and watch other readers, they respond with curiosity and strive to imitate readers. Therefore, a teacher must understand that the student possesses considerable knowledge in

literacy, and the process of learning to read must be part of the sequence of language learning. Thus, per Brown (2002), teachers can reject a sequential reading approach and other teaching programs, claiming that the child is a passive learner. It will allow teachers to adapt their teaching style to the children's needs. Teachers need to think about the goals in reading and explain to students why adults and children read. When children identify their reasons for learning, they learn actively and with ease.

Teachers can state several reasons to students of the importance of reading: (a) for pleasure; (b) as a purposeful activity that often has an outcome and helps to fulfill roles in various areas, such as reading recipes for cakes/cookies/pastries/stews, a shopping list, operation manual for a new device, magazines/newspapers, ads, watching a movie with subtitles, reports, credit card statements, and more; (3) academic purpose: at school/college/university - reference books, textbooks, articles, journals.

Adult readers read a broad range of written work in various situations and for numerous and varied reasons, but their reading is always purposeful. When teachers and other adults are asked why children learn to read, their answers often fall into two categories: the enjoyment associated with reading and the information it offers them. These are valid and positive reasons but may not be reflected in the classroom methods or ongoing learning goals that teachers plan. Reading practice often boosts children to improve their reading ability. Sometimes improvement instead of pleasure in learning makes learning reading futile and tiresome, so in such cases, teachers also should exercise sensitivity and not overburden students lest they develop objections.

Learning to read and write does not include only the knowledge of how to read and write, Brown (2002) argues. It is crucial to explain the place and value of these activities in the student's life. As reading is vastly meaningful, it is not enough for teachers to get excited about reading because they believe it is a fun and worthwhile activity that can be useful in later stages of education.

Teachers should know how children can use this ability and set their goals for reading instruction. Teaching reading for fun is not the most important goal. The most meaningful goal in teaching children to read is to empower them personally as much as possible, at the moment and in the future. Therefore, it is essential to offer children a broad reading curriculum that reflects the opportunities that reading can offer them immediately. Children need to understand that reading is fun, informative, and relevant to their current life and will be relevant also in their future.

The student's role:

- Students benefit from integrated enrichment and multi-sensory pedagogy
- Students benefit from motor-sensory learning that includes images or gestures
- Physical activity with students helps increase memory
- Students improve results through multisensory learning
- Students should be partners in the learning process
- Students need to understand the meaning of the words so that they can use them in the future
- Students will learn to express themselves better in kinaesthetic multisensory learning.
- The student will increase his cognitive ability through the use of all senses
- Students of different intelligence levels will be able to make use of all the senses.
- Students will improve their sensory ability following the use of sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch.
- Experiential learning encourages students and motivates them

- Students will want to read with fun, they will enjoy reading and writing and it will become an experience.
- Students will be able to overcome reading and writing difficulties following experiential learning and will experience success.
- The student will expand his knowledge and be exposed to a variety of fields and topics, thereby improving reading comprehension in the further process of acquiring reading.
- The student will develop reading strategies when exposed to a variety of theoretical texts.
- The student will expand his vocabulary
- When using oral language, the student will know syntactic strategies that he will use in the future when writing texts
- The student learns through experience, so if the experience is enjoyable and experiential, he will want to try tasks he has not encountered before.
- The student has a lot of knowledge in the field of literacy and this will serve him for learning to read and write later.
- The student should know why it is important to learn to read and write
- The student needs to practice reading in order for the reading to be fluent and the understanding to be accurate.
- The student must know that reading is fun, informative and relevant for him.

6.6. The Teacher

Teachers of young students know a lot about reading; they acquired the knowledge in the teachers' initial training courses and continue to update their knowledge by attending advancement courses and team-development days. Any discussion of school learning will almost always include some reference to reading. Browne (2001) argues that teachers are aware of arguments and

controversies surrounding accepted practices and resources. They know that reading standards are dominant in the minds of parents, governors, principals, employers, and the media. As teachers of young students, they will spend many teaching hours each week helping children learn to read through a series of exercises that seem to work for them and the students they teach. Despite the national curriculum, official guidelines, policies, and team implementation plan, each school curriculum will vary from class to class and teacher to teacher. Curriculum planning begins with teachers' different beliefs about the purpose of education, such as that students become better citizens, gain knowledge, and more. Each viewpoint will affect the content planning, the set priorities, and the organization of the curriculum. Teachers also have beliefs about the value and use of reading. They are aware of the value that society ascribes to reading. They also know how reading is applied out-of-school. Reading is the basis of all other fields of study and, therefore, should be well established and should not be missed at any stage in the reading acquisition process.

The teacher is seen as someone who can and should transfer knowledge to the student based on their existing thinking structures and learning abilities regarding each student's differential needs. The teacher should serve as an agent of knowledge because the changes in human thinking structures are perceived as a physiological and interactive product of neurological development combined with environmental stimuli that penetrate and shape the brain system and affect the child's intellectual development, according. Teachers do not have the power to change the developmental process and can only realize it. The differences between students stem from their genetic diversity, so if the teacher sees themselves as destined to change the student, they will be able to do so with appropriate tools and tailored teaching methods. According to Fierstein (1988), the theory of structural cognitive diversity perceives man as a creature with automatic plasticity, an ability for self-change that can be steered in all directions. The basis for the capacity for change is the

ability of an individual to choose, which frees him from a deterministic dependence on the ecological or physiological state. The capacity for change itself is a product of learning processes. This very capacity for self-change enables a person's survival in the reality of an ever-changing environment. Human beings can change themselves.

This learning process is very effective because, in an age of rapid changes in the world of knowledge, the frequent and fast technological and scientific changes make what the teacher teaches the child today irrelevant when the child leaves school. This situation requires the student to be equipped with thinking and learning tools when he leaves school that will allow him to update his knowledge and adapt effectively to the changes that are taking place in the emerging world of knowledge.

Students have an innate ability and learning strategies inherent in them from a very young age. Thus, according to Browne (2002), teachers must consider the way young children learn and what they may know about literacy when planning a reading acquisition plan and utilize their existing learning abilities and strategies. There is now a more profound understanding of how children learn in general and how they learn to read (Sousa 2011). Formal curricula support approaches and activities built on what children know and can do and require practical involvement and interactive reading development programs. The teachers are required to teach via modeling, demonstration, sharing, and training, and encouraged to plan active learning.

Teachers serve as mediators in transferring knowledge to students. If teachers are unaware of this, they can accidentally trigger a negative transfer in learning situations as promptly as positive. Most often, the transfer of information from long-term storage is induced by the learner's current environment, i.e. under the teacher's charge and responsibility.

At that point, the learning objectives meet the pedagogy in reading instruction. Zigler & Bishop (as cited in Sousa, 2011) argue that a good,

consistent, and effective early learning method fosters academic development, especially relating to programs based on differential and more diverse teaching than the programs based on direct instruction. Therefore, game-based learning experiences and experiential and fun learning can be equally effective in content delivery. The teacher's role is to provide children with developmentally appropriate and essential tools. That will lead to academic success in subsequent learning. For instance, teachers can initiate guided play and free play according to the learning content. When the teacher introduces the sound "a", students will be given card games with different words and asked to find the words containing the sound. Another option: a quartets card game, in which students need to assemble a quartet of identical content cards from their peers. The winning student is the one who has the highest number of quartets.

Teachers need to know how to differentiate between curriculum and pedagogy. The curriculum, usually dictated by the Ministry of Education or other government bodies, is only the basis and not the pedagogy itself. Namely, the teacher must design the learning environment while allowing children to choose between what to learn and how they are taught. The learning content must remain unaltered, and the teacher must carefully monitor the content in cooperation with the students. That would inspire a lot of control in their learning. The learning content can be presented in various ways, and the evidence suggests that diverse and multisensory approaches usually surpass the most effective strategy of teaching a particular topic. Good teachers recognize that these approaches are alternative because they create learning and teaching situations regarding the topic taught that encourage children to be active, engaged, and partners in the audience.

Also, free play is positively associated with socioemotional development and positive outcomes in language learning and literacy, enhanced extending vocabulary development, and significant improvement of academic skills. Playful learning enables rich content-teaching that combines elements of free

play, learning to discover creativity in a pleasant, relaxed, and nondomineering atmosphere. Children become experientially exposed to pedagogy; their motivation for learning increases. They will not develop objections and frustrations because their lack of control will not be conspicuous in play and fun activities.

Teachers who embrace diverse experiential and multisensory pedagogy provide students with cognitive tools, alleviate the stress in the classroom, generate joy, pride, and self-confidence.

In essence, it seems that in the 21st century, there is an understanding that teachers need to change their teaching methods. Traditional teaching views the teacher as the sole source of knowledge in a classroom setting: a single teacher exercises frontal teaching and structured learning in a classroom filled with students. The whole class learns one subject, and all students progress at an equal pace. The direct frontal teaching must be left behind, and the transition made to diverse multisensory, creative, and exploratory teaching. The teacher is no longer a knowledge agent; The teacher will become a mediator and facilitator, provide the students with the necessary games, work and art materials, and guide the students in studies that are compatible with the government and school curriculum in a pleasant way, the teacher facilitates the interaction in the classroom, in a relaxed atmosphere that is not dominant or threatening.

Teacher rules:

- Teachers should update their knowledge by attending promotion courses and team development days.
- The discussions with other teachers at the school will take place on the subjects of reading and writing.
- A teacher will spend many hours helping children learn to read and write.

- The contents of the teaching will vary from class to class and from teacher to teacher according to the needs of the students
- The teacher will determine the purpose of education and determine the curriculum in the class
- A teacher should know that reading and writing are the basis of all subjects of study
- The teacher will serve as a knowledge agent for the student and know how to shape the brain system that affects the intellectual development of the child.
- A teacher can help every student learn with the help of appropriate tools and adapted teaching methods.
- The teacher will free the student from deterministic dependence so that in the future the student can update his knowledge and adapt quickly to the changing world outside the school walls.
- The teacher should know how to take advantage of the student's intellectual abilities and learning strategies.
- The teachers are required to teach through modeling, demonstration, sharing and training, and to encourage the students for active learning.
- A consistent and good learning method fosters academic development.
- The teacher should give the student appropriate tools for developmental learning
- A teacher should know how to differentiate between curriculum and pedagogy
- The teacher will choose the educational content according to the students of the class and with their participation.
- The teacher must follow the curriculum
- The teacher will improve the students' vocabulary and literacy level.
- The teacher must design an experiential, enjoyable and motivating learning environment.

- The teacher must instill a calm, pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom and not overpowering and threatening.
- The teacher will provide the students with the necessary games, work and art materials, and will guide the students for individual or group work.
- The teacher must establish good relationships with the students of the class and encourage them in their success.

Learning Styles

Students are new to the process of acquiring reading and writing, and we must remember that most students are different and diverse, each student has their own strengths and weaknesses, so we need to use diverse teaching methods in order to reach all the students in the class.

6.7. Reading Instruction Stages Based on the Five Senses

First-graders come to school from different kindergartens; some arrive prepared for first grade, whereas others are not. Therefore, preparation is necessary. The first and fundamental preparation steps are:

1. Directions in space - right-left, top-down, in front, behind.
2. Phonology - an opening sound, a closing sound.
3. Familiarity with the letters - names and writing.

The study of the Hebrew language must be cultivated while taking into account the main stages of the literacy process related to the five senses, namely: spatial orientation, phonological awareness, analysis and synthesis, hand-eye coordination, familiarity with the names of letters, sounds, words, sentences, syntax and semantics.

6.7.1. The First Stage: Spatial Orientation

It is the ability to know where different objects are in space and where the person is in relation to the objects and people/children in that space.

At this stage, the student has to activate their senses to understand their position at any given time. The student must have a sensory awareness that forms the basis for the absorption and understanding of the objects around them in the world. Unlike European languages, Hebrew is written from right to left. The student must orient themselves in the direction of writing in the notebook. Even if the student is required to write down and describe the position of an object in space, they have to use spatial directions.

The student's entry into school initially comes with intense anxiety following the transition from a small kindergarten space to considerably larger school space. Therefore, the student is required to orient themselves in space. It requires several actions:

a. The teacher introduces the students to the school space, especially the places the student will need to go to, such as the toilet, teachers' room, principal's room, nurse's room, shelter, and, of course, the entrances and exits from the school.

b. During the first month of school, an older student accompanies each young student and helps them get from place to place until they feel safe enough to move around freely. Students who feel safe in their learning environment will be free from anxiety and open to learning.

c. Classroom activities are conducted to strengthen spatial awareness. For example, the exercise for strengthening the right hand - raising the right hand, indicating silence or a need to go to the bathroom. The reinforcement of the awareness of the right hand is conducive to students' understanding that the other hand is left.

d. Games. Students play with the teacher different spatial orientation games. For instance, the teacher hides an object in the classroom, and the students need to find it based on the teacher's clues, e.g., "The object is on the table", "It is near the closet", "It is between the flowerpot and the computer".

6.7.2. The Second Stage: Phonological Awareness

As a basis for reading, students should master the phonological processes. Segal, 2003, and Berman & Ravid, 1999, argue that this stage is the most important and predictive of students' reading ability. The phonological awareness stage is a direct continuation of the child's familiarity with the spoken language. Through phonological awareness, the child understands the existing connection between the phonetic sequence and the meaning. At a later stage, writing will be added, i.e., the visual/graphic representation. Therefore, the teacher should focus on the opening sound of the word, the sounds that make up the word, and the last sounds of the word. At this point, students experience and learn word analysis and synthesis.

Suggestions for activities:

- Play songs with opening and closing sounds.
- The teacher displays pictures and asks what the opening or closing sound of the word is.
- The teacher breaks down the words, and the students make up the words they have heard.
- Students break words down, and their classmates say the whole word.

6.7.3. The Third Stage: Knowledge of the Letters of the Alphabet

Familiarity with the letters is crucial in establishing reading and writing. During the first month (longer, if necessary), it is recommended to conduct multisensory classroom activities: play games, sing songs, to get acquainted with the letters.

Each letter is studied separately by its name and graphic form. For example, the teacher introduces the letter A to students, teaches its name ("Aleph" in Hebrew), and shows how to write it.

The direction of writing is very significant Hebrew because, as mentioned above, it is written from right to left. The letters will be displayed to students permanently above the classroom board. Every day they will repeat and memorize the previously-learned letter and learn a new one.

Suggestions for activities:

- The song of signals: Every morning opens with a song.
- Students draw the letters in different ways: on the friend's back, on a dry-erase board, in the sand, using shaving foam, in plasticine, and more.
- In the letter recognition stage, the teacher will use creative materials extensively. Through multisensory experience, the 22 letters will be internalized and learned in Hebrew.
- Movement: Students make the signal using the body parts. They can also get help from a classmate.
- Students go out to the schoolyard and create letters using leaves, stones, earth, branches, etc.

Planning the writing on the page, writing directions, phonological awareness, and familiarity with the letters are the most elementary steps in teaching reading in Hebrew.

Knowing the letters by their names and form is very important because once students learn the letter names, they will begin connecting sounds to the letters that represent them.

Writing

The acquisition process of writing in Hebrew occurs in the early stages of reading acquisition. Along with the knowledge of letters and sounds, the

visual graphic phoneme representation is also important. The process will be gradual: at first, the students will be required to write letters, then words, sentences, and short stories.

Writing practice can occur in a group or individually.

Recommendations:

- The teacher writes on a large sheet of paper so that the children can see what and how she is writing (Browne 2002).
- While writing, the teacher will draw the students' attention to the following facts: (a) Hebrew is written from right to left; (b) The design of the Hebrew letters starts from the top to bottom; (c) Before writing, one has to plan the work on the page; (d) It is essential to mark spacing between words; (e) A full stop or question mark should be placed at the end of a sentence, depending on the type of sentence.

Writing should be practiced with students along with reading instruction. These skills must be learned and practiced together because they are inseparable.

6.7.4. The Fourth Stage: Knowledge of the Sounds

There are five vowel sounds (A, E, I, O, U) in the Hebrew language, usually written under consonant letters. Children learn the sound "a" first - a simple sound to teach. Later the students will combine signal and movement and create a sound.

To avoid a fixation on the sound "a", it is advisable to teach 10-15 letters with this vowel sound and then move on to other vowel sounds.

Ideas for activities to get acquainted with the sounds and movements:

- Students can be given small mirrors and asked to look in the mouth while uttering the "a" sound. They will understand that they pronounce it with an open mouth.

- The teacher can dress up as a doctor who has come to examine the children and ask them to open their mouths and say: "Aaaa".
- The teacher asks the students to look for pictures in magazines that start with the sound they learned in class.
- Students will bring home objects from the lesson that begin with the newly-learned sound. In the next class, each student presents the gifts they have brought.
- The teacher introduces a sound and brings students a snack or dish that begins with the sound, e.g., the "b" sound. The teacher then distributes Bambah (Israeli snack) to the students.

Each lesson of vowel sound learning will include practicing writing it.

Ideas for practicing voice writing:

- The student can write the sound in the air with their finger.
- Children can write the sound on the body (it is also possible with the help of a friend): Each student can write the sound on the back of the friend.
- The student can make cookies in the shape of the newly-learned sounds.

It is mandatory to write the sound in a notebook. When writing in a notebook, the writing instructions should be emphasized and taught. Writing Hebrew letters is done from top to bottom. On the page, we start writing in Hebrew from right to left. Each lesson must be varied and experiential through songs, games, creation, and movement.

6.7.5. The Fifth Stage: Connecting Sounds into Words

Once we have learned the sounds and syllables, we begin connecting them, letter by letter. For instance, the syllables "bah" and "nah" form the word "banana".

Suggestions for activities for combining sounds into words:

- The teacher and students write sounds on balloons. Students must make up words. Whoever manages to create a word blows up the balloons.
- The teacher randomly places cards with sounds on the board. The students come to the board and try to form words. It is recommended to write the new words that the students compose on the board. Then they write the words on cards and keep them in a designated word box.

You can start every morning with taking the words out and reading them by the students. This way, we work on the visual and photographic channels of the students. Some students learn whole words. We have to enrich these students' vocabulary with many more words to enable them to work with word construction nonetheless - putting them together, breaking them down, and making up new ones.

Once we have finished learning short words, we move on to longer words. It is crucial to practice the words repeatedly, experientially, and engagingly through card games or writing in sand, on children's individual boards, etc.

6.7.6. The Sixth Stage: From Words to Sentences and Stories via Auditory and Kinesthetic Visual Aids.

Once students have learned the phonemes and word construction, the next step is constructing sentences. Sentence construction will be done through logical contexts, connecting words that function in connecting sentences and paragraphs in the text, representing the logical structure of the text. These contexts serve as signs to the reader in understanding the text, as they express the explicit inner consistency of the text (Bauman & Stevenson, 1986).

Halliday & Hasan (1976) divided conjunctions into four groups: connection, contrast, sequence, and cause, and added and created distinctions within each group. Each group comprises several words representing similar contexts; their use is subject to style, syntax, and linguistic combination.

The young learners' understanding of a text depends on the text characteristics. Therefore, according to Hare et al. (1989), a text organized in a clear and understandable logical structure will be easier to understand and recall.

As the logical organization of an expository text relies on the explicit and implicit congruence of the text, the knowledge of logical connections and their role in the text will be essential and help the reader significantly in understanding (Horning, 1993). Therefore, when there is a scarcity of linking words, it will lead to misinterpretation of the text. Hence, implicit coherence, more appropriate to the fourth-grade reading level and above, requires a high level of inference and a skilled reader who can gain insights thanks to extensive global context and knowledge.

Students need to understand that linking words are the basis for coherence in the sentence. Therefore, learning to construct sentences and put them together in a logical way should be done in several ways:

- To start teaching linking words with elementary linking words, e.g., and, if, but, because, when, and, naturally, the question words: why, what, where, etc.
- The teacher will prepare a classroom board with conjunctions that will be visible and clear to students when they perform the task of putting sentences together.
- Students will practice sentence construction in three stages: The first step is constructing two-word sentences, the second - three-word sentences, and the third - four and more-word sentences.

It is recommended to practice writing and reading sentences through:

- video games;
- word cards;
- writing sentences on a dry-erase board;

- spreading word cards on the board and asking students to compose sentences and write them down in a notebook.

Once students have thoroughly learned and practiced sentence construction, they can transition to reading and writing short stories.

Reading Books - Vocabulary

Along with learning sounds and words, it is essential to enrich children's language. We can do that via rich and dynamic literacy environments that provide children with opportunities to read and write, learn more about nature, and acquire literacy. They should have a writing area, a listening area, and a library area (Browne, 2001). All students' products will be displayed in class and illustrate the variety of their writing and creation work. A literate environment rich in books, such as stories, poems, rhymes, and information books, enhances students' linguistic world.

Suggestions for literacy activities using visual, auditory, and kinesthetic aids:

- Teachers should conduct frequent storytelling sessions, with opportunities for children to listen and independently read well-known stories and rhymes in the listening area.
- It is possible to make a good book exciting and appealing to students. While the teacher is reading, she can stop in the middle and ask the students questions, e.g., "What do you think will happen next?", "Did the protagonist in the story behave properly?", "Could he behave differently?"

When the teacher finishes reading the story, students can stage a show and act out the story. Students can play the roles of actors, directors, storytellers, etc. The entire learning process will be experiential and entertaining and encourage students' participation.

It is crucial to work on reading comprehension from the beginning of the reading acquisition process. Even when students are not yet skilled to read and

teachers tell or read them stories, they can ask what students learned from the story, or what it was about. When students start reading short sentences, e.g., *Dana ate a banana*, the teacher asks them: "Who ate a banana?", "What did Dana eat?".

- Children should have access to books - to read them in class and take home, and easy access to resources for writing.
- Teachers should ensure that the atmosphere throughout the school and classroom fosters and encourages independent learning.

The teacher should explicitly explain that students must attempt to resolve difficulties independently while learning before asking for help.

According to Browne (2001), in an environment that values the learning process and effort, it is easier to encourage children to read in a way that will allow them to take chances. Children will have less reading practice when reading slowly and relying on others. Clark (1976) and Clay (1979) discovered that children learn and become motivated by observing models and demonstrations of literate behavior and literacy. Students can perform the following tasks: reading stories, writing a diary, preparing presentations, helping others using information books, writing letters or notes to other children.

Students can read a book in sequels. It creates a lot of interest; they await the continuation of the story. The teacher may interest them in questions such as: "What do you think will happen next?", "What will Tom do?" Furthermore, book reading inspires the imagination and joy of reading.

Also, Browne (2001) argued that students grow familiar with a book read several times in the class and can read it later independently. The teacher may follow up reading by drawing the children's attention to words, letters, rhyming words, punctuation, etc. If the teacher wants to focus on a particular letter/word in the text, they can write them on the board and ask children to help compose word sequences to illustrate the learning point.

Books used for joint reading should be adapted to the students' age.

Therefore, the books must:

- contain language suitable for reading aloud;
- encourage prediction;
- be visually eye-catching and thus attract the reader's attention;
- encourage students to respond and thus enrich their spoken language;
- have a clear narrative structure and illustrations that support the narrative;
- contain texts with rhythm, rhyme, or repetition.

The teacher can also play a song or story on the radio, computer, etc.

The letters in the book should appear in clear and large font. Books in Hebrew should include vocalization notation due to the existence of two Hebrew writing systems: with a notation of vocalization signs (commonly used in children's books), and without.

Shared reading provides a visual and oral demonstration of reading. Through the experience of listening to the story, the students gain insights about reading and later will learn to do so independently.

6.7.7. The Seventh Stage: Fluency in Reading

Students will mobilize all their strengths and resources to decipher reading in the early stages of reading acquisition. While some students will be busy deciphering, they will not pay attention to the meaning and understanding of the text they read. The early stages are critical in the development of reading. The value that teachers ascribe to reading is evident in the aspects of their preparative and routine work plan; it should include individual reading sessions. The child should have time to read a whole story or chapter and discuss it with the teacher, who will recognize issues concerning reading, help, and share in the enjoyment and interest in reading.

For example, a teacher who wants to work with the student on reading fluency will take a particular text or reading book and present it to the student. The teacher will prepare in advance cards with the words that the student will encounter in the text and ask the student to read those words.

The student should be asked to read silently first and then aloud.

The silent reading stage is essential in deciphering while reading aloud should be fluent.

Individual reading sessions have a meaningful place in the classroom where children can read assisted by any attending adult. Children will also practice reading at home and continue the literacy process with their parents. The parent or teacher can read the passage aloud to the child, and the child will repeat/imitate it. The imitation stage is essential for assimilating the intonation, punctuation, etc.

During personal reading sessions, the adult is accessible to the child for support and help until the child is ready to master independent reading. Per Brown (2001), guidance in reading is more effective when the adult encourages and supports the child and does not judge or correct mistakes in their reading. The sentences are in the color the child chooses.

Reading fluency refers to accurate reading. According to Wolf and Katzir (2001), fluency describes three components of reading: the degree of accuracy, the rate of reading, and prosody, according to texts content and syntactic structure. It is customary to refer to fluent reading at the level of word, sentence, and text:

At the word level - the accuracy and pace are measured by indices.

At the level of sentence and text, the prosody index is also used.

The goal of practicing fluent reading is for all elementary school graduates to read at an appropriate level of accuracy and pace, understand the importance of skilled and fluent reading, be responsible for this essential literacy skill. According to Shani and Shachar (2011), the learning process of reading cannot

end in first or second grade. The process is lengthy, and the more texts the student reads and practices, the higher their achieved level of self-control, accuracy, and comprehension.

The reader attains fluent reading only when the processes of deciphering and identifying the words become "automatic", are accurate and quick, and involve the minimal investment of mental effort (Wolf & Katzir, 2001).

According to Chall (1996), when students are "stuck" in the fluency stage of the reading acquisition process, their slow deciphering makes it difficult to understand what they are reading.

The 10 Tools for Promoting Fluent Reading:

1. *Guided Reading:* Accordance to Rasinski (2003), reading is accompanied by a model of correct reading by another skilled teacher or reader, follow-up, corrective feedback, and support.

2. *Re-reading practice:* According to Meyer & Felton's method (1999), learners should read each text three-four times on average to achieve maximum results.

3. *Re-reading single words and sentences* can also improve reading fluency. Quality of instruction (providing clear instructions to students) is essential: students need to know what ongoing reading consists of and know effective strategies to improve it (Davidson 2006).

4. *Multiple opportunities for reading practice:* Daily practicing reading aloud and silently. Short and frequent sessions of fluent reading practice should be scheduled, with an average session lasting 10-20 minutes (Meyer & Felton, 1999).

5. *Using appropriate texts:* Students should read texts that match their reading level. They can read level-adapted texts accurately (up to 10% reading errors). The teacher should choose texts thoughtfully to ensure their students do not get frustrated by overly challenging texts. According to Chard et al.

(2002), in this context, it is best to start with lower-level difficulty texts to provide students with experiences of success. As their learning progresses, the level of chosen texts needs to be adapted to students' constantly evolving reading levels.

6. *Monitoring the progress*: Teachers must provide incentives to practice reading and tangible indicators of progress in reading fluency - graphs that describe changes quickly and accurately, data on the number of texts read, etc.

7. *Defining progress criteria*: It appears that reading fluency develops faster when criteria of progress are set.

8. *Combining reading comprehension activities*: It has been found that repeated reading intervention programs combined with reading comprehension activities promote both reading fluency and reading comprehension (Chard et al., 2002).

9. *Measuring reading pace and accuracy*: Both reading pace and reading accuracy are essential criteria for reading fluency improvement. Students can be encouraged to read using an hourglass, timer, and more. Reading sessions should be measured and regularly enhanced.

10. *Tailoring reading practice to students' different needs*: In implementing strategies for repeated reading each student's unique characteristics must be considered. For example, readers with significant difficulties need more guidance in reading, easier decodable texts, additional supplementary practicing of single words and sentences from the text before reading it, reading short paragraphs, and incorporating a correct and accented reading model (Meyer & Felton, 1999).

6.7.8. The Eighth Stage: Reading Comprehension

The student's reading comprehension level can be measured only when they attain complete mastery of reading and master all the sounds and vocalizations taught. According to Herman (2021), it is implausible to subject

the student to questions examining their reading comprehension level before they master reading because the student still learns to decode texts and invests all their energy into it.

The four dimensions of literal comprehension:

- understanding the explicit meaning of the text
- understanding the implicit meaning in the text
- interpreting the text
- analyzing the content and role of the linguistic and textual components.

In the first years of school, the student's learning occurs in the classroom environment and focuses on working and learning habits, acclimatization, getting familiar with the letters, reading, etc. (as stated above). However, it is crucial to remember that the student must comprehend writing at all levels to become an independent learner.

Recommendations for activities on the four reading comprehension dimensions per the Hebrew language curriculum published by the Ministry of Education are:

The Four Dimensions of Comprehension: Task Samples

Table 2

<i>Dimensions of Comprehension</i>	<i>Components of Dimensions of Comprehension and Tasks Samples</i>
<i>Understanding the explicit meaning in the text</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finding explicit information in the text, such as names of characters, time and place, actions. Who, what, about whom, about what, when, how, why • Find definitions, explanations and ideas explicit in the text.

<p><i>Understanding the implicit meaning in the text</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify explicit logical connections, including a chronological sequence. For example, "How do you know that ..?", "What is the reason for..?". • Understanding words and phrases from the context, e.g., "Based on what is written in the text, what does it mean ..?", "What does the author mean by stating that... (word/phrase from the text)?". • Understanding logical connections that are not explicit in the text, including a chronological sequence, for example, "Why do you think ..?", "What is the connection between ... and ..?", "What does ... teach us?", "What is the conclusion that follows from ..?". • Create example generalizations: "Give a different name to the text. Explain". "Divide the text into sections, give a name to each section", " What can be learned from the behavior/actions ..?".
<p><i>Interpretation</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raising hypotheses based on the text, e.g., "From the text /sentence it can be understood that ...". • Expressing a reasoned position on what is written, for example, "What do you think about ... Explain your opinion", "Do you agree /oppose the following ..?", "Why do you think the author said/wrote that ..?". • Characterization of characters based on the text, for example, "What do you think will happen to ..?", "What is the most important feature of ..?", "What do you think he/she should have done?".
<p><i>Analysis of the content and role of the linguistic and textual components</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluating the writer's purpose, e.g., "What the poet wanted to say is ...", "The story was written for ...". • Understanding the role of the linguistic components. For instance, "Find in the sentence /in the paragraph a causal conjunction/ an antonym...". • Distinguishing the atmosphere and tone of the story, for example, "What is the atmosphere at the outset of the story .., at the end?", "What is the turning point?".

Additional Aspects in the Field of the Hebrew Language Acquisition

There is a distinction between the masculine and feminine grammatical forms in Hebrew, and the teacher must teach these forms. They can do so through oral and written practice, e.g., games of how to speak correct Hebrew, etc. Students should learn how to add suffixes in the feminine form and, naturally, the exceptions to rules through songs and games, using the visual, auditory, and kinesthetic senses.

The teacher should teach the difference between nouns and adjectives and their changing forms that must agree with masculine and feminine nouns. For instance, there is a distinction between the narrator's name's feminine or masculine forms in Hebrew. Teachers should teach students how to say correctly "four chairs", "five hats", etc. as numerals must agree with the gender of nouns in Hebrew.

There is also a distinction between feminine and masculine forms of personal pronouns in Hebrew: I, you (masculine form), you (feminine form), he; we, you (masculine plural), you (feminine plural), they (masculine plural), they (feminine plural).

The teacher must speak Hebrew correctly and fluently and point out when students speak Hebrew incorrectly.

Root words: Every word in Hebrew belongs to a root family of words. Each word group has three or four root letters that make it up and additional letters that form masculine or feminine suffixes.

It is crucial to teach young students to distinguish and be accurate in using correct language grammar and pronunciation lest the final stages of writing acquisition students will make spelling mistakes.

6.8. Assessment

Learning occurs when people need to think carefully. The choice of assessment for students should be thorough and precise to ensure accurate diagnostics of the student's knowledge and what else they need to learn.

Many students, especially young learners, tend to view tests as a traumatic and stressful experience; thus, for instance, one former history teacher at the Blair Academy (in New Jersey) forbade his students to refer to a summative assessment as a "test" or "quiz". Instead, he required his students to refer to tests as "learning opportunities" (Whitman & Kelleher, 2016). This deliberate choice of words was a fun way to reduce the inevitable stress that students develop when they face tests and quizzes that will affect their grades, at least in their view. Assessment, if properly designed, is an excellent learning opportunity for long-term memory formation. But that requires educators to think more about alternative assessments than traditional.

There is no doubt that teachers need to know what students do and do not know in terms of the actual knowledge from each lesson learned. Students discover that they can perform more creative and higher-order thinking tasks in future contexts. Apart from being valuable in its own right, evaluating students' knowledge and skills is critical in estimating the consequent learning goals for the class. Tests assessing what students are expected to know can be mandatory per national and state standards. A good school is judged by its students' ability to think and perform during assessment tests (Whitman & Kelleher 2016). If the very thought of a test induces stress in students, the assessment will not justify and reach its purpose. Students will perform their best when relaxed, and the atmosphere around them inspires calm and confidence. Therefore, the assessment has better alternatives than tedious and stressful tests.

Additional Aspects in the Hebrew Language Acquisition

Formative evaluation

As early as in the initial stages of reading acquisition in Hebrew, students' abilities must be examined individually and their strengths and weaknesses identified. For example, if we recognize that the child knows the letters of the alphabet, why would we frustrate them by further, continuous Sisyphian learning? It may cause them to lose motivation. In such cases, we will transition to the next stage - learning sounds and vocalizations.

The teacher must evaluate each stage of reading acquisition in a personal discussion with the student because the initial stages constitute the foundation for reading and understanding in the future. Whitman and Kelleher's studies (2016) suggest that frequent testing helps in memory formation, but assessment should be formative, without a score, low or effort scores. Formative assessments help create memory and generate an essential change in students' minds regarding the purpose of these assessments - they realize that the tests are designed to help them learn. Students receive honest and frequent feedback on what they do and do not know - regularly provided feedback on their current experience level.

For the teacher, periodic assessments can indicate which subjects require more learning effort and which do not require more valuable time. Moreover, there is a meta-cognitive aspect in the formative evaluation. During the assessment, it is possible to explore which learning strategies help some students but not others, and thus re-examine teaching strategies.

Students realize and appreciate the purpose of formative assessments to prepare them for later summative assessments. The assessment has a cyclical nature of learning through experience, feedback, retry, feedback, etc., to achieve genuine learning through patience and effort. It differs from the standard class-quiz model, typical of the traditional assessment method that boosts the idea that the learning should be instantaneous.

Suggestions for Alternative Formative Assessments

Assessing students' integration of art, employing art as an everyday teaching method in the classroom and school curriculum, is one of the most effective ways of students' learning. In addition to learning through art, students are encouraged to learn independently and choose their preferred assessment form. According to Sousa (2017), the prefrontal cortex plays an essential role and maintains its plasticity throughout college. Hence, our responsibility is to build an environment and experiences that will encourage students to optimize their abilities. The brain's neuroplasticity will manifest when the child can experience, act and create. All the activities that the student can perform will work continuously, building their brain architecture.

Therefore, as described earlier in the recommendations for integrating the five senses in the reading acquisition process, teaching reading combined with creation and experience in each lesson is the most effective way of learning. As learning continues, the assessment should be regular and adapted to students' progress. For example, if the teacher wants to test whether the student knows the letters of the alphabet, she can ask the student to form letters in one of the following materials: plasticine, paints, clay, on a paper sheet, etc. If the teacher wants to test the spatial orientation control, he will ask the student to draw a map of their route from home to school.

To conclude: A formative evaluation should be performed right from the beginning. Ongoing feedback is essential in active learning retrieval. Regular and continuous feedback is conducive to learning; it can be instrumental in identifying effective learning strategies for each student. The teacher will manage the learning program according to the feedback results. The students themselves will be partners in the assessment methods. Creative techniques will not intimidate students; they will be integrated in an experiential and fun way and encourage motivation.

Suggestion for Evaluating Students' Reading

Once students learn all the sounds, they will construct words and sentences from them. That will be the time for them to start reading. For reading to be accurate, the teacher needs to monitor students' progress in reading. According to Browne (2001), the teacher's role in teaching reading is to respond to any difficulties the child manifests while reading in a way that will disrupt the reading sequence minimally. Of course, the teacher should limit their interventions only to those mistakes the child encountered in the text, by pronouncing the words or drawing the student's attention to the initial letters of the words to preserve the flow of reading and not interrupt the child's "thread of thought" in comprehending the text. However, later, the teacher will schedule practice sessions with the student, use additional reading material, and address the student's difficulties.

The Objectives of the Reading Assessment:

In order to make the student's work and progress accurate, the teacher must strictly monitor the results and grades he achieves and, if necessary, change the teaching methods, therefore the goals of the student's reading assessment *are*:

- monitor student progress;
- pay attention to various strategies the child uses;
- identify a need to schedule a meeting with the student to discuss the child's response to the book and their general areas of reading and interests;
- expose the student's difficulties and follow up with a specific assistance strategy to promote the student;
- set goals for the child and involve them in the fluent reading process.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1. Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to recognize, examine, and research skills related to how the brain learns to read, review the essential methodologies of teaching reading and writing and make an innovative and significant contribution to theoretical and practical knowledge in Israel. All of this is in recognition of the absence of studies examining the contribution of the research literature to the theoretical and practical principles of the various strategies of teaching reading in the Israeli education system.

The research method relied on a phonological qualitative methodology based on teacher interviews. Our study reviewed the modern teaching strategies implemented in Israeli schools via textbooks written by teachers, educators, and academy members. The study aims to create an available, accessible, practical knowledge base of innovative teaching models for teachers.

The analysis of the teachers' interviews yielded several central themes that shed new light on how teachers perceived teaching strategies for their students' reading acquisition, such as the teacher's choice of instruction methods, the most relevant processes in promoting reading and writing acquisition, educational atmosphere and learning environments, and external factors affecting teaching in their class: the number of students, lack of resources and faculty.

In this discussion chapter, we present the analysis and interpretation of the main findings that emerged from the teachers' interviews alongside the various theories of reading and writing acquisition and the findings and their particular meaning according to the accepted literacy methods in Israel. Through this analysis, it will be possible to comprehend and understand the modern teaching strategies implemented in Israeli school textbooks.

Furthermore, it will familiarize teachers with innovative models that benefit teaching.

7.1.1. Theme 1: How the Teacher Chooses Teaching Methods

In this theme, the teachers answered how they chose teaching methods. This topic examines whether teachers have autonomy in choosing the programs or whether the programs are dictated in advance by the school principal or the Ministry of Education. Another examined aspect refers to school teachers' autonomy to consolidate and refine the existing learning program per students' needs. The study assumed that there was one program for all the students in the classroom.

The analysis of the teachers' interviews shows that about half of the teachers work with one core language acquisition program. Some (less than a third) even explicitly stated that in their school, there was only one program for language acquisition chosen by the school principal on the recommendation of the Ministry of Education, the district language instructor, and the language coordinator teacher at the school.

Over the years, many experts in Israel - not necessarily from the field of education and teaching - have taken part in the development of methods for teaching reading and writing based on the worldview that sees the teaching of reading not only as the acquisition of mechanical and technical skill but also as an enriching and meaningful experience. For example, in the 1970s, the writer Naomi Limor and Ilana Luft, a playwright, screenwriter, and television program producer, developed a phonetic system in Israel. The Israeli Educational Television broadcast the program as a series called "*Bli Sodot*" (Hebrew for "Without Secrets"). According to Haber (1990), the approach focused on reading comprehension, skills, and strategies for reading

comprehension, consequently giving rise to the "LITAF" reading program. This method was developed based on the whole language approach of teaching global words (40 words), breaking them down, and building new words.

Today, two main programs for teaching reading and writing are "The Magic Key" and "The Power to Read". "The Magic Key" method was developed by the Ministry of Education (2011). It relies on the code approach, in which the students learn to decode each sound separately. Along with the skill of decoding the sounds, the method cultivates linguistic skills and oral and written expression. Unlike this program, "The Power to Read" stems from the neo-global approach. The emphasis is on the structure of the complete word, paying maximum attention to sound combinations through disassembly and assembly (analysis and synthesis).

As part of the interviews, the teachers mentioned additional programs for learning to read, i.e., unique programs designed for students with unique characteristics such as Down syndrome, among them: "Sounds from Numbers," "Wonderful", and the "TED" program. Distinct programs developed for unique student populations of similar characteristics have many positive qualities. For example, Kamala (2014) found that for most dyslexic students, reading acquisition is challenging and frustrating because they face problems controlling reading skills, fluency in reading, and reading comprehension. However, that does not mean that such dyslexic students cannot read. Instead, they can learn via different teaching strategies adapted to their needs.

In Israel, school classes are heterogeneous, comprising children with different abilities and characteristics. As mentioned above, in each class, there is a significant group of students (who make up about 15-20% of all the students) for whom the traditional and uniform teaching is unsuitable because they cope with different challenges and therefore need other programs - unique and adapted programs for reading and writing acquisition. Within this group,

one can encounter students with various learning disabilities, e.g., problems with visual memory, difficulty with visual perception, and difficulties with auditory perception in distinguishing between similar sounds; students with behavioral difficulties, immigrant children who need language enrichment and vocabulary expansion as a necessary condition and basis for language acquisition, and children with developmental delay, dyslexia, dysgraphia, and more. These children will only succeed in language acquisition through the unique methods mentioned above.

The findings of the teachers' interviews indicate that almost half of them work with one primary method. The reasons given by the teachers are many and varied: the teacher favors the method; the students love the program because it is friendly, colorful, and engaging; the school has taught the program for many years and therefore continues to work with it; the principal chose the program (or someone on their behalf), and therefore the school continues the same program. Therefore, although they state that the school has one formal program for reading and writing acquisition, there is no fixed and uniform policy for choosing teaching methods in the classrooms.

The literature review shows that students do not get exposed to different learning styles in the traditional teaching method. According to Feuerstein (1991), each student has unique abilities affected by their genetic variation. The differences will surface among students of the same age in the same group; therefore, the learning process in the class needs a heterogeneous approach. Thus, children's innate differences justify a change in the teaching approach and necessitate a differential approach to teaching in the same class.

Feuerstein (1991) further claims that a good teacher can pass on to students the knowledge they need according to their thinking patterns and abilities. The teacher cannot view the student as a receptacle; they should make the student an independent learner using a successful teaching methodology.

All this is due to the difference in each student's perceptual, emotional, and social abilities based on their genetics.

Feuerstein (1988) explains that deterministic, ecological or physiological change is a product of learning processes; it maintains the individual's survival in an evolving environment, especially in our rapidly changing world of knowledge and technological and scientific innovations.

In choosing the method of teaching reading and writing, first, we must choose the content to be studied, organize it into units, and teach it in a rational sequence; this is how educators develop curricula (Richards & Rogers, 2014). The teaching method is standardization of methodology. Teachers need to know how to differentiate between curriculum and pedagogy. The curriculum, usually dictated by the Ministry of Education or other government bodies, is only the foundation and not the pedagogy itself. The teacher must design the learning environment while allowing the children to choose what and how they learn. The learning content must remain unchanged, and the teacher must carefully monitor the content in cooperation with the students. It will enhance control in their learning. The teacher can present the learning content in different ways. Evidence suggests that varied and multisensory approaches are usually superior to the most effective strategy for teaching a particular subject. Good teachers recognize that these approaches are alternative because they create learning and teaching situations in relation to the subject being studied that encourage the children to be actively involved.

According to Richards & Rogers (2014), different approaches and methods reflect the understanding of the essential building blocks for mastery of the language. Hence, the teacher should first choose the study subjects, work on teaching methods and integrate enrichment activities and content. Only after applying techniques and practices can the method be called an approach.

According to Rom (2003), there are two main approaches to teaching reading and writing: "the code approach" and "the complete language approach", as mentioned above. Different teaching methods stem from these two approaches. According to Peled (2008), information in linguistics, psychology, education, sociology, and more influence teaching methods. In addition, as Richards & Rogers (2014) argued, teachers' beliefs and opinions affect their methods for teaching reading. However, various researchers have a consensus that the approach is the starting point and dictates the method.

From this, it is evident that a teacher combining several teaching strategies in the same class and integrating multisensory and kinesthetic methods can reach 15%-20% of the students with unique difficulties. As stated by Interviewee 15: "The teacher is the method. The book is the means and not the goal." This approach bolsters the perception that favors the eclectic reading method, which combines analytical and synthetic processes and uses the core senses of sight, hearing and the kinesthetic sense, as the most effective that will significantly increase the students' success rates in reading acquisition. Therefore, the teacher's awareness of the student's needs and the ability to see the necessity of applying diverse teaching methods are exceedingly significant. Using sound effects, costumes, music, humor, drama, or any other creative idea will help the information the child receives pass through the brain's primary filter and the nerve cells until the information reaches the synapses and gets stored in the brain.

To summarize this theme: despite the teachers' testimony of one formal language acquisition program employed in their schools, their interviews reveal that teachers use an eclectic method for language acquisition in their classrooms. The teachers build a work plan for the student based on their professional knowledge, experience, and personal acquaintance with the students and per their needs, strengths, and weaknesses.

7.1.2. Theme 2: Additional Resources and Aids - The Most Relevant Processes in Promoting Reading and Writing Acquisition

In this topic, the teachers spoke about the aids and other resources they use in teaching reading and writing in first and second grades to create a resource database and test its effectiveness and significance in reading and writing acquisition.

In this part, the teachers indicated they use pictures, magazines, visual illustrations, writing on the board, computer, presentations, songs, plasticine, balloons, sand, leaves, and more.

Some teachers said they become singers, actors, doctors, magicians, clowns, and more in class. According to the teachers, using additional accessories and creative ways stimulates learning motivation. The lesson becomes fascinating even for weaker students with attention and concentration problems. All the teachers reported that they used other learning aids in addition to the textbook and noted that learning should be a stimulating experience.

Out of 30 teachers, only four mentioned the concept of sensory experience - the deliberate use of each of the senses to enable experiential and optimal learning and, above all, reach all the students in the class.

The rest of the teachers mentioned mainly the lesson's opening, which, according to the teachers, must be stimulating and enjoyable to prompt the students' curiosity and create interest in them.

Israel is an immigrant society speaking several languages: Arabic, French, Russian, Spanish, and others. However, most schools in Israel only teach Hebrew and English, except for Arab schools where students study Arabic. Thus, the Ministry of Education devotes numerous resources to improving the students' written and spoken Hebrew, including in Arab schools

where the Arab students must learn Hebrew and even take a test that measures their reading ability and comprehension level. The Ministry of Education's primary resources include linguistic guides, teacher advancement courses, many school academic hours, and remedial teaching educators.

The main area for improvement in teaching reading in Israel is a single program for all the students in the classroom. Accordingly, if teachers know different methods for teaching reading and writing, they can choose the best books in the market, develop their unique methodologies, build teaching resources, and design teaching strategies.

The teachers who teach reading and writing must have an in-depth knowledge of the theoretical bases underlying the various methodologies for reading and writing acquisition and know how the brain learns to read and write to adapt their teaching practice to the reality of the classroom, the characteristics of the language they teach and employ the positive aspects of the various methods.

One of Pagliano's (2012) main ideas is multisensory stimulation applicable to play, leisure, therapy, and education. These practical resources must be used consistently and monitored to ensure they are employed effectively and in the most enjoyable ways possible.

In his book "How the Brain Learns", Souza (2014) presents a model that metaphorically illustrates neuroscientists' complex findings so that the teacher who is not knowledgeable in the field of neuroscience can understand them. He created the model hoping that this information would encourage the teacher to examine their teaching against the processes occurring in the brain and create a balance between them.

This model presents a dynamic and interactive process in the brain while learning. According to Souza (2014), the more information we connect with

meaning for children, the greater the chance the students will store this information in long-term memory. Similar to watching a movie, when only if it is reminiscent of a personal experience, it becomes meaningful and more likely to enter long-term memory. Therefore, for the complex process of learning to read to be effective, one must work in an experiential and meaningful way.

According to Breznitz (2006), reading is a complex skill that involves different cognitive processes. One of the primary and necessary processes is synchronization or timing between the phonological and visual processes. For the retrieval process to occur, it must be efficient. Visual processing is the heart of the reading process and the central aspect differentiating regular and struggling readers. The central research approach in the psychology of reading presumes that the same phonological decoding processes that occur during text recognition and processing are navigated by the visual attention resources necessary in the process and, accordingly, during reading (Everatt, 1999).

The success of the visual scanning process requires the mobilization of visual attention resources. Therefore, studies in the psychology of reading show that defects in the visual attention processes interfere with eye movements while reading words (Everett et al., 1999; Hirwang & Hogdal, 2003; Yakovski & Rusiak, 2005).

Studies in psychophysiology and neuropsychology indicate that the visual areas in the brain's parietal lobe are related to the direction of eye movements and visual attention processes (Milner & Goodel, 1995; Glickstein, 2000; Goodale & Milner, 2004).

Kinsey et al. (2004) assume that visual attention plays a particularly significant role in reading new words and invocations. On the other hand, the failure of a person with reading disabilities to read simple words is attributable to deficiencies in the visual processing of the orthographic pattern of the written word (Heiervang & Hugdahl, 2003). A similar failure in the processes

involving visual attention during reading causes a non-distinction between the position of the letter in the word; This situation causes misreading and changing the order of the letters in the word (leading, as mentioned, to an altered word meaning) (Friedman & Gabion, 2001).

More than half of the teachers reported incorporating writing activities as an integral part of reading acquisition. The activities include writing in a notebook, on the board, or in the sand, with stones, plasticine, and more to link sound production with the graphic form. Writing is a motor skill that performs the graphic representation of the spoken language and is thus an extremely significant integral part of reading acquisition.

Studies conducted in Canada and the USA indicate that difficulty with handwriting at an early age may indicate further future general learning disabilities (Harvey & Henderson, 1997; Simner, 1982; 1985; 1986; 1990; 1991). Thus, more than 10% of normative schoolchildren face handwriting difficulties; their occurrence in the ADHD and DCD populations is even higher. The education system must deal with handwriting difficulties and develop early detection and intervention methods. Handwriting is children's main activity at school, required of them throughout the school day (Feder et al., 2007). Poor handwriting skills directly affect academic performance. Children unable to write appropriately have difficulty in academic achievements. They struggle to keep up with the required writing pace, fail to copy homework assignments from the board in time, spend long hours preparing lessons at home, and feel that other children are better at home and in the classroom (Sovik et al., 1993).

Many studies indicate that children with writing issues will have difficulty writing essays eloquently; Their thought processes while writing, the volume, quality, content of the writing, and the willingness to write spontaneously may also be affected (Scardamalia et al., 1982; Graham, 1990; Berninger et al., 1997; Berninger & Graham, 1998). Such students' grades may

be low because they often do not fully demonstrate all of their knowledge in written assignments and because teachers tend to give lower grades for illegible handwriting. (Swidler-Brown, 1992). Most children with handwriting difficulties, not identified and not treated in first and second grades, have no choice but to develop "survival" tactics in the classroom: they write very short, partial, and often unacceptable answers in their notebooks. Sometimes they even choose not to perform writing tasks (Shatil, 1993). Therefore, poor handwriting skills may lead to almost complete paralysis of the child's self-expression, regardless of their knowledge potential and normative academic skills. In addition, handwriting disabilities may also have a considerable effect on emotional functioning. Both parents and teachers see the written product and influence the layout of the manuscript through their expectations and reactions to assessment or criticism. These responses often create stress and fear in children (Ratzon, 2002). The pressure and the need to write skillfully increases from year to year because the child's level of learning and progress is judged based on their handwriting, compared to their classmates' performance (Shatil, 1993). Awareness of their poor handwriting, difficulties, and constant mention of their failures may affect the children's self-image and motivation to express themselves in writing, mainly due to their lack of faith in their abilities (Weintraub, 2000). Some children even respond by giving up and feeling unable to write (Berninger et al., 1991).

The skill of writing is essential for the child's communicative expression and academic ability. Even in the 21st century, despite technology and multimedia development, students must develop adequate writing skills. Also, some schools still need computers for each child. Hence, the teacher's role is crucial in integrating the child in the assessment process, boosting their motivation to improve handwriting, mediating, and giving them tools and

skills to alleviate and improve their handwriting. In addition, the teacher's help to improve the student's handwriting will earn the student higher self-esteem.

Their interviews show that the teachers know a lot about reading: they acquire the knowledge in the initial training, learn from other teachers, become exposed to methods through various media channels, etc. In addition, they should continue to update their knowledge through participation in teacher-training courses and more. Every discussion that takes place in Israeli schools and society, in general, includes a reference to reading because reading is the mother of all skills.

Teachers are aware of the debates and controversies surrounding practices and resources available on the market today. Therefore, as teachers of young students, they will spend many teaching hours each week helping children learn to read through a series of exercises that work for them and their students. Despite the uniform national curriculum, official guidelines, policies, and school faculty implementation plan, at any school, the curriculum will vary from class to class and from teacher to teacher.

Curriculum planning begins with teachers sharing their varying beliefs about the purpose of education, such as that students become better citizens, gain knowledge, and more. Each viewpoint will affect the planning of the content, established priorities, and curriculum organization. Also, teachers have beliefs about the value and use of reading. They know the value society ascribes to reading and its significance outside of school. Reading is the basis for all other fields of study. Therefore, it must be well-developed, and attending to this skill at each stage in the reading acquisition process is critical.

7.1.3. Theme 3: Educational Atmosphere (Contact with Children and Parents) and Learning Environments (Literate Environment) - Classroom Management

This theme examines the teachers' perceptions regarding the influence of the atmosphere and the educational environment on the learning experience, in general, and reading and writing acquisition, in particular, - among first and second-grade students in the school and the classroom in Israel. Jasmy Abd Rahman (2018) explains that learning should result from receiving stimulation. Therefore, any of the acceptable stimuli will produce a response. Based on this theory, the fun learning and teaching atmosphere can increase children's concentration, learning motivation, and positive behavior.

The analysis of the teachers' interviews indicates that the teachers feel the need to provide the students with a learning environment that includes various aids such as alphabet letters, a picture for each sound, a concept board, target words, question words, and aids that the students can use for independent learning. In addition, the learning environment should be pleasant, encouraging, and conducive to learning to advance language enrichment and enable students' meaningful education. Finally, the environment should be clean and tidy, including a play area and a pleasant and inviting reading area.

According to Browne (2001), such an environment is essential for enriching children's language. Teachers can do this through rich and dynamic literacy environments that compel children to read and write, learn about nature, and acquire and enrich their literacy skills. In Browne's opinion, the learning environment should also include areas for writing, listening, a library, and an area for children's work display. Brown further claims (2001) that such an environment, rich in books, poems, rhymes, and information books, is of great importance for developing and strengthening the students' linguistic

world. Therefore, he believes teachers should hold frequent story sessions, with opportunities for children to listen and read books and stories independently.

In their studies, Clark (1976) and Clay (1979) reinforce Browne's words and claim that children learn and become motivated by observing models and demonstrations of literate behavior and a literate environment. The shared reading provides an essential visual demonstration of reading acquisition. Through the experience of listening to a story, students gain insight into reading and will later learn to do it independently (Clark, 1976; Clay, 1979).

About half of the teachers stated that one should believe in children, love them, give them the feeling that they believe in their abilities, never give up on them, and ensure that the child does not feel frustrated. Moreover, as mentioned in the literature review, according to Brown (2001), in an environment that values the learning process and effort, it is easier to encourage children to read in a way that inspires them to take risks.

Sobelman-Rosenthal (1999) reinforces this concept and emphasizes the importance of the "interaction with the child." Such interaction dramatically influences the child's reactions and perceptions in the present and future and is highly significant in language acquisition. This interaction begins in the child's first days and is essential in many aspects: emotional, social, behavioral, cognitive, and neurological. Many studies conducted on the subject of the interaction between the adult and the child indicate that the interaction is the most significant milestone in the development of the child's communication and language skills and their emotional and social development (Stern, 1977; Tate, 1987; Spencer et al., 1992; Dorumi & Ringwald-Primerman, 1996; Paparella & Kesri, 2004). In addition, they testify that good interaction between an adult and a child will significantly affect, later on, their academic, social, and emotional achievements.

Feuerstein (2001) posits that the teacher has a central role in language acquisition. They should act as a mediator and encourage while accentuating the student's abilities and success. Reflecting on the child's successes through the eyes of the teacher, positive experience, and a sense of personal capacity will encourage them to continue working toward success and create motivation for learning. A child who has not experienced success will not feel the need for success and, therefore, will not want to try to succeed (Klein, 1985). A similar concept emerges from Abed Rahman's study (2018). According to this researcher, children who do not receive encouragement and learn in an environment rich in reading materials at an early age tend to lose motivation to read in the future. Therefore, a rich learning environment, which encourages reading and writing literacy and strengthens personal motivation to learn, also depends on the child's environment. About a third of the teachers emphasized the importance of involving the student's parents in the process of reading and writing acquisition and their expectation of them that they would strengthen the process of memorization and practice at home. In teachers' view, practicing and memorizing at home with the parents is necessary for the student's success.

According to Evans (1996), parents' mother tongue influences the first words a toddler produces in the first years of his life. Sobelman-Rosenthal, (1999) and Dromi (1993) testify that children expand their vocabulary and pronunciation patterns according to their exposure to the vocabulary from infancy. These patterns are a significant step in terms of phonological development later on. A substantial longitudinal study by Hart and Risley (2003) documented that interaction between parent and child is essential and necessary for reading and writing acquisition and meaningful in its effect on various developmental aspects, such as cognitive, linguistic-communicative, social, emotional, behavioral, and neurological.

Some teachers opposed parental participation in reading acquisition because the parents are not the child's teachers. Parents are not professionals; they do not know how to teach reading and, therefore, can err. Another claim raised by the teachers is that the parents should use their little time with the child in the afternoon for quality time and not for learning.

Israel is an immigrant country with significant linguistic diversity in the classrooms. Unfortunately, the said diversity generates one of the problems when immigrant students are required to learn the Hebrew language at school. In many Israeli households, parents do not speak Hebrew, so the only place students get exposed to Hebrew is in school. As a result, many students arrive at school with poor verbal language, significantly inadequate vocabulary, incorrect pronunciation, and poor grammar.

Early social interaction begins with the baby's birth and occurs through the senses of touch, smell, and taste (Ainsworth & Bell, 1973) as early as the first hours of the baby's life. We can interpret the infants' movement patterns as a response to the adult's voice representing the innate response to social behavior and the ability to transmit social signals (Sander & Condon, 1974).

Most of the teachers testified that the relationship between the teacher and the student affects the students' sense of belonging, creates a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom, and enables the students to learn more comfortably and with high quality. An emotional connection between the teacher and the student conveys to the student that they believe in them and do not give up on them. A positive interaction between the teacher and the student, a sense of trust in the child, and a sense of ability will motivate the student to learn and encourage them to experiment with tasks they have not mastered yet.

Brown (2002) claims that language learning occurs in the context of experiences. In their speech experience, children receive responses and

encouragement from experienced speakers - usually parents at home and educators in kindergarten and school. This way, children are quick to speak words, despite their lack of experience and nonstandard language at an early stage. The listeners (parents/kindergarteners/caregivers) respond with forgiveness and even enjoy and laugh at misused or mispronounced words. Through feedback from experienced speakers, the child perfects their language. Learning to read may become more accessible and relevant for children if teachers work with children on reading and use successful and supportive methods for oral language development. Oral language is the basis for learning the written language.

Most teachers reported that establishing a relationship between the teacher and the students of the class and the student's sense of belonging creates a pleasant atmosphere, and the students are free to learn. An emotional connection between the teacher and the student conveys to the student the feeling that they believe in him and do not give up on him. This principle works on several levels. On the cultural level, the mediator transmits social values to the child, thus ensuring cultural and spiritual continuity. On a personal level, the thrill principle gives the child the need and motivation to search for meaning other than the one the mediator processes for him. The child understands that he must look for causal connections between the stimuli and the corresponding meaning. A child deprived of the principle of excitement sees events as isolated experiences unrelated to those that preceded them. As a result, the child will experience apathy and a lack of enjoyment in learning. The principle is essential for the child's ability to develop the need to construct the meaning of their life and actions (Feuerstein, 2001).

Teachers can cultivate easy and fun learning tools using intervention strategies: a feeling of ease with the environment, enjoyment, and happiness

will create in the student a desire and motivation to explore, learn, and enjoy a quality social life and meaningful learning.

We have mentioned Pagliano's (2012) idea of multisensory stimulation that applies to play, leisure, therapy, and education. These hands-on resources must be used consistently and supervised to ensure their most effective and enjoyable use. The multisensory approach can benefit all levels of learning, intelligence, and the experience of excitement. Indirectly, it gives children an opportunity to reach their potential.

In a positive teacher-student interaction, excitement, trust, and self-capacity will motivate students to learn and experiment with tasks they have not yet mastered.

Breznitz (2006) claims that the emotional system plays a central role in learning. Following dopamine release in the brain during learning, the brain will be "thirsty" for more information. As a result, the classroom looks mobilized, motivated, and eager to tackle challenges.

The teachers also answered that when the students experience frustration because they cannot read and write like the rest of their classmates, they disrupt all the students' learning. Breznitz (2006) claims that when a negative emotional experience registers in the limbic system, the path to transferring information to the cerebral cortex is blocked. Thus, nerve cells transmit information to the thalamus located in the brain stem. According to Breznitz (2006), this is the most primitive area of the brain, and its primary function in animals and humans is to maintain life.

At this point, the amygdala signals the brain to guard against a dangerous situation. As a response, we see students who disrupt the course of the lesson and even erupt in outbursts of anger and violence or avoid learning in the classroom.

Also, Hermans (2014) claims that we tend to remember events accompanied by intense and significant emotions. Such emotion creates a connection between the amygdala and the hippocampus; this connection will ensure that we remember the event in the long term.

In conclusion, to create emotional connections with the feeling of pleasure, the teachers will combine various game activities to convey the material experientially, thus encouraging and motivating students. A game that encourages learning motivates and keeps students alert and focused. It is also essential to incorporate a game in every lesson to benefit struggling and low-ability students to alleviate or avoid frustration. Some students do not stand out in the regular class, and the game encourages them to participate in what occurs in the lesson.

Moreover, the teachers noted that free play is also positively related to social-emotional development and positive results in language and literacy learning, improved vocabulary development, and significant improvement of academic skills. The element of free play facilitates learning rich content and learning to discover creativity in a pleasant, calm, and nondominant atmosphere. Children exposed to experiential pedagogy have enhanced motivation levels. They will not develop objections and frustrations because their lack of control will not stand out in play and fun activities.

7.1.4. Theme 4: External Factors not under the Israeli Teacher's Control and Responsibility

This theme, which emerged from the teachers' interviews, deals with external factors affecting teaching in the classroom. On this topic, the teachers raised the following issues: the number of students in the class, its effect on students' advancement, and the need for help and assistance from a teaching supporter, student, or assistant.

When the teachers answered the question on the number of students in their class and its implications, most teachers stated that there is a direct correlation between the number of students in the class, the quality of teaching, and the pace of students' progress. In addition, the teachers indicated that they struggle to develop personal relationships and give attention to each student in a class of 30-40 students.

The number of students in a class is a complex issue widely discussed among researchers and professionals in the field of education in Israel and around the world. Therefore, when we examined the teaching methods in the class and the resources provided to students during the lesson, it was essential to explore the ratio between the number of teachers and the number of students in the class first and whether it is one of the parameters that affect the quality of teaching.

An educational study conducted at the University of Michigan found that small classes in elementary school, especially in kindergarten and first grade, significantly impact student achievement later on. In addition, the study shows that the attention the students receive from the teachers in the elementary grades affects their ability to deal with educational problems in the future.

Educators and parents favor small classes considering them a better learning environment. In addition, teachers tend to give a warmer attitude and more attention to each student in a small group, in contrast to large classes, where the amount of disruptions in the class is high, thus impairing the quality of teaching and generating the feeling of helplessness and frustration among the teachers (Finn, 2003).

Betts and Shkolnik (1999) also found that teachers in small classes are more successful in dedicating time to repeating the learned material than in

large classes. Hence, the learning and teaching experience becomes more positive and positively influences students' achievements.

In this study, a third of the teachers claimed they could reach everyone in a class with a few students, especially when teaching a language; it is challenging in a large group. Also, the teachers reported that the small size of the student class is conducive to good relationships between the teacher and the students; students' achievements increase; they improve their abilities, and there is evidence of the student's self-image improvement.

In contrast, a third of the teachers reported that the situation differs in classes with many students.

In 2014, the parents' organization in Israel started a protest for elementary school students to reduce classroom overcrowding, nicknamed the "sardine protest". The parents claimed that overcrowding in the classrooms was harmful to students. This protest relied on the class size from the OECD data indicating that Israel is fifth among the 34 countries participants in the study. The average class size in Israel is 27 students in primary education, whereas the average in other countries is 21 students in primary education (OECD, 2011).

A report submitted to the Education and Sports Committee in the State of Israel in 2015 indicates that the maximum class size is 40 students in all age groups. Therefore, at the end of 2015, the Minister of Education approved an outline for reducing the number of students in the classes to 32. Per this outline, teachers and students will team up to help teachers deal with challenges arising from overcrowded classes (Ministry of Education, 2015).

Despite the above, the researchers have yet to determine whether and how class size affects students' achievements.

Although this question prompts interest among researchers and educators, there is yet to be a clear answer to date. While it is true that parents

ascribe great importance to reducing the number of students in classes and see a direct link between students' success and class size, we must also pay attention to teaching practices. Even in a class with few students, teachers should work in a differentiated and adapted way. A learning experience is also possible in large classes.

Thus, the present study reveals that a third of the teachers reported that it is possible to reach all the students in a large and heterogeneous class through the differential, adapted, experiential, and multisensory learning.

The teachers reported that through a pool of games, reference materials, and various creative materials, they produced diversity in teaching and made teaching experiential, engaging, and fascinating.

This approach reduces students' disruptive behaviors in the classroom and prevents disruption in the learning sequence highly significant in teaching reading and writing.

Teaching tailored to each student allows students to progress at their own pace and prevents frustrations that disrupt the ordinary course of the lesson.

Through the school faculty and additional help from an assistant or a student, the class can be divided into small learning groups of three-five students during the lesson.

A third of the teachers reported that it is challenging but possible, and the award is to witness students' success.

In conclusion, the issue of the effect of a large class on the quality of teaching and learners' experience and success is not unequivocal. Educators devote much effort to helping students improve their academic achievements, and one of the goals is to reduce the number of students in classes. This factor is considered the most influential because learning in large groups is logically

better than learning in small groups - we associate large classes with noise, crowding, and much more heterogeneity. Parents often perceive small classes as private classes where the teacher gives the child individualized treatment tailored to their needs. In Israel, this is the reality that many educators face. Reducing the number of students in a class involves considerable costs, such as additional teaching hours, teaching assistants, secretarial services, and others. As this situation is likely to remain the same in the State of Israel, we must aim to promote diversified, differential, eclectic, and multisensory learning.

The class size leads us to another issue presented by the teachers on this topic: the very diverse and challenging classes. The teachers noted that they deal with students with objective difficulties such as dyslexia, dysgraphia, attention and concentration disorders, and more. Moreover, on the other hand, they are dealing with unmotivated, overindulged students who have yet to learn how to delay gratification.

Students who face the abovementioned difficulties will experience incredible frustration and difficulty; therefore, according to Aran (2013), the teacher must identify the objective difficulties as soon as possible, treat them as soon as possible, and refer them for diagnosis if necessary. According to Aran (2013), there are clear signs that indicate a reading disability: developmental difficulties at a young age, difficulty in conceptualizing colors, shapes, and numbers, difficulty in knowing the names of letters, and difficulty in retrieving words, despite the early familiarity.

Therefore, when the teacher notices an objective difficulty in a child, they must build an adapted plan and refer to an expert for clarification if necessary.

According to the definition of the DSM-5 (2013), if, despite interventions and treatment, the difficulty lasts six months in retrieval, the slow rate of reading acquisition, internalizing the sounds and movements, and more necessitates a diagnosis whether it is reading difficulties or a specific reading disability (Arn,

2013). Therefore, referring the student to a didactic or psycho-didactic diagnosis is necessary. Such a diagnosis occurs in a laboratory and tests the student's reading and writing functions. Also, the diagnosis can identify the difficulties observed by the teacher in the classroom.

With an accurate diagnosis of the causes of reading and writing difficulties, the teacher can adopt a differential work plan for the student.

Therefore, the DSM-5 (2013) states that disability is not a disability but a functional disorder, allowing for a more respectful and constructive attitude toward the student suffering from this disorder. Therefore, the diagnosis results require cooperation between the school education staff to build a program adapted to the student's needs and abilities. Moreover, when the teacher creates an adapted program for the student, the latter will not feel frustrated, will progress at their own pace, and not interfere with the learning routine in the classroom.

Einat (1997) further claims that although the dyslexic person's essential reading ability will not reach the level expected of their peers, any improvement is meaningful for the quality of their life; therefore, the teacher's role is to address the gap in reading skills.

Davis (2003) suggests teachers create compensation mechanisms based on human strengths. He intends that the teacher identify the student's strong visual, auditory, or kinesthetic channels, build an adapted learning style, and teach them learning strategies.

Therefore, first of all, the teacher must identify the students with difficulties, then identify each child's strengths, and, finally, construct an adapted learning plan. Objective difficulties untreated at a young age will lead to complete learning paralysis and dysfunction.

Pagliano (2012) further adds that this can lead to "scholarly helplessness". It is a psychological condition that stems from multiple failures. The feeling of failure will lead the student to develop low self-esteem and decreased motivation. Therefore, sensory stimulation, an outstanding learning experience, and utilizing the students' interests will improve reading skills in heterogeneous students and students with dyslexia.

Most teachers asserted that the class's diversity stems from students' differing backgrounds and socio-economic situations. However, as we covered further in the literature review, Israel is a multicultural society, and there is a gap between what the student receives at home and what the school requires. Thus, Kamala (2014) claims that a uniform teaching strategy may only suit some students in the class. In addition, Matthias (2021) argued that improving gestures, visual images, and more can significantly improve learning results compared to nonsensory learning, while Silverman and Haynes (2009) also mentioned video clips. In short, physical activity while learning increases memory retention compared to learning without activity.

Another issue that emerged in this theme is the need for additional teaching assistance in the classroom. For example, the teachers reported needing a teaching supporter, a student, or an assistant to promote students. Moreover, the teachers declared that they needed assistance in helping the students get equipment out of their school bags, getting organized for learning, and in general, helping them conduct themselves in the classroom. In addition, the teachers reported that reaching all the students with additional assistance in the large class was more manageable and virtually impossible alone.

According to Albruz et al. (2009), the role of teaching assistants or supporters is to help teach children with special needs in special education and regular student classes. According to him, skilled teaching assistants, working in cooperation with the class teacher and receiving tailored training, succeed in

helping elementary school children with literacy and language problems. Thus, students can improve their academic achievements in language and in general. In addition, according to Albruz et al. (2009), maintaining teaching support in the classroom can facilitate students' involvement in learning and social activities, which contribute to the child strengthening their resilience and self-image and augmenting the sense of belonging in the classroom. In addition, the teaching assistant can relieve the teacher's workload to a certain extent, thus enabling the teacher to teach in small groups and reach all the students.

Out of 30 interviewed teachers, 11 talked about the need for assistance in the classroom, and the rest spoke about working in small groups and did not mention the need for a teaching supporter. So the question arises whether the teaching assistant's effectiveness in promoting students in the class and assisting the teacher has been measured.

Meschit and Mevrch (2013) examined the teaching assistant's presence as a supplementary force for the teacher in the classroom. They found that the effectiveness of the still unqualified teacher assistant's help needed to be clarified. Nevertheless, practical training of the teaching students, employed as teaching aides while in training, contributes to the teaching student's development of teamwork and experience in the field. In the State of Israel, teacher-training students' practicum depends on their school integration during their studies. However, there is still a need for a quantitative study to examine teaching students' impact as teaching supporters on the quality of teaching processes and student achievements compared to the traditional learning model.

In conclusion, the current study prioritizes working with students in small groups by reducing the ratio between students and the teacher/ another educator. However, it is not a central tool for improving achievements and an optimal climate in large classes. Nevertheless, in the long run, it will advance

the teaching supporters' qualifications, reduce teacher dropout, and improve veteran teachers' professionalism and stature.

7.2. Conclusions

There are few studies on teaching language to the whole class while considering students' individual needs. Therefore, at the beginning of the study, we investigated the origins of the ideology for education in Israel.

First, one of the goals of the Zionist movement was to return the Jews to the State of Israel and revive the Hebrew language to create a "new Jew". A new Jew means a modern Jew who speaks Hebrew as a mother tongue in their home. An educational institution called "*Heder*" (Hebrew for "room") was initially built near houses of worship. The students left the morning prayer and entered the "room," where they mainly engaged in Torah studies. However, the learning experience was different; the students were "trapped" in the room from morning to evening and did not get to see the blossoms and green fields and hear the birds chirping. We should also note that only boys had the right to study; the girls would stay home preoccupied with household chores - raising the children, cooking, baking, and more.

The 20th century saw a change in the Zionist "room," which became the cornerstone of Zionist education in Israel. One of the significant steps of that time was establishing a Zionist education network to raise the new generation who would acquire values and knowledge in general subjects such as history, mathematics, geography, and more - alongside the study of the Holy Torah. Indeed, individuals and communities initiated building the first such institutions. Among the founders were "Alliance" and "*HaBrit*" (Hebrew for "the Covenant"), whose purpose was to promote academic and professional excellence and strengthen the Jewish identity in Israel and the world.

At the same time, in the Land of Israel, then under British rule, in 1922, the British mandate recognized Hebrew as the official language in the State of Israel, along with English and Arabic. In those years, the various streams of education also developed: the labor stream, the religious stream, and the orthodox stream.

Following the establishment of the state in 1948, a large wave of Jews came from Eastern countries and Europe. Apart from the desire to provide the immigrants with places to live, there was a demand to integrate immigrant children into educational institutions. At the time, the newly-established Ministry of Education enacted a law requiring every child aged three to 18 to enroll in an educational framework and attend it regularly. Thanks to this law, every child in the State of Israel had to attend an educational institution without distinction of religion or gender.

One of the goals of education in Israel is to familiarize oneself with the Hebrew language. The definition of language soon transcended its limits of the disciplinary and traditional language framework, and the concept of "literacy" took hold. Literacy includes cultural, social, personal communication, political, and other phenomena. To teach students literacy is not only imparting the knowledge of how to read and write in Hebrew but also teaching them to understand the system of reading and writing and know how to use them in everyday life.

The initial use of language is to create oral communication that serves as the primary foundation on which reading and writing will lean later. The first contact begins with the baby's birth and their initial contact with the environment through gestures, body movements, vocal productions, and more.

At first, communication is purely technical based on the senses of sight, hearing, taste, smell, and touch. Later, the baby will develop a communicative

intention, and dramatic changes will occur in the quality of communication with the toddler - mainly in their ability to use the adult as an agent for action. Soon after, this nonverbal communication will turn into verbal. The baby's vocal productions will gradually become similar to speech and consist of consonants and vowels. The child will continue improving their phonological system until age six-seven. By this age, most children reach the correct pronunciation.

The child's parents will enjoy their mispronunciations and correct them pleasantly and warmly. They will even be excited by the child's every new utterance, thus encouraging them to use the language. The matter of excitement includes the adult's response to strengthen the feeling the child experiences; thus, the adult gives meaning to that experience. The excitement will appear as an expression of admiration and encouragement, a change in facial expression and intonation, etc. The principle of excitement prompts the child to seek meaning on their own in the future.

Based on the phonological process and the vocabulary the child has acquired, reading and writing are among the skills children will take from the world of adults. As mentioned above, phonological processes will continue to occur even when the child reaches first grade, when they are required to be aware of these processes that will form the basis for reading and writing later on.

The Hebrew language is the official language in the State of Israel; it is rich in idioms and expressions and numerous words borrowed from other Semitic languages, such as Arabic and Aramaic. The role of the Hebrew teacher as a mediator is to teach the child to read and write independently while adhering to the rules of the Hebrew language. At the end of the learning process, the child knows how to use the language for communicative uses of

conveying messages, expressing desires and needs to participate in experiences, and receiving and providing oral and written information.

Only when the child has a good command of the vocabulary and the syntactic structure of the language will they know how to conduct themselves in the adult world. This ability seems almost trivial to us, but it stems from personal, social, and communicative efforts and even objective difficulties that the student must face to reach this lofty goal.

Most students aged six-seven manage to read, but 20% of all the students in the class do not master the language skills and require an adapted teaching plan. The teacher uses teaching methods based on two basic approaches: the code approach and the complete language approach. The code approach is based on familiarity with the sounds and vowels, whereas the complete language approach relies on familiarity with several words and breaking them down into sounds. These approaches refer to three models of reading: bottom-up, top-down, and interactive. Toward reading acquisition, the child must achieve basic skills, such as meta-linguistic, semantic, and pragmatic awareness - the cornerstones of reading and writing acquisition.

Reading acquisition is a critical process for teachers and students. The teacher's help to the student in this process is one of the most challenging tasks. To aid the students effectively, the teacher must be familiar with the various theories of reading acquisition.

Many experts from different disciplines participated in developing methods for teaching reading to broaden the notion of teaching reading as the mere acquisition of mechanical and technical skills to include an enriching and enjoyable experience.

In reviewing the beginnings of Hebrew in the State of Israel, we cannot ignore the fact that at the end of the 19th century, a substantial wave of

immigration to the Land of Israel brought in multiple languages when every child spoke their mother tongue and Hebrew - only for reading the Torah and prayer.

Eliezer Ben Yehuda, regarded as the reviver of the Hebrew language, dedicated his work to making the Hebrew language an everyday language spoken by all. Furthermore, Ben Yehuda believed that only Hebrew should be the language of education and learning. That is why his name is most associated with the revival of the Hebrew language.

From the 1970s onward, various methods for reading acquisition began emerging in Israel. Among the methods was "Without Secrets", a synthetic phonetic program focused on understanding texts and improving reading comprehension strategies. Later, the "LITAF" method, a global synthetic program, was developed to impart the skill of deciphering and understanding. Finally, in 2011, "The Magic Key" program was developed; the method cultivates handwriting and writing skills and decoding skills in reading and writing.

Another program, "The Power to Read," was based on a neo-global method, emphasizing the word's meaning.

As stated, each of the abovementioned programs involves a different method. As Israeli society's diversity leads to school heterogeneity, many students encounter difficulties with visual memory, auditory perception, and distinguishing between sounds; others require individual instruction; immigrant children must expand their vocabulary in Hebrew as a necessary condition for learning to read and write; and students with objective difficulties, such as learning disabilities, attention deficit disorder, dyslexia, dysgraphia, and more. All these students will be able to learn in a regular class if they receive adapted and effective teaching strategies to overcome the barriers and technical difficulties and learn to deal effectively with written text.

Hence, by the end of an adapted and precise process, even a dyslexic child can read.

Therefore, to successfully teach all the students in the class to acquire reading and writing, the teacher must be familiar with a variety of different methods and theories of reading and writing acquisition and teach in an eclectic method (a combination of several techniques) to provide an adequate response to each student and reduce the gaps between them. In addition, every teacher should have a pool of multisensory activities that stimulate students to learn, help prevent frustration, and make learning experiential and beneficial. A teacher who combines several methods in the same class in a multisensory and kinesthetic way will be able to reach the students who cannot read and write per one uniform teaching method in a traditional and standard learning process.

One of the findings in neuroscience is based on the ability for neuroplasticity by practicing repeated and consistent actions to improve skills; therefore, when there is a barrier or difficulty in one sense, another, a stronger sense will find a way to replace it. Hence, learning through multisensory stimulation and training can strengthen weakened senses and activate strong senses in compensation. Such stimulation can occur through play, enjoyment, happiness, and encouragement - experiential learning that will motivate students to learn and explore. The atmosphere of learning excitement and fun can increase the child's concentration and generate positive behavior. The brain's limbic-emotional system will release a chemical substance called dopamine that will be stored in the brain's memory system and serve as a basis for further learning. The experience of excitement will be stored in the amygdala and preserved as long-term memory.

Early readers use different brain pathways, so the teacher must know how the brain functions while performing specific tasks. Instruction tailored

for struggling students can rewire their brains to use the areas of the brain similar to typical readers. Learning how the brain learns to read significantly contributes to teaching reading and writing because reading is the most significant skill, crucial for success in life.

First, the teacher must know that enriching students with vocabulary is essential for building the mental lexicon. The child with a rich lexicon has a fertile world of imagination. A teacher should know that the brain stores words that have a specific connection between them, and when the student has to retrieve them, they will be stored in his brain in the same place and thus retrieved with maximum ease and speed. The same applies to sentences arranged in a particular logical order; therefore, when the brain stores the information efficiently, it is easier to extract information from memory and use it for different needs.

Based on the abovementioned information and the interviews and testimonies of 30 teachers, an eclectic program involving the five senses was built for the entire class. The interviews yielded four core themes that elucidate how teachers perceive the reading teaching strategies for their students, including teachers' choice of teaching methods, the most relevant processes in promoting reading and writing acquisition, educational atmosphere and learning environments, and external factors that influence the teaching in the classroom, such as the number of students in the classroom, lack of resources and education staff.

We asked teachers how they choose their teaching methods to examine whether teachers have autonomy in choosing the programs or whether the school principal or the Ministry of Education dictates the programs in advance. We concluded that the opinions are divided, and while in some schools, the school principal indeed dictates the program, in other schools, teachers enjoy the autonomy to choose the program according to students' needs. Also, we

found that all teachers can adapt the existing learning program and tailor it more accurately to students' needs. The study's premise was that there was one uniform plan for all the students in the class, and, indeed, there was a single program in most schools. However, the occurring within the classroom walls is the teacher's sole responsibility, and not a single teacher indicated the existence of limitations in upgrading the teaching to make it experiential and enjoyable. Most of the teachers needed to gain knowledge of the multisensory method. However, they stated that they employed additional means of learning without knowing their meaning and the degree of effectiveness in retaining and internalizing the material in the long term for the student. Many teachers understand that combining several methods experientially and kinesthetically is the most effective approach to increasing student and teacher success rates. When the teacher is aware of the student's need to mobilize their attention reserves, they will use creative and unlimited ideas to reach all the students in the class. On this basis, we developed brain-friendly activities and an eclectic approach combining different methodologies of teaching all the students in the class.

Multisensory teaching will rely on more robust channels while developing the weakened senses. Each lesson must engage the senses of sight, hearing, and kinesthetic senses through listening to a song, or a story, watching a video, a presentation, movement, and using materials, such as plasticine, sand, and clay, making soup, cookies, and more.

All the creative materials mentioned above are multidirectional materials usable in various forms by students of all ages and all learning levels. Using these materials enables differential learning; each child can receive treatment according to their needs, and their creation or product is not evaluated with a grade or as a test. The child's product is unique and special and stands on its own.

The material should be accessible for students throughout school hours. The contact with the material is relaxing, the stickiness triggers joy and happiness in children, and the creation has a sentimental value for them, even though it sometimes appears unaesthetic in the teacher's eyes. The teacher must treat each work with respect and sensitivity, encourage support and give points for strengthening and improvement in the future.

The teacher must create for themselves a "toolbox" of a massive collection of game databases, songs, stories, works, and more, know their effectiveness and impact on the students, and replace them if they are not beneficial. Teachers have rich knowledge acquired as part of the initial training teaching. However, they constantly learn and get to know innovative and valuable programs for 21st-century students. They must explore different media channels, join teacher groups and pass information and ideas from one to another. The teacher must know that in a rapidly changing world, they must be updated and relevant to the children's world; therefore, the more relevant the teacher is, the more stimulating and meaningful the learning.

The teacher must know that language is the mother of all skills. A student with an extensive vocabulary, rich language skills, and fertile imagination is the most fundamental and necessary measure for teaching reading. Moreover, teachers know society's value of reading and that it does not end at school. The student will improve their reading and writing throughout life. Initially, they will use it in language and other disciplines, e.g., mathematics, history, geography, biology, etc. Later in life, people use reading and writing skills in all spheres of occupation: medicine, law, various high-tech fields, and more.

Teaching the skills and techniques through combined experiential and fun learning leads to a positive and enjoyable learning atmosphere in the classroom. Experiential learning while playing will not highlight the student's

difficulties; it will encourage them to participate and be part of the whole group; the student will feel a safe and nonthreatening atmosphere. An encouraging and supportive environment will reduce the student's frustrations, unnecessary anger, reluctance to attend school and disruptive behavior during class. A calm and encouraging environment will lead to socioemotional development and positive outcomes in language learning and literacy.

The relationship between the teacher and the student, a personal relationship, mutual respect, and trust encourages and motivates the students and develops their resilience. Proximity to the child while integrating emotion and empathy is an essential parameter in this equation. Therefore, even if the teacher considers teaching an entire class, sometimes numbering 25-30 students, impossible, this study demonstrates that via adapted, eclectic and multisensory teaching, it is possible to reach all the students, even without the help of a student assistant or another teacher in the class. The key to success is the teacher's evaluation and preparing the lesson ahead of time, working within the large class in small groups in a differentiated way. Given that, success depends on the teacher's ability to provide differentiated, adapted, multisensory learning while encouraging students and allowing them experiential and nonthreatening learning.

Furthermore, teachers' enthusiasm and understanding of the significance of reading are insufficient; they must convey to students that reading and writing have great practical significance for their present and future lives, and therefore, teachers must occasionally emphasize that reading and writing are pleasurable and purposeful activities that help us in various situations, such as reading a recipe for making cookies, reading a manual for operating a new device, writing a message to a friend, watching a movie with subtitles, and many more. In addition, students should know that improving

their reading and writing skills will be relevant in their academic studies as they will require reading at a much higher level.

REFERENCES

- Aberbach, M. (2002). *Ha-chinuch ha-yehudi be-tfutsot ha-golah be-yamei ha-beinaim* [Jewish education in the Diaspora in the Middle Ages] [Review of the revised edition *Mekorot le-Toledot ha-Hinukh be-Yisrael* [A sourcebook of the history of education in Israel], by S. Assaf & S. Glick (Eds.). *Hagut: Studies in Jewish Educational Thought*, 3-4, 251-257.
- Ainsworth, M.D.S., & Bell, S. (1973). Mother-Infant interaction and the development of competence. In K. Connolly & J. Bruner (Eds.), *The Growth of Competence* (pp. 97-118). Academic Press.
- American Psychiatric Association (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.). American Psychiatric Publishing, Inc.
- American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders - DSM-5* (5th ed.). American Psychiatric Association Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.books.9780890425596.x00preface>
- Arama, K., Pinsky, M., Koren, G., & Rosenblum, S. (2002). *Zrizut u-miyumanut yadaim be-gilaei 5-6 be-kerev yeladim le-horim yotsei Ethiopia ve-yeladim le-horim yelidei ha'aretz* [The hand skills and dexterity in 5-6 year-old children of Israeli Ethiopian immigrant parents versus children of Israeli born parents]. *The Israeli Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 11, 129-146. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23467460>.
- Aran Ehrenreich, Y. (2013). *Lakut lemidah o hafra'at lemidah? Iohun kshayei lemidah al pi ha-DSM 5* [A learning disability or a learning disorder? Diagnosis of learning difficulties according to the DSM 5]. Retrieved from <https://www.hebpsy.net/articles.asp?id=3043>
- Badian, N.A. (2000). Do preschool orthographic skills contribute to prediction of reading? In N.A. Badian (Ed.), *Prediction and Prevention of Reading Failure* (pp. 31-56). York Press.
- Balu, D. T., & Lucki, I. (2009). Adult hippocampal neurogenesis: Regulation, functional implications, and contribution to disease pathology.

- Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 33, 232–252.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2008.08.007>
- Bar-Adon, A. (2018) 2 on the background: Ben-Yehuda. In *The Rise and Decline of a Dialect: A Study in the Revival of Hebrew* (pp. 11-18). De Gruyter Mouton.
<https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110883640-003>
- Bates, E., Benigni, I., Bretherton, I., Camaioni, L., & Volterra, V. (1979). Chapter 3 -Cognition and communication from nine to thirteen month: Correlation findings. In E. Bates (Ed.), *The Emergence of Symbols: Cognition and Communication in Infancy* (pp.69-140). Academic Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-081540-1.50009-0>
- Bates, E., Camaioni, L., & Volterra, V. (1979). The acquisition of performatives prior to speech. In E. Ochs & B.B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Development and Pragmatics*. Academic Press.
- Bauman, J.F., & Stevenson, J.A. (1986). Identifying types of anaphoric relationships. In J.W. Irwin (Ed.), *Understanding and Teaching Cohesion Comprehension* (pp. 9-20). International Reading Association, Inc.
- Berninger, V.W. (1994). *Reading & writing acquisition: A developmental neuropsychological perspective*. Brown & Benchmark.
- Berninger, V.W., & Graham, S. (1998). Language by hand: A synthesis of a decade of research on handwriting. *Handwriting Review*, 12, 11-25.
- Berninger, V.W., Mizokawa, D., & Bragg, R. (1991). Theory-based diagnosis and remediation of writing. *Journal of School Psychology*, 29, 57-59.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-4405\(91\)90016-K](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-4405(91)90016-K)
- Berninger, V. W., Vaughan, K. B., Abbott, R. D., Abbott, S. P., Rogan, L.W., Brooks, A., Reed, E., & Graham, S. (1997). Treatment of handwriting problems in beginning writers: Transfer from handwriting to composition. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89(4), 652–666. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.89.4.652>

- Berger, J. (1980). *Early development of social signalling antinational and communicative behaviours in Down-Syndrome and non-retarded infants*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Manchester.
- Berger, J. (1990). Interaction between parents and their infants with Down-Syndrome. In O. Cicchetti & M. Beeghly (Eds.), *Children with Down-Syndrome: A Developmental Perspective* (pp. 101-107). Cambridge University Press.
- Berger, J., & Cunningham, C.C. (1981). The development of eye contact between mother and normal versus Down's Syndrome Infants. *Developmental Psychology*, 17(5), 678-689. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.17.5.678>
- Berger, J., & Cunningham, C. C. (1983). The development of early vocal behaviors and interactions in Down-Syndrome non-handicapped Infant-Mother pairs. *Developmental Psychology*, 19(5), 322-331. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.19.3.322>
- Berko-Gleason, J. (1993). *The development of Language*. Allyn & Bacon.
- Berman, R.A., & Ravid, R. (1999). *The oral/literate continuum: Developmental perspectives* (Hebrew). Final Report submitted to the Israel Science Foundation. Tel Aviv University.
- Ben-Raphael, E., Lyubansky, M., Glöckner, O., Harris, P., Israel, Y., Jasper, W., & Schoeps, J. (2006). *Building a Diaspora - Russian Jews in Israel, Germany and the USA*. Brill.
- Bjorklund, F. D. (1989). *Children`s thinking, developmental function and individual differences*. Thomson Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.
- Blas, N. (2008). *Reducing class size - budgetary and educational implications*. Taub Center for Research Social policy in Israel. Jerusalem.
- Bloom, K., & Lo, E. (1990). Adults perceptions of vocalizing infants. *Infant Behavior and Development*, 13, 209-219.

- Bloom, L. (1981). Language development in relation to cognition. In R. Stark (Ed.), *Language Behavior in Infancy and Early Childhood* (pp. 395-398). Elsevier/North-Holland Publishing.
- Bloom, L., & Capatides, J. B. (1987). Expression of affect and the emergent of language. *Child Development*, 58(6), 1513-1522. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1130691>
- Bloom, L., & Lahey, M. (1978). *Language development and language disorders*. John Wiley & Sons. <https://doi.org/10.7916/D8QZ2GQ5>
- Blomert, L., & Froyen, D. (2010). Multi-sensory learning and learning to read. *International Journal of Psychophysiology*, 77(3), 195-204. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpsycho.2010.06.025>
- Bonawitz, E., Shafto, P., Gweon, H., Goodman, N. D., Spelke, E., & Schulz, L. (2011). The double-edged sword of pedagogy: Instruction limits spontaneous exploration and discovery. *Cognition*, 120(3), 322-330. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2010.10.001>
- Bonny, M.A., (1992). Understanding and assessing handwriting difficulties: Perspective from the literature. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 39(3), 7-15. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1630.1992.tb01751.x>
- Bretherton, I. (1987). New perspectives on attachment relations: Security communication and internal working models. In J. D. Osofsky (Ed.), *Handbook of Infants' Development* (2nd ed.) (pp. 1061-1100). John Wiley & Sons.
- Breznitz, Z. (2006). Fluency in reading: Synchronization of processes. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410617019>
- Brook-Gunn, J., & Lewis, M. (1982). Affective exchange between normal and handicapped infants and their mothers. In T. Field & A. Fogel (Eds.), *Emotion and Early Intervention* (pp. 161-188). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Bruer, J.T. (1999). *The myth of the first three years: A New Understanding of Early Brain Development and Lifelong Learning*. The Free Press.
- Bruner, J.S. (1983). *Child's talk: Learning to use language*. Oxford University Press.
- Bullock, A. (2021). *Improving long-term memory in students in early childhood education through the use of multi-sensory interventions* (Master's thesis). <http://hdl.handle.net/11603/21457>
- Carew, J. V. (1980). Experience and the development of intelligence in young children at home and in day care. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 45(6-7). <https://doi.org/10.2307/1166011>
- Case-Smith, J. (2002). Effectiveness of school-based occupational therapy intervention on handwriting. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 56(1), 17–25. <https://doi.org/10.5014/ajot.56.1.17>
- Chall, J.S. (1967; 1983). *Learning to read – the great debate*. McGraw-Hill.
- Chall, J. S. (1996). *Stages of reading development* (2nd ed.). Harcourt Brace Jovanovic College Publishers.
- Chard, D. J., Vaughn, S., & Tyler, B. J. (2002). A synthesis of research on effective interventions for building reading fluency with elementary students with learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 35(5), 386-406. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00222194020350050101>
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. MIT Press. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt17kk81z>
- Chomsky, N., & Halle, M. (1965). Some controversial questions in phonological theory. *Journal of Linguistics*, 1(2), 97-138. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4174898>
- Cohen, A., & Schiff, R. (1996). *Linguistic abilities of Poor vs. Skilled readers*. *International Journal of Special Education*, 11(2), 8-21.
- Cohen, A., Schiff, R., & Gillis-Carlebach, M. (1996). *Complexity of morphological, syntactic, and narrative characteristics: A comparison of children with reading difficulties and children who can read*. *Megamot*, 37, 273-291 (in Hebrew).

- Cornhill, H., & Case-Smith, J. (1996). Factors that relate to good and poor handwriting. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 50(9), 732-737. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5014/ajot.50.9.732>
- Collis, G.M. (1977). Visual co-orientation and maternal speech. In H.R. Schaffer (Ed.), *Studies in Mother-Infant Interaction* (pp. 355-375). Academic Press.
- Condon, W.S., & Sander, L.W. (1974). Neonate movement is synchronized with adult speech: *Interactional participation and language acquisition*. *Science*, 183(4120), 99-101. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.183.4120.99>
- Connolly, J. A. (1978). Intelligence levels of Down Syndrome children. *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, 83(2), 193-196.
- Copple, C., Sigel, I. E., & Saunders, R. (1979). Educating the young thinker: Classroom strategies for cognitive growth. D. Van Nostrand.
- Coss, R.G. (1970). Perceptual aspects of eye-spot patterns and their relevance to gaze behaviour. In C. Hutt & S.J. Hutt (Eds.), *Behavioural Studies in Psychiatry* (pp. 121-147). Pergamon Press.
- Craik, F.I.M., & Jennings, J.M. (1992). Human memory. In F. I. M. Craik & T. A. Salthouse (Eds.), *The Handbook of Aging and Cognition* (pp. 51-110). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Cunningham, C. C., Glenn, S., Lorenz, S., Cuckle, P., & Shepperdson, B. (1998). Trends and outcomes in educational placements for children with Down Syndrome. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 13(3), 225-237.
- Daniel, M. E., & Froude, E.H. (1998). Reliability of occupational therapist and teacher evaluations of handwriting quality of grade 5 and 6 primary school children. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 45(2), 48-58. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1630.1998.tb00782.x>
- Davidson, M. (2006). *Building reading fluency in struggling readers: Effective classroom interventions*. Invited presentation. National Reading First Conference. <http://www.nmreadingfirst.org/ANRFC/06/Davidson->

Buliding_Reading_Fluency_in_Struggling_Readers-
Effective_Classroom_Interventions.ppt

Davis, R.D., & Braun, E.M. (2003). *The Gift of Dyslexia: Why some of the brightest people can't read and how they might learn*. Perigee Books.

Dehaene, S. (2009). *Reading in the brain*. Viking.

Denckla, M.B., & Roeltgen, D.P. (1992). Disorders of motor function and control. In I. Rapin and S.J. Segalowitz (Eds.), *Handbook of Neuropsychology*, 6(10) (pp. 455-476). Elsevier Science.

De Vellis, R.F. (2003). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Thousand Oaks CA: Sage.

Diamond, A. (2000). Close interrelation of motor development and cognitive development and of the cerebellum and prefrontal cortex. *Child Development*, 71(1), 44–65. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00117>

Diamond, A., Barnett, W. S., Thomas, J., & Munro, S. (2007). Preschool program improves cognitive control. *Science*, 318(5855), 1387– 1388. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1151148>

Dromi, E. (1987). *Early lexical development*. Cambridge University Press.

Dromi, E. (1993). The development of pre-linguistic communication: Implication for language evaluation. In J. Anastasiow & S.N. Harel & (Eds.), *At-risk infants: Interventions, families and research* (pp. 13-17). P.H. Brookes Publishing.

Dromi, E. (1993). Parental involvement in the linguistic planning. Paper written for the Joint Project of Keshet and MICHA Center and the School of Education, for teaching language to the hearing-impaired in early childhood (Hebrew). Tel-Aviv University Press.

Dromi, E. (1997). *Hee lo medaberet. Hee rak omeret milim: Hitpatchut ha-lexicon be-shlav ha-had mili*. [She does not talk. She just says words: Lexical development at the one-word stage]. In Y. Shimron (Ed.), *Studies in the Psychology of the Language in Israel, Language Acquisition, Reading and Writing*. Magnes Press.

Dromi, E., & Ringwald-Frimerman, D. (1996). *Hit'arvut tikshoret ve-safah li-yeladim lekuyei shmi'ah: Shelav ha-kdam-mili* [Communication and language intervention in hearing-impaired children, the Pre-Linguistic Stage]. Ramot.

https://biu.primo.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/972BIU_INST/1b2mrrro/alma990003290930205776

Education of Journal American .Available at:
<http://www.physorg.com/news174300427.html>

Einat, A. (1997). *Likuyei lemidah – Ha-etgar* [Learning disabilities – A challenge]. Itav Publishing House.

Elkind, D. (1997). The death of child nature: Education in the postmodern world. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 79(3), 241-245.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/20405998>

Ellis H. (2017). Jules Joseph Dejerine: Distinguished French neurologist. *British Journal of Hospital Medicine*78(2), 115.
<https://doi.org/10.12968/hmed.2017.78.2.115>

Erez, N., & Parush, S. (Eds.). (1999). *Ivchun eichut ktav yad* [The Hebrew Handwriting Evaluation] (2nd ed.). School of Occupational Therapy, Faculty of Medicine, the Hebrew University.
https://biu.primo.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/972BIU_INST/1qincug/alma990011100910205776

- Erhardt, R., & Meade, V. (2005). Improving handwriting without teaching handwriting: The consultative clinical reasoning process. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 52(3),199-210. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1630.2005.00505.x>
- Escobar-Pérez, J. y Cuervo-Martínez, A. (2008). Validez de Contenido y Juicio de Expertos: una aproximación a su utilización. *Avances en Medición*, 6, 27-39.
- Everatt, J. (Ed.). (1999). *Reading and dyslexia: Visual and attentional processes*. Routledge.
- Everatt, J., McCorquodale, B., Smith, J., Culverwell, F., Wilks, A., Evans, D., Kay, M., & Baker, D. (1999). Association between reading ability and visual processes. In J. Everatt (Ed.), *Reading and Dyslexia: Visual and Attentional Processes* (pp. 1-39). Routledge.
- Feder, K.P., & Majnemer, A. (2007). Handwriting development, competency and intervention. *Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology*, 49(4), 312-317. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8749.2007.00312.x>
- Feder, K.P., Majnemer, A., & Synnes, A. (2000). Handwriting: Current trends in occupational therapy practice. *Canadian Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 67(3), 197-204. <https://doi.org/10.1177/000841740006700313>
- Feder, K. P., Majnemer, A., Bourbonnais, D., Platt, R., Blayney, M., & Synnes, A. (2005). Handwriting performance in preterm children compared with term peers at age 6 to 7 years. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology*, 47(3), 163-170. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8749.2005.tb01110.x>
- Feldman, R., & Greenbaum, C. W. (1998). Affect regulation and synchrony in mother-infant play as precursors to the development of symbolic competence. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 18(1), 4-23.

Feuerstein, R. (1977). Mediated learning experience: A theoretical basis for cognitive modifiability during adolescence. In P. Mittler (Ed.), *Research to Practice in Mental Retardation, Education and Training, Vol. 2*. University Park Press.

Feuerstein, R., Rand, Y., & Hoffman, M. R. (1979). *The dynamic assessment of retarded performance: The learning potential assessment device* (The learning potential assessment device (LPAD)). University Park Press.

Feuerstein, R., & Feuerstein, S. (1993). *Hitnasut b-lemidah metavechet: Skira teoretit* [Experiencing mediated learning]: Theoretical review. *Sdeh Chemed*, 36(1-2), 7-50.

Feuerstein R., Klein, P.S., & Tannenbaum, A.J. (Eds.). (1991). *Mediated learning experience (MLE): Theoretical, psychological and learning implications*, 3-51. Freund.

https://biu.primo.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/972BIU_INST/1qincug/alma990001711560205776

Feuerstein, R., Rand, Y., Hoffman, M.B., & Miller, R. (1980). *Instrumental enrichment: An intervention program for cognitive modifiability*. Scott, Foresman & Company.

Feuerstein, R., Rand, Y., & Feuerstein, R.S. (2001). *Al tekabluni kemot she-ani: Gisha pe'ilah meshanah* [Don't accept me as I am: Active approach matters]. The International Center for the Advancement of Learning Skills. Canadian Hadassah-WIZO

Fisher-Ilovich, R., Shalev, E., Peer, M., Tzarom-Briseno, I. (2003). *Ha-keshet bein eichut ktav-yad le-vein zrizut yadaim ve-integratsia visomotorit be-kerev yeladim be-chitah beit* [The relationship between handwriting quality and manual dexterity and visuomotor integration among 2nd graders]. *The Israel Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 12(2), 91–109. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23468022>

- Flapper, B., Houwen, S., & Schoemaker, M. (2006). Fine motor skills and effects of methylphenidate in children with attention-deficit-hyperactivity disorders and developmental coordination disorder. *Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology*, 48(3), 165-169. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0012162206000375>
- Friedmann, N., & Gvion, A. (2001). Letter position dyslexia. *Cognitive Neuropsychology*, 18(8), 673-696. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02643290143000051>
- Gal, E., Rosenblum, S., & Shenkar, R. (1995). *Darchei ha'arachah shel markivei ha-ktivah ve-totsar ktav ha-yad* [Ways of evaluating handwriting components and the penmanship resulting thereof]. *The Israeli Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 4(1), 18-42. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/23460602>
- Gazzaniga, M.S., Ivry, R.B., & Mangun, G.R. (2002). *Cognitive neuroscience: The biology of the mind* (2nd ed.). Norton.
- Gillis, S., & De Schutter, G. (1986). Transitional phenomena revisited: Insights into the nominal insight. In B. Lindblom & R. Zetterstrom (Eds.), *Precursors of Early Speech*. Wenner-Gren Center International Symposium Series. Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-08023-6_10
- Glickstein, M. (2000). How are visual areas of the brain connected to motor areas for the sensory guidance of movement? *Trends in Neurosciences*, 23(12), 613-617. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0166-2236\(00\)01681-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0166-2236(00)01681-7)
- Goldberg-Stern, G., & Weintraub, N. (2005). *Ha-kesher bein meyumanuyot motoriyot ve-vizomotoriyot le-vein eichut ha-ktav be-kerev yeladim im hafra'ah hitpatchutit be-koordinatsia* (DCD) [The relationship between motor and visuomotor skills and quality of handwriting amongst children with Developmental Coordination Disorder (DCD)]. *The Israeli Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 14(4), 193-212. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23468920>

- Goldsmith, D. (1995). Hakamat beit ha-sefer ha-yehudi le-vanim be-Aden (1912) [Establishment of the Jewish school for boys in Aden (1912)]. *Peamim: Interdisciplinary Quarterly for the Study of Jewish Communities in the East*, 64(7): *Yemenite Jews*, 108-119. Yad Ben-Zvi Publications. [https://www.ybz.org.il/_Uploads/dbsAttachedFiles/Article_64.7\(1\).pdf](https://www.ybz.org.il/_Uploads/dbsAttachedFiles/Article_64.7(1).pdf)
- Goldstein, Y. (1986). *Ha-heder ha-metukan be-Rusiyah kevasiv le-ma'arechet hachinuch hatzionit*. [The reformed *heder* in Russia as the basis for the Zionist educational network]. *Iyunim b'Chinuch*, 45, 147-157. The University of Haifa. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23393429>
- Gonen, R., (1970). *Toldot ha-ktav ha-ivri* [The history of the Hebrew script]. Israel Museum Publishing - Youth Department, Ministry of Education and Culture - Pedagogical Centers.
- Goodale, M.A., & Milner, A.D. (2004). *Sight unseen: An exploration of conscious and unconscious vision*. Oxford University Press.
- Gordon, A.M., Browne, K.W. (2017). *Beginnings and beyond: Foundation in early childhood education* (10th ed.). Cengage Learning.
- Graham, S. (1990). The role of production factors in learning disabled student's compositions. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(4), 781-791. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.82.4.781>
- Graham, S., Berninger, V., Weintraub, N., & Schafer, W. (1998). Development of handwriting speed and legibility in grades 1-9. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 92(1), 42-52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220679809597574>
- Graham, S., Harris, K.R., & Fink, B. (2000). Is handwriting causally related to learning to write? Treatment of handwriting problems in beginning writers. *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92(4), 620-633. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.92.4.620>
- Graham, S., Struck, M., Santoro, J., & Berninger, V.W. (2006). Dimensions of good and poor handwriting legibility in first and second graders: Motor

- programs, visual–spatial arrangement, and letter formation parameter setting. *Developmental Neuropsychology*, 29(1), 43-60.
https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326942dn2901_4
- Graham, S., & Weintraub, N. (1996). A review of handwriting research: Progress and prospects from 1980-1994. *Educational Psychology Review*, 8(1), 7-87. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01761831>
- Gray, W.S. (1956). *The teaching of reading and writing. An international survey.* UNESCO.
- Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole, & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and Semantics, Vol. 3: Speech Acts* (pp. 41-58). Academic Press.
<http://www.ucl.ac.uk/lis/studypacks/Grice-Logic.pdf>
- Guberman, A., Tuval, H., Guberman, A., & Teubal, E. (2005). *Ha-im kedai le-lamed shmot ha-otiyot ba-gan?* [Should kindergarten children learn letter names?] *Megamot*, 43(4), 757-764. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23658369>
- Haas, M. (2000). *Peotot mitnasim be-chomrei omanut* [Toddlers experiencing art materials]. Ach Publishers Ltd.
- Haber, D. (1990). *Lo ho'ev likroh – tipul rav-meimadi be-likuyei lemidah.* [Learning disabilities: A multidimensional approach to assessment and treatment]. Ramot.
- Hagin, R.A. (1983). Write-right-or-left: A practical approach to handwriting. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 16(5), 266-271.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/002221948301600505>
- Hahn, N., Foxe, J.J., & Molholm, S. (2014). Impairments of multisensory integration and cross-sensory learning as pathways to dyslexia. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, 47, 384-392.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2014.09.007>
- Halliday, M.A.K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English.* Longman.

- Hamenahem, A. (2007). [Review of the book *Me-havayat maftach le-nekudat mifneh: Al otsmatah shel hashpa'ah chinuchut* [From key experiences to turning points: On the power of the educational impact, by Y. Gad]. *Mifgash: Journal of Social-Educational Work*, 26, Special Issue, 177-182. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23690876>
- Hammer, R., Bentin, S., & Kahan, S. (1992). *Hashpa'at limud ha-kri'ah be-chitah alef al hitpatchut ha-muda'ut ha-fonologit shel yeladim* [The effects of aging and first grade schooling on the development of phonological awareness in children]. *Megamot*, 34(3), 442-455. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23656515>
- Hammill, D.D., & Bartel, N.R. (Eds.). (1980). *Teaching children with learning and behavior problems* (2nd ed.) Allyn & Bacon.
- Hammill, D.D., & Poplin, M. (1980). Problems in writing. In N.R. Bartel (Ed.), *Teaching Children with Learning and Behavior Problems* (2nd ed.). Allyn & Bacon.
- Hamstra-Bletz, L., & Blöte, A.W. (1993). A longitudinal study on dysgraphic handwriting in primary school. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 26(10), 689-699. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002221949302601007>
- Hare, V.C., Rabinowitz, M., & Schieble, K.M. (1989). Text effects on main idea comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24(2), 72-88. <https://doi.org/10.2307/748011>
- Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (2003). The early catastrophe. The 30 million-word gap by age 3. *American Educator*, 27(1), 4-9. <https://www.aft.org/sites/default/files/periodicals/TheEarlyCatastrophe.pdf>

- Harter, S. (1978). Effectance motivation reconsidered: Toward a developmental model. *Human Development*, 21(1), 34-64.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/26764380>
- Harvey, C., & Henderson, S. (1997). Children's handwriting in the first three years of school: Consistency over time and its relationship to academic achievement. *Handwriting Review* 11, 8-25.
- Heiervang, E., & Hugdahl, K. (2003). Impaired visual attention in children with dyslexia. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 36(1), 68-73.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/00222194030360010801>
- Herman, L.A. (2021). *The Effects of Multisensory Imagery on Vocabulary Learning* (Doctoral dissertation, City University of New York).
https://academicworks.cuny.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=5241&context=gc_etds
- Henrietta Sold Institute. (1995). Learning, teaching, education and class size. Henrietta Sold Institute,
- Hermans, E.J, Henckens, M.J, Joëls, M., & Fernández, G. (2014). Dynamic adaptation of large-scale brain networks in response to acute stressors. *Trends in Neuroscience*, 37(6), 304-314.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tins.2014.03.006>
- Hernández Pina, F. y Cuesta, J.D. (2015). Validez y fiabilidad de los instrumentos de medida. En F. Hernández Pina, J.J. Maquilón Sánchez, J.D. Cuesta Sáez de Tejada y T. Izquierdo Rus (Eds.). Investigación y análisis de datos para la realización de TFG, TFM y tesis doctoral. (pp.157-172). Murcia: Compobell, S.L.

Heuser, O. (1966). *Geschichte und Definition* [History and definition]. In C. F. Schmitt (Ed.), *Die Lese-Synthese* (pp.7-30). Moritz Diesterweg.

Hoff-Ginsberg, E. (1986). Function and structure in maternal speech: Their relation to the child`s development of syntax. *Development Psychology*, 22(2), 155-163. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.22.2.155>

Hooper, S., Montgomery, J., Swartz, C., Brown, T., Reed, M., Wasileski, T., & Levine, M. (1993). Prevalence of writing problems across three middle samples. *School Psychology Review*, 22(4), 610-621. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02796015.1993.12085677>

WHO. (2001). International Classification of Functioning, Disability, and Health (ICF). <https://www.who.int/standards/classifications/international-classification-of-functioning-disability-and-health>

Horning, A.S. (1993). Empirical studies: Redundancy and cohesion – miscue research. In A.S. Horning (Ed.), *The Psycholinguistics of Readable Writing: A multidisciplinary exploration* Ablex Publishing.

Jaffe, J., Stern, D.N., & Peery, J.C. (1973). "Conversational" coupling of gaze behavior in prelinguistic human development. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 2, 321-330. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01067054>

Jasnow, M., Crown, C. L., Feldstein, S., Taylor, L., Beebe, B., & Jaffe, J. (1988). Coordinated interpersonal timing of Down-Syndrome and nondelayed infants with their mothers: Evidence for a buffered mechanism of social interaction. *Biological Bulletin*, 175, 355-360. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1541726>

Jones, D., & Christensen, C.A. (1999). Relationship between automaticity in handwriting & student's ability to generate written text. *Journal of*

Educational Psychology, 91(1), 44-49. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.91.1.44>

Kamala, R. (2014). Multisensory approach to reading skills of dyslexic students. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 19(5), 32-34. <https://doi.org/10.9790/0837-19523234>

Kaminsky, S., & Powers, R. (1981). Remediation of handwriting difficulties: A practical approach. *Academic Therapy*, 17(1), 19-52. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105345128101700103>

Karlsdottir, R., & Stefansson, T. (2002). Problems in developing functional handwriting. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 94(2), 623-662. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2466/pms.2002.94.2.623>

Kasari, C., Sigman, M., Mundy, P., & Yirmiya, N. (1990). Affective sharing in the context of joint attention interactions of normal, autistic, and mentally retarded children. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disabilities*, 20(1), 87-100. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02206859>

Kazuhiro, C. (2021). The Effect of Encoding by Multi-Sensory Approach. *Jissen Women's University CLEIP Journal*, 7, 55-66. <https://doi.org/10.34388/1157.00002220>

Katzir, T., Kim, Y., Wolf, M., O'Brien, B., Kennedy, B., Lovett, M., & Morris, R. (2006). Reading fluency: The whole is more than the parts. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 56(1), 51-82. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11881-006-0003-5>

Kehr, C. (1889). *Geschichte der Methodik des deutschen Volksschulunterrichtes* [History of the methodology of German elementary school instruction], Vol. 1. Thienemann.

- Khoury-Shahin, R. (2006). Reliability and validity of the "*Children's Handwriting Disabilities Screening Questionnaire in the Arabic Language*" for *Students in Grades 2–3* (Master's Thesis, The School of Occupational Therapy of Hadassah and the Hebrew University).
- Kinsey, K., Rose, M., Hansen, P., Richardson, A., & Stein, J. (2004). Magnocellular mediated visual-spatial attention and reading ability. *Neuroreport*, *15*(14), 2215-2218. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001756-200410050-00014>
- Kiernan, C., & Reid, B. (1987). *Pre-verbal communication schedule (PVCS): Manual*. NFER-Nelson.
- Klein, P. S. (1984). Behaviour of Israeli mothers toward infant in relation to infant's perceived temperament. *Child Development*, *55*(4), 1212-1218. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1129990>
- Klein, P.S. (1985). *Yeled Chacham yoter* [More intelligent child]. Bar-Ilan University Press.
- Klein, P. S. (1988). Stability and change in interaction of Israeli mothers and infants. *Infant Behavior and Development*, *11*(1), 55-70. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0163-6383\(88\)80016-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0163-6383(88)80016-X)
- Klein, P. S. (1992). More intelligent and sensitive child (MISC). A new look at an old question. *International Journal of Cognitive Education and Mediated Learning*, *2*(2), 105-115.
- Klein, P. S. (1996). *Early intervention: Cross-cultural experience with mediational approach*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315048277>

Klein, P. S., & Alony, S. (1993). Immediate and sustained effects of maternal mediation behaviors in infancy. *Journal of Early Intervention, 17*(2), 177-193.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/105381519301700208>

Klein, P.S., & Feuerstein, R. (1984). Environmental variables and cognitive development: Identification of potent factors in adult-child interaction. In S. Harel & W. Anastasiow (Eds.), *The At-Risk Infant: Psycho-socio-medical Aspects, 14*(3) (pp. 369-377). P.H. Brookes.

Klein, P., & Sobelman-Rosenthal, V. (2002). *Meafyenei hitnahagut tivouchit be-misgeret ha-mishpachah ve-hashpa'atam al yeladim regilim ve-yeladim im tismonet Down* [The characteristics of mediating behavior in the family and their influence on the development of normal children's and children with Down]. In V. Sobelman-Rosenthal & P. Klein (Eds.), *Halon shel hizdamnuyot: le-kidum tinokot veyeladim im tismonet Down* [The Window of Opportunity for the Advancement of Down Syndrome Infants and Children] (pp. 33-59). Reches. <https://education.biu.ac.il/node/1297>

Klein, P. S. (2003). A mediational approach to early intervention in Israel: Mediational intervention for sensitizing caregivers (MISC) of typically developing and hard to reach children. In S. Odam, M. Hanson & J. Blackman (Eds.), *International Perspectives on Early Intervention* (pp. 69-90). Brooks Pub. Co.

Klein, P. S., Raziell, P., Brish, M., & Birenbaum, E. (1987). Cognitive performance of 3 year-olds born at very low birth weight. *Journal of Psychosomatic Obstetrics and Gynecology, 7*(2), 117-129.
<https://doi.org/10.3109/01674828709019596>

Klein, P.S., Weider, S., & Greenspan, S. I. (1987). A theoretical overview and empirical study of mediated learning experience: Prediction of preschool

- performance from mother-infant interaction patterns. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 8(2), 110-129. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-0355\(198722\)8:2<110::AID-IMHJ2280080204>3.0.CO;2-O](https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-0355(198722)8:2<110::AID-IMHJ2280080204>3.0.CO;2-O)
- Klein, R. (2017). *Ha-milim shel Sartre: Nitzchonah ha-ultimativi shel ha-yaldut* [The Ultimate Victory of Childhood by Sartre]. *Dapim: Research in Literature*, 20, 64-82. Department of Hebrew & Comparative Literature, University of Haifa. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/26323210>
- Kleinerman, G. (2004). *Shirim she-margishim yeladim: Tipuach rigushi al pi shitat Dr. Dvorah Kobobi: Madrich le-mechanchot ha-gil ha-rach* [Songs that children feel: Emotional nurturing per Dr. Deborah Kobobi's method: A guide for early childhood educators. Maalot. https://biu.primo.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/972BIU_INST/rqcdci/alma990010669820205776
- Kozminsky, L. (1994). Expanding the vocabulary at the school age. Educational thinking of regular and special education teachers (Hebrew). *Dapim*. The Mofet Institute.
- Krakov, J. B., & Kopp, C. B. (1983). The effects of developmental delay on sustained attention in young children. *Child Development*, 54(5), 1143-1155. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1129670>
- Kumin, L. (1994). *Communication skills in children with Down Syndrome A guide for parents*. Woodbine House, Inc.
- Kushnir, C. (2015). *Nehenim li-chtov*. [Writing it right]. Achai Publishers.
- Landry, S.H., & Chapieski, M.L. (1989). Joint attention and infant toy exploration: Effects of Down-Syndrome and prematurity. *Child Development*, 60(1), 103-18. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1131076>

- Lange, K. W., Tucha, L., Walitza, S., Gerlach, M., Linder, M., & Tucha, O. (2007). Interaction of attention and graphomotor functions in children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. In: M. Gerlach, J. Deckert, K. Double & E. Koutsilieri, (Eds.). *Neuropsychiatric Disorders: An Integrative Approach. Journal of Neural Transmission. Supplementa*, 72 (pp. 249-259). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-211-73574-9_31
- Laszlo, J. I. (1990). Child perceptuo-motor development: Normal and abnormal development of skilled behaviour. *Advances in psychology*, 64, 273-308. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4115\(08\)60101-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4115(08)60101-6)
- Laszlo, J. I., Bairstow, P.J., & Bartip, J. (1988). A new approach to treatment of perceptuomotor dysfunction: Previously called clumsiness. *Support for Learning*, 3(1), 35–40. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9604.1988.tb00068.x>
- Laszlo, J. I., & Broderick, P. (1991). Drawing and handwriting difficulties: Reasons for and remediation of dysfunction. In J. Wann, A.M. Wing, & N. Sovik (Eds.), *Development of Graphic Skills* (pp. 259-280). Academic Press. <http://researchrepository.murdoch.edu.au/id/eprint/1451>
- Laufer, A. (1992). *Fonetika ve-fonologia: Mavoh le-balshanut. Yehidot 4-5* [Introduction to linguistics: Phonetics and Phonology, Units 4-5]. The Open University of Israel.
- Lechter, L., & Rosenblum, S. (2000). *Development of handwriting skills in children of grades 3-8*. (Hebrew). Presented at the 42nd Conference of the Israeli Society of Occupational Therapy.
- Lem, Z. (1999). *Shitat ha-chinuch shel ha-Shomer ha-Tzair: Sipur hit'havutah* [Educational Methods in haShomer ha'Tzair: The Story of Its Formation]. Magnes Publishing.

Lifshitz, N., & Parush, S. (1993). *She'elon itur yeladim im likuyei ktivah* [Children's handwriting disabilities screening questionnaire]. School of Occupational Therapy, Faculty of Medicine, the Hebrew University.

Lipkin, S. (1996). Refer to the value of rhetoric and forms. M.T.H.

Longstaff, M.G., & Heath, R.A. (1997). Space-time invariance in adult handwriting. *Acta Psychologica: European Journal of Psychology*, 97(2), 201-214. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-6918\(97\)00015-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-6918(97)00015-2)

Maeland, A.F., & Karlsdottir, R. (1991). Development of reading, spelling & writing skills from third to sixth grade in normal and dysgraphic children. In H. Wann, A. M. Wing, & N. Sovik (Eds.), *Development of Graphic Skills: Research, perspectives, and educational implications* (pp. 179-184). Academic Press.

Marcon, R. (2003). Growing children: The physical side of development. Research in Review. *Young Children*, 58(1), 80-87. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/42729733>

Marfo, K. (Ed.) (1988). *Parent-child interaction and developmental disabilities: Theory, research and intervention*. Praeger Publishers.

Marr, D., & Cermak, S. (2001). Consistency of handwriting development in the early elementary years: A literature review. *The Israeli Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 10(4), 109-129. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23467304>

Masataka, N. (1993). Effects of contingent and noncontingent maternal stimulation on the vocal behavior in three to four-old Japanese infants. *Journal of Child Language*, 20(2), 303-312. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000900008291>

Meschit, D., & Mevrch, G. (2013) It is also possible in another way: training for teaching according to the partnership-colleague model in the 56, 34-15.

- Mathias, B., Andrä, C., Schwager, A., Macedonia, M., & von Kriegstein, K. (2022). Twelve-and fourteen-year-old school children differentially benefit from sensorimotor-and multisensory-enriched vocabulary training. *Educational Psychology Review*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-021-09648-z>
- McHale, K., & Cermak, S. A. (1992). Fine motor activities in elementary school: Preliminary findings and provisional implications for children with fine motor problems. *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 46(10), 898-903. <https://doi.org/10.5014/ajot.46.10.898>
- Medwell, J.M., & Wray, D. (2007). Handwriting: What do we know and what do we need to know? *Literacy*, 41(1), 10-15. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9345.2007.00453.x>
- Meulenbroek, R.G.J., & Thomassen, A.J.W.M. (1992). Effects of handedness and arm position on stroke-direction preferences in drawing. *Psychological Research*, 54, 194-201. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00922099>
- Meyer, M., & Felton, R. (1999). Repeated reading to enhance fluency: Old approaches and new directions. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 49, 283-306. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11881-999-0027-8>
- Milner A.D., & Goodale, M.A. (1995). *The Visual brain in action*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780198524724.001.0001>
- Moraise, J., Bertelson, P., Cary, L., & Alegria, J. (1986). Literary training and speech segmentation. *Cognition*, 24(1-2), 45-64. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277\(86\)90004-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277(86)90004-1)
- Nagauker-Yanuv, L. (2007). *Holelut atsmi ve-divuach atsmi be-kerev yeladim hamitkashim be-chtivah be-hashva'ah le-yeladim she-einam mitkashim be-chtivah*.

[Self-efficacy and self-reporting in children with handwriting difficulties in comparison to children with no handwriting difficulties]. Presented at the 42nd Conference of the Israeli Society of Occupational Therapy. .

Pichora-Fuller, M. K., Kramer, S.E., Eckert, M.A., Edwards, B., Hornsby, B.W.Y., Humes, L.E., Lemke, U., Lunner, T., Matthen, M., Mackersie, C.L., Naylor, G., Phillips, N.A., Richter, M., Rudner, M., Sommers, M.S., Tremblay, K.L., Wingfield, A. (2016). Hearing impairment and cognitive energy: The framework for understanding effortful listening (FUEL). *Ear and Hearing*, 37, 5-27. <https://doi.org/10.1097/AUD.0000000000000312>

Vandell, D.L. (1996). Characteristics of infant child care: Factors contributing to positive caregiving. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 11(3), 239-306. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0885-2006\(96\)90009-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0885-2006(96)90009-5)

NICHD, Early Child Care Research Network (1996).

NICHD, Early Child Care Research Network (1998). *The NICHD study of early child care*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Nir, R. (1989). *Semantika Ivrit: Mashma'ut ve-tikshoret* [Hebrew Semantics: Meaning and Communication], 7-10. The Open University of Israel. https://biu.primo.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/972BIU_INST/1qincug/alma990001059240205776

Nir, R. (1990). *Mavoh le-balshanut* [Introduction to Linguistics], 10-12. The Open University of Israel.

Bakar, N.F., & Abd Rahman, M.J. (2018). *Prevalence Murid Berisiko Disleksia Dalam Kalangan Kanak-Kanak Prasekolah* [Prevalance of students at risk of dyslexia among preschoolers]. Proceedings of the National Seminar of the Dean Council of Public University Education.

<https://docplayer.info/130041710-Prevalence-murid-berisiko-disleksia-dalam-kalangan-kanak-kanak-prasekolah.html>

O'Hare, A. (2007). Hands up for handwriting. *Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology*, 46(10), 651-651. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8749.2004.tb00976.x>

Olstein, A. (1998). *Safah nosefet be-gil ha-rach* [Another language in early childhood]. *Hed ha-Gan*, 62(4).

Otto, B. (1903). *Mutterfibel* [Mother's Primer]. Scheffer.

Owens, R. (1992). *Language development: An introduction* (3rd ed.). Merrill.

Owens, R. E. (1996). *Language development: An introduction* (4th ed.). Allyn and Bacon Publishers.

Pagliano, P. (2012). *The multisensory handbook: A guide for children and adults with sensory learning disabilities* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203117385>

Paparella, T., & Kasari, C. (2004). Joint attention skills and language development in special needs population: Translating research to practice. *Infants and Young Children*, 17(3), 269-280. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001163-200407000-00008>

Papoušek, M., & Papoušek, H. (1989). Form and function of vocal matching in interactions between mothers and their precanonical infants. *First Language*, 9(6), 137-157. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014272378900900603>

Papoušek, M., Papoušek, H., & Bornstein, M.H. (1985). The naturalistic vocal environment of young infants: On the significance of homogeneity and variability in parental speech. In T.M. Field & N. Fox (Eds.), *Social Perception in Infants* (pp. 269-297). Ablex Publishing Corporation.

- Papousek, H., Papousek, M., & Koester, L.S. (1986). Sharing emotionality and sharing knowledge: A microanalytic approach to parent-infant communication. In C.E. Izard & P. Read (Eds.), *Measuring Emotions in Infants and Children*, 2 (pp. 93-123). Cambridge University Press.
- Palmatier, R.W., Houston, M.B. & Hulland, J. (2018). Review articles: Purpose, process, and structure. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 46, 1–5. 46. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-017-0563-4>
- Parush, S., Levanon-Erez, N., & Weintraub, N. (1998). Ergonomic factors influencing handwriting performance. *Work*, 11(3), 295-305. <https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-1998-11306>
- Parush, S., Levanon-Erez, N., & Weintraub, N. (1999). *Gormim ergonomiim ha-mashpiim al eichut ktav ha-yad* [Ergonomic factors influencing handwriting performance]. *The Israel Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 8(2), 57–74. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23467975>
- Parush, S., Pindak, V., Hahn-Markowitz, J., Mazor-Karsenty, T. (1999). Does fatigue influence children's handwriting performance? *Israel Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 8(2), 31- 44. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23467984>
- Penman, R., Cross, T., Milgrom-Friedman, J., & Meares, R. (1983). Mother's speech to prelingual infants: A pragmatic analysis. *Journal of Child Language*, 10(1), 17-34. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0305000900005109>
- Peled, N. (2008). *Genres in speech and writing*. Tel-Aviv: Moft Institute. <https://store.macam.ac.il/store/books/444027/>
- Perfetti, C.A. (2007). Reading Ability. *Lexical quality to comprehension*, 11(4), 357-383. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10888430701530730>
- Pinker, S. (1999). *Words and rules: The ingredients of language*. Basic Books.

- Pino, O. (1999). The effect of context on mother interaction style with Down's Syndrome and typically developing children. *Research in Developmental Disabilities, 21*(5), 329-346. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0891-4222\(00\)00046-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0891-4222(00)00046-9)
- Piñón, F. A. P., Orozco, G. H., & Holguín, J. A. T. (2018). *Narrativas: Cómo aprendimos a leer y escribir* [Narratives: How we learned to read and write]. *RECIE. Revista Electrónica Científica de Investigación Educativa, 4*(1), 47-54.
https://www.academia.edu/38356558/2018_vol4_num1_Narrativas_C%C3%B3mo_aprendimos_a_leer_y_escribir
- Poikkeus, A.M., Ahonen, T., Narhi, V., Lyytinen, P., & Rasku-Puttonen, H. (1999). Language problem in children with learning disabilities: Do they interfere with maternal communication? *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 32*(1), 22-35. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002221949903200103>
- Powers, A.R., Hevey, M.A., & Wallace, M.T. (2012). Neural correlates of multisensory perceptual learning. *Journal of Neuroscience, 32*(18), 6263-6274. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.6138-11.2012>
- Prendergast, G.S., & McCollum, A.J. (1996). Let's talk: The effect of maternal hearing status in interaction with toddlers who are deaf. *American Annals of the Deaf, 141*(1), 11-18. <https://doi.org/10.1353/aad.2012.0020>
- Pretis, M. (2000). Early intervention in children with Down Syndrome: From evaluation to methodology. *Infants and Young Children, 12*(3), 23-31. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001163-200012030-00006>
- Proulx, M.J., Brown, D.J., Pasqualotto, A., & Meijer, P. (2014). Multisensory perceptual learning and sensory substitution. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews, 41*, 16-25. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2012.11.017>
- Puspitaloka, N., & Syarif, H. (2021, March). Teacher's perception on how multisensory approach in teaching reading for EYL with dyslexia.

- Proceedings of the Ninth International Conference on Language and Arts (ICLA 2020)* (pp. 179-183). Atlantis Press.
<https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.210325.033>
- Rachmani, L. (1984). *Mavoh le-noiropsichologia klini* [Introduction to Neuropsychology]. Dyonun.
- Rapel, D., *Studies in Education*, Vol. 3, University of Haifa, 1997, pp. 225-229
- Rapp, B., & Beeson, P.M. (2003). Introduction – Dysgraphia: Cognitive process, remediation, and neural substrates. *Aphasiology*, 17(6-7), 531-534.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02687030344000012>
- Rasinski, T.V. (2003). *The fluent reader: Oral reading strategies for building word recognition, fluency, and comprehension*. Scholastic.
- Ratzon, H. (2002). *Yeladim kotvim – Kav u-chtav, bituy ishi: Ha-tsmichah ha-grafomotorit shel yeladim u-mitbagrim* [Children`s writing. The graphomotor growth of children and adolescents. ACH Publishing.
- Re, A.M., Pedron, M., & Cornoldi, C. (2007) Expressive writing difficulties in children described as exhibiting ADHD symptoms. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 40(3), 244-552. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00222194070400030501>
- Reisman, J.E. (1993). Development and reliability of the research version of the Minnesota handwriting Test. *Physical and Occupational Therapy in Pediatrics*, 13(2), 41-55. https://doi.org/10.1300/J006v13n02_03
- Richards, J.C., & Rogers, T.S. (2014). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009024532>

- Richards, M.P.M. (1974). The development of psychological communication in the first year of life. In K. Connolly & J. Bruner (Eds.), *The Growth of Competence*. Academic Press.
- Ringwald-Frimerman, D. (2003). *Ha-tsemed em-yeled ke-ma'arechet dinamit: Tsmichatam shel smalim leshoniim be-svivot leshoniot merubot arutsim: Sfat ha-simanim isra'elit, tikshoret simultanit ve-ivrit* [Mother-child dyad as a dynamic system: The emergence of linguistic symbols in multiple-channel linguistic environments - Israeli sign language, simultaneous communication and Hebrew] (Doctoral Thesis, Bar-Ilan University). Bar-Ilan University Press.
https://www.nli.org.il/en/dissertations/NNL_ALEPH002476251/NLI
- Rivlin, A. (1975). *Havayah be-shi'ur ha-sifrut* [The literary experience in the literature class]. *Iyunim BeChinuch*, 7/8, 93-108.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/23390337>
- Robson, K.S. (1967). The role of eye-to-eye contact in maternal-infant attachment. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 8(1), 13-25.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1967.tb02176.x>
- Rodger, S., Brown, G.T., & Brown, A. (2005). Profile of paediatric occupational therapy practice in Australia. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 52(4), 311-325. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1630.2005.00487.x>
- Rodrigue, A. (1990). *Chinuch, chevrah ve-historia: "Kol Isra'el chaverim" ve-yehudim shel agan ha-yam ha-tichon 1860-1929* [Education, Society and History: "The Alliance Israélite Universelle" and the Jews of the Mediterranean basin]. Yad Izhak Ben Zvi.
- Rom, A., Segal, M., & Tzur, B. (2003). *Yeled: Mah hu omer? Al hitpatchut safah etsel yeladim* [A child: What does he say? Language development among

children]. The Mofet Institute.

https://www.nli.org.il/he/books/NNL_ALEPH002295149/NLI

Rondal, J.A. (1988). Language development in Down`s syndrome: A life-span perspective. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 11*(1), 21-36.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/016502548801100103>

Rosenblum, S. (2005). Using the alphabet task to differentiate between proficient and nonproficient handwriters. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 100*(3), 629-639. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.100.3.629-639>

Rosenblum, S. (2008). Development, reliability and validity of the Handwriting Proficiency Screening Questionnaire (HPSQ). *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 62*(3), 298-307. <https://doi.10.5014/ajot.62.3.298>

Rosenblum, S., Chevion, D., & Weiss, P.L.T. (2006a). Using data visualization and signal processing to characterize the handwriting process. *Pediatric Rehabilitation, 9*(4), 404-417. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13638490600667964>

Rosenblum, S., Dvorkin, A., & Weiss, P.L. (2006b). Automatic segmentation as a tool for examining the handwriting process of children with dysgraphic and proficient handwriting. *Human Movement Science [Special Issue on Handwriting], 25*, 608-621. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2006.07.005>

Rosenblum, S., Epsztein, L., & Josman, N. (2008). Handwriting performance of children with attention deficit hyperactive disorders (ADHD): A pilot study. *Physical and Occupational Therapy in Pediatrics, 28*(3), 219-234
<https://doi.org/10.1080/01942630802224934>

Rosenblum, S., Goldstand, S., & Parush, S. (2006c). The relationship between biomechanical ergonomic factors, handwriting product quality, handwriting efficiency, and computerized handwriting process measures

in children with and without handwriting difficulties. *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 60(1), 28-39. <https://doi.org/10.5014/ajot.60.1.28>

Rosenblum, S., & Livneh-Zirinski, M. (2008).

Handwriting process and product characteristics of children diagnosed with developmental coordination disorder. *Human Movement Science*, 27(2), 200-214
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2008.02.011>

Rosenblum, S., Parush, S., Epsztein, L., & Weiss, P.L. (2003). Process versus product evaluation of poor handwriting among children with Developmental Dysgraphia and ADHD. In H.L. Teulings & A.W.A. Van Gemmert (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 11th Biennial Conference of the International Graphonomics Society* (pp. 169-173).

Rosenblum, S., Parush, S., & Weiss, P. L. (2003a). Computerized temporal handwriting characteristics of proficient and non-proficient handwriters. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 57(2), 129-831.
<https://doi.org/10.5014/ajot.57.2.129>

Rosenblum, S., Parush, S., & Weiss, P.L. (2003b). The In Air phenomenon: Temporal and spatial correlates of the handwriting process. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 96(3), 933-459. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.2003.96.3.933>

Rosenblum, S., Weiss, P. L., & Parush, S. (2003b). Product and process evaluation of handwriting difficulties. *Educational Psychology Review*, 15(1), 41-81. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1021371425220>

Rosenblum, S., & Weintraub, N. (2007). *Likuyei Lemidah ve-ripui be-isuk be-Isra'el: Skira shel mechkar ve-ha-aisyah kfi she-bau le-yadei bitui ba-pirsumim be-IJOT* [Learning disabilities and occupational therapy: Review of research and practice as reflected in the IJOT publications]. *The Israel Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 16(3), 137–158. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/23468891>

- Rosenblum, S., Katz, N., & Parush, S. (1997). *Tifkud visiomotori shel yeladim olim hadashim mi-Etiopia be-hashva'ah li-yeladim vatikim mi-Etiopia ve-yeladim Isra'elim* [Visuomotor performance of new immigrant children from Ethiopia, compared to veteran immigrant children from Ethiopia and Israeli children]. *The Israeli Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 6(1), 1–19. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23460140>
- Rosenblum, S., Schenker, R., & Gal, E. (1994). *Ktivah – Markivim, ha'arachah ve-tipul: Markivei ktav ha-yad. Gormim tfisatiim, sensomotoriim ve-ergonomim* [Writing - Components, evaluation and treatment: Components of handwriting. Perceptive, sensomotor and ergonomic factors]. *The Israeli Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 3(4), 169–191. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23469522>
- Rubin, N., & Henderson, S. E. (1982). Two sides of the same coin: Variation in teaching methods & failure to learn to write. *Special Education: Forward Trends*, 9(4), 17-24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8578.1982.tb00576.x>
- Zarfatti, j. (1978). *Semantika ivrit* [Hebrew Semantics]. A. Rubinstein Publishing.
- Sassoon, R. (1990). *Handwriting: A New Perspective*.
- Stanley Thorns. Scardamalia, M., Bereiter, C., & Goleman, H. (1982). The role of production factors in writing ability. In M. Nystrand (Ed.), *What writers know: The language process & structure of written discourse* (pp.173-210). Academic Press.
- Shany, M., & Share, D. L. (2011). Subtypes of reading disability in a shallow orthography: A double dissociation between accuracy-disabled and rate-disabled readers of Hebrew. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 61(1), pp. 64-84. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11881-010-0047-4>

- Share, D. (2017). Learning to Read Hebrew. In L. Verhoeven & C. Perfetti (Eds.), *Learning to Read across Languages and Writing Systems* (pp. 127-154). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316155752.007>
- Schiff, R. (1983, January 2). *Pras leva'alat tochnit "LITAF" lelimud kri'ah*. [Prize awarded to the developer of the "LITAF" system of teaching reading]. *Ma'ariv*, p. 16. <https://www.nli.org.il/he/newspapers/mar/1983/01/02/01/article/133/?e=---he-20--1--img-txIN%7ctxTI-----1>
- Schlesinger, I., Ravid, D., & Israel, Z. (1996) *Tipuach ha-havchanah ha-meshalevet ba-chinuch ha-leshoni be-hachsharat morim* [Cultivating the Integrative Distinction in Linguistic Education in Teacher Training]. The Mofet Institute.
- Segal, M. (2003). *Mahi safah?* [What is language?] In A. Rom, M. Segal & B. Tzur (Eds.), *A child: What does he say?* (pp. 13-31). The Mofet Institute. https://www.nli.org.il/he/books/NNL_ALEPH002295149/NLI
- Setyawati, F.F. (2017). *Efektivitas metode multisensori untuk meningkatkan kemampuan membaca permulaan pada anak tunagrahita ringan kelas ii Slb Negeri Semarang* [The effectiveness of multisensory method to improve early reading skills in mildly retarded second-grade children]. Semarang State University. <http://lib.unnes.ac.id/id/eprint/29967>
- Shams, L., & Seitz, A. R. (2008). Benefits of multisensory learning. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, 12(11), 411-417. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2008.07.006>
- Shatil, J. (1993). *Ha-psichografia shel ha-yeled* [Psychography of the child]. Ramot.
- Sheffield, B. (1996). Handwriting: A neglected cornerstone of literacy. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 46, 21–35. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02648169>

- Shimrom, J. (1981). The distributions of the information within letters. *Perception and Psychophysics*, 30(5), 483-91. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03204845>
- Silverman, R., & Hines, S. (2009). The effects of multimedia-enhanced instruction on the vocabulary of English-language learners and non-English-language learners in prekindergarten through second grade. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101(2), 305-314. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0014217>
- Simner, M. L. (1982). Printing errors in kindergarten and the prediction of academic performance. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 15(3), 155–159. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002221948201500306>
- Simner, M. L. (1985). *Printing Performance School Readiness Test*, Guidance Centre, Faculty of Education, University of Toronto. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105345129002500311>
- Simner, M. L. (1986). Further evidence on the relationship between form errors in preschool printing and early school achievement. In H.S.R. Kao, G.P. van Galen & R. Hoosain (Eds.), *Graphonomics: Contemporary Research in Handwriting* (pp. 107-120), Elsevier Science. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4115\(09\)60075-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4115(09)60075-3)
- Simner, M. L. (1990). Printing performance school readiness test. *Academic Therapy*, 25(3), 371-375. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105345129002500311>
- Simner M. L. (1991) Estimating a child's learning potential from form errors in a child's printing. In J. Wann, A. Wing & N. Sovik (Eds.), *Development of Graphic Skills: Research Perspectives and Educational Implications* (pp. 205–221). Academic Press.

- Simons, J.C.J. (1995). *Hitpatchut ha-ktivah ve-ha-motorika ha-adinah: shnei aspektim psichomotoriim shonim* [Development of handwriting and fine motor skills: Two different psychomotor aspects]. *Issues in Special Education & Rehabilitation*, 10(1), 37-41. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23451003>
- Singh, L. (2008). Influences of high and low variability on infant word recognition. *Cognition*, 106(2), 833–870. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2007.05.002>
- Smits-Engelsman, B.C.M., Niemeijer, A.S., & van Galen, G.P. (2001). Fine motor deficiencies in children diagnosed as DCD based on poor grapho-motor ability. *Journal of Human Movement Science*, 20(1-2), 161-182. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-9457\(01\)00033-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-9457(01)00033-1)
- Smits-Engelsman, B.C.M., Van Galen, G.P., & Michels, C.G.J. (1995). *De leekracht beoordeeld: Inschatting van schrijfoaardigheidsproblemen en motorische achterstand bij basisschool leerlingen* [The teacher assessed: Assessment of writing skills and motor retardation in elementary school students]. *Tijdschrift voor Onderwijsresearch*, 20, 1-15, 285-299.
- Smits-Engelsman, B.C.M., van Galen, G.P., & Shoemaker, M.M. (1998). Theory-based diagnosis & subclassification in the developmental coordination disorder. In J. Rispens, T.A. Van Yperen & W. Yule (Eds.), *Perspective on the classification of specific developmental disorders* (pp. 245-264). Kluwer Academic Publisher. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-2581-1_12
- Snow, C.E. (1977a). The development of conversation between mothers and babies. *Journal of Child Language*, 4(1), 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000900000453>
- Snow, C.E. (1977b). Mother`s speech research: From input to interaction. In C.E. Snow & C. Ferguson (Eds.), *Talking to Children: Language Input and Acquisition* (pp. 31–49), Cambridge University Press.

Sobelman-Rosenthal, V. (1999). *Hitpatchut miyumanuyot tikshoret ve-safah etsel tinokot im tisonet Down ve-tinokot regilim be-heksher le-markivei ha-interaktsia imam* [Development of communication and language skills and mother-child interaction in Down-Syndrome and normal infants] (Doctoral Thesis, Bar-Ilan University). Bar-Ilan University Press.

Sobelman-Rosenthal, V. (2000). *Interaktsia em – yeled ve-hitpatchut miyumanuyot tikshoret ve-safah etsel tinokot im tisonet Down ve-tinokot regilim* [Mother-child interaction and development of communication and language skills in infants with Down-syndrome and normal infants. In P.S. Klein (Ed.), *Infants, Toddlers, Parents and Caregivers. Studies on Child Development in Israel* (pp. 219-239). Reches

Sobelman-Rosenthal, V. (2002). *Hitpatchut miyumanuyot tikshoret ve-safah etsel yeladim im tisonet Down* [Development of communication and language skills in Down -syndrome children. In V. Rosenthal-Sobelman and P. Klein's (Eds.), *The Window of Opportunity for the Advancement of Down Syndrome Infants and Children* (pp. 61-80). Reches. <https://education.biu.ac.il/en/node/1298>

Spencer, P. E., Bonder-Johnson, B.A., & Gutfreund, M.K. (1992). Interacting with infants with hearing loss: What can we learn from mothers who are deaf? *Journal of Early Intervention*, 16(1), 67-78. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105381519201600106>

Sousa, D. A. (2011). *How the brain learns* (4th ed.). Corwin.

Sousa, D. A. (2014). *How the brain learns to read* (2nd ed.). Corwin.

Sousa, D.A. (2017). *How the brain learns* (5th ed.). Corwin.

- Sovik, N., Arntzen, O., & Karlsdottir, R. (1993). Relationship between writing speed and some parameters in handwriting. *Journal of Human Movement Studies*, 25, 133-150.
- Sovik, N., Arntzen, O., & Thygesen, R. (1987). Writing characteristics of "normal", dyslexic & dysgraphic children. *Journal of Human Movement Studies*, 31, 171- 187.
- Spitz, R.A. (1964). The derailment of dialogue: Stimulus overload. Action cycles and the completion gradient. *Journal of American Psychoanalytic Association*, 12(4), 752-775. <https://doi.org/10.1177/000306516401200405>
- Stake, R.E. (1994). Case studies. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 236-247). Sage. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1994-98625-013>
- Stern, D.M. (1974). Mother and infant at play: Thy dyadic interaction involving facial, vocal and gaze behavior. In M. Lewis & L. A. Rosenblum (Eds.), *The Effects of the Infant on Its Caregiver: The Origins of Behavior Series*, 1. Wiley.
- Stern, D. M. (1977). *The first relationship*. Harvard University Press.
- Supriatna, A., & Ediyanto, E. (2021). The Implementation of Multisensory Technique for Children with Dyslexia. *Indonesian Journal of Disability Studies*, 8(1), 279-293. <https://doi.org/10.21776/ub.ijds.2021.008.01.17>
- Sweedler-Brown, C.O. (1992). The effects of training on the appearance bias of holistic essay graders. *Journal of Research Development in Education*, 26(1), 4-88.
- Tait, D.M. (1987). Making and monitoring progress in the pre-school years. *Journal of the British Association of Teachers of the Deaf*, 11(5), 143-153.
- Tomasello, M., & Farrar, M. (1986). Joint attention and early language. *Child Development*, 57(6), 1454-1463. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1130423>

- Trevarthen, C. (1977). Descriptive analyses of infant communicative behavior. In H.R. Schaffer (Ed.), *Studies in Mother-Infant Interaction* (pp. 227-270). Academic Press.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/245877422_Descriptive_analyses_of_infant_communication_behavior
- Trevarthen, C. (1979). Communication and cooperation in early infancy: A description of primary intersubjectivity. In M. Bullowa (Ed.), *Before Speech: The beginning of human communication* (pp. 321-348). Cambridge University Press.
- Trevarthen, C. (1992). The self-born in intersubjectivity: The psychology of infant communicating. In U. Neisser (Ed.), *The Perceived Self: Ecological and Interpersonal Knowledge of the Self* (pp. 94-121). Cambridge University Press.
https://ocul-gue.primo.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/01OCUL_GUE/t4pdma/alma9916908103505154
- Tseng, M.H., & Chow, S.M.K. (2000). Perceptual-motor function of school-age children with slow handwriting speed. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 54(1), 83-88. <https://doi.org/10.5014/ajot.54.1.83>
- Tucha, O., & Lange, K.W. (2005). The effect of conscious control on handwriting in children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. *Journal of Attention Disorders*, 9(1), 323-332. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1087054705279994>
- Tulving, E. (1985). Memory and consciousness. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie canadienne*, 26(1), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0080017>
- Van Engen, A. (1992). *Schrijven...als oefenvak op de basisschool*. [Writing... as a practice subject in primary school]. Schrijfpedagogisch Instituut.

- Van Galen, G. P. (1991). Handwriting: Issues for a psychomotor- theory. *Human Movement Science, 10*(2-3), 165-291. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-9457\(91\)90003-G](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-9457(91)90003-G)
- Van Galen, G. P., Portier, S. J., Smits-Engelsman, B.C.M., & Shoemaker, L.R.B. (1993). Neuromotor noise & poor handwriting in children. *Acta Psychologica: European Journal of Psychology, 82*(1-3), 161-178. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-6918\(93\)90010-O](https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-6918(93)90010-O)
- Vidyasagar T.R., Pammer, K. (1999). Impaired visual search in dyslexia relates to the role of the magnocellular pathway in attention. *Neuroreport, 10*(6), 1283-1287. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001756-199904260-00024>
- Vlachos, F., & Bonoti, F. (2006). Explaining age and sex differences in children's handwriting: A neurobiological approach. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 3*(2), 113-123. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17405620500371455>
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvjf9vz4>
- Waber, D.P., & Bernstein, J.H. (1994). Repetitive graphomotor output in L.D. and nonlearning-disabled children. The Repeated Patterns Test. *Developmental Neuropsychology, 10*(1), 51-56. <https://doi.org/10.1080/87565649409540566>
- Wohl, A. (1998). *Kri'ah – Teoria u-ma'aseh: Lomdim u-melamdin oryanut* [Reading theory and practice. Learning and Teaching Literacy]. The Open University of Israel.
- Warren, S. F., & Kaiser, A.P. (1988). Research in early language intervention. In S.L. Odom & M.B. Karnes (Eds.), *Early Intervention for Infants and Children with Handicaps and Empirical Base* (pp.89-108). Paul H. Brookes.

- Walters, S. (2019). Learning to read Hebrew in a Jewish community school: Learners' experiences and perceptions. *The Language Learning Journal*, 47(2), 257-267. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2017.1283350>
- Weintraub, N. (1997). Handwriting: Understanding the process. *The Israeli Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 6(2), 33-47. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23460103>
- Weintraub, N., Rosenblum, S., Lahav, O., Erez, N., Traub-Bar Ilan, R., Lifshitz, N., & (2007). *Ripui be-isuk be-kerev okhlusiah im likuyei lemidah le-orech ma'agal ha-chaim* [Occupational therapy in a population with learning disabilities throughout their life circle], Position paper. *The Israeli Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 16(3), 131-135.
- White, B.L., Kaban, B.T., & Attanucci, J.S. (1979). *The Origins of human competence: The final report of the Harvard Preschool Project*. Lexington Books.
- Weissblai, E, & Weininger, A. (2015). *Ma'areche ha-chinuch be-Isra'el – Sugiot nivocharot be-tchum isukah shel va'adat ha-chinuch, ha-tarbut, ve-ha-sport shel ha-Knesset* [The education system in Israel - Selected issues in the field of the Knesset's Education, Culture and Sports Committee]. The Knesset Research and Information Committee. <https://main.knesset.gov.il/Activity/Info/Research/Pages/incident.aspx?docid=f7536b58-e9f7-e411-80c8-00155d010977>
- Wolf, M., & Katzir-Cohen, T. (2001). Reading fluency and its intervention. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 5(3), pp. 211-239. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532799XSSR0503_2
- Yeung, H. H., & Werker, J. F. (2009). Learning words' sounds before learning how words sound: 9-month-olds use distinct objects as cues to categorize speech information. *Cognition*, 113(2), 234–243. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2009.08.010>

- Yinon, M., & Weintraub, N. (2000). *Tochniyot hit'arout le-shipur yecholet ha-ktivah: Skirat Sifrut* [Intervention programs for improving handwriting performance: Literature Review]. *The Israel Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 9(1), 17–35. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23467341>
- Yoder, P.J., Klee, T., Hooshyar, N., & Shaffer, M. (1997). Correlates and antecedents of maternal expansions of utterances of children with language disabilities. *Clinical Linguistics and Phonetics*, 11(1), 23-41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699209708985181>
- Yoder, P. J., & Warren, S. F. (1999). Facilitating self-initiated proto-imperative in prelinguistic children with developmental disabilities. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 22(4), 337-354. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105381519902200408>
- Yoder, P. J., & Warren, S.F. (2001). Relation treatment effects of two prelinguistic communication on language development in toddlers with developmental delays vary by maternal characteristics. *Journal of Speech Language, and Hearing Research*, 44(1), 224-237. [https://doi.org/10.1044/1092-4388\(2001/019\)](https://doi.org/10.1044/1092-4388(2001/019))
- Yoder, P.J., & Warren, S.F. (2004). Early predictors of language in children with and without Down Syndrome. *American Journal of Mental Retardation*, 109(4), 285-300. [https://doi.org/10.1352/0895-8017\(2004\)109<285:EPOLIC>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1352/0895-8017(2004)109<285:EPOLIC>2.0.CO;2)
- Zigler, E.F., & Bishop-Josef, S.J. (2006). The cognitive child versus the whole child: Lessons from 40 years of Head Start. In D. Singer, R. M. Golinkoff, & K. Hirsh-Pasek (Eds.), *Play = Learning: How play motivates and enhances children's cognitive and social-emotional growth* (pp. 15–35). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195304381.001.0001>
- Zalkin, M. (2008). *Et hadar ha-teva lo yad'u ve-et tchelet ha-shamayim lo ra'u? Yaldut ba-hevrah ha-yehudit ha-mesortit be-mizrach Eirova* [Did they know not the

glory of nature nor see skies azure"? Childhood in East-European traditional Jewish society]. *Zmanim: A Historical Quarterly*, 102, 58-67.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/23444035>

APPENDICES

Appendix I

UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA | Vicerrectorado de Investigación y Transferencia



TEACHING STRATEGIES INTERVIEW ON READING (TSIR)

We are carrying out an investigation to know what are the methods / tools you are using in classroom reading.

Your information can help us identify the significant tools in the reading acquisition process so we ask for your invaluable collaboration.

INSTRUCTIONS

- 1. Read Annex 1, which is the informed consent, and if you agree, sign it*
- 2. Read the questions carefully before answering them.*
- 3. Answer all questions according to your experience*

1. THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

- 1. Gender: Woman / Man*
- 2. Age: _____*
- 3. Years of experience: _____*
- 4. Academic training: _____*
- 5. Marital Status: _____*
- 6. Residence: _____*
- 7. Role in school: _____*
- 8. Country of birth: _____*
- 9. Native language: _____*

THE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

- a. *STUDIES ABOUT TEACHING*
1. *Tell us about your background in teaching, what is your education level?*
 2. *Where did you receive the teaching certificate?*
- b. *CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS*
3. *How many students do you have? How old are they? What is the level/course/grade of the student?*
 4. *Do you have to teach diverse or disabled students?*
 5. *How does the number of students in class look to you? To what extent does this affect read instruction?*
- c. *MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND LAWS ABOUT THE TEACHING OF READING*
6. *What are the educative laws involved in the teaching of reading?*
- d. *TEACHING METHODOLOGY*
7. *How do you choose the teaching methods?*
 8. *Which teaching methods do you think are appropriate?*
 9. *Which teaching methods do you think are less appropriate?*
- e. *TEACHING STRATEGIES WHEN LESSON PLANNING*
10. *Describe a lesson for teaching of reading in your class.*
 11. *Describe your emphases to promote reading.*
 12. *From the selection of strategies you have learned, you know, you use, please explain where you have learned them?*
 13. *Which teaching tools have you studied during the course of your studies? Did you study in the teacher training course? Are they prescribed by the Ministry of Education?*
 14. *What kind difficulties do you encounter in students' learning how to read?*
 15. *Which didactic measures helped students in the reading acquisition*
- f. *TEACHING/RESOURCES ON READING*
16. *Which book on teaching strategies do you use during teaching how to read?*
 17. *Do you use different kind of resources?*
 18. *Do you use material made by yourself?*
 19. *Do you use technologies when teaching?*
 20. *How many teachers participate with a group of students?*
 21. *How many hours per week?*

22. *How is the place where do you teach?*

23. *What kind of grouping do you use?*

g. PARENTS INTEGRATION

24. *Would you recommend integrating parents participation into the student reading process?*

25. *If so, how would you recommend doing so?*

h. CONTINUOUS TEACHER TRAINING

26. *Have you recently participated in a course on reading instruction? If so, what new things have you learned?*

i. IMPROVING THE TEACHING STRATEGIES

27. *What recommendation would you give to a new teacher who teaches reading comprehension?*

j. PARTICIPATION OF THE WHOLE SCHOOL

28. *How does the whole school participate along the teaching process on reading?*

Appendix II

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

(0034) 868887084 and emails:

Mr/Mrs/Miss, of years of age, states that he/she has been informed about the benefits that my participation could imply to cover the objectives of the Doctoral Thesis titled " The development of a method to instill reading of the Hebrew language as a mother tongue based on integration of the five senses" performed by Mrs. Eti Deri, led by Dr. M^a Encarnación Carrillo García and Dr. Antonia Cascales Martínez of the Faculty of Education of the University of Murcia (Spain), being the contact telephone number: (0034) 868887084, I have also been informed that my personal data will be processed by virtue of their consent for scientific research purposes by the University of Murcia. The period of conservation of the data will be the minimum necessary to ensure the completion of the study or project. However, my identification data, in order to guarantee optimum privacy conditions, and when the study procedure permits, could be submitted to anonymization or pseudo-anonymization. In any case, the identifying information that could be collected will be eliminated when it is not necessary.

I have been informed, always safeguarding my right to privacy and anonymity, I agree and freely and voluntarily accept the video / audio recording of the interviews. Also, I have been sufficiently informed of the use of them.

I have been informed that for any query regarding the processing of your personal data in this study or to request access, rectification, deletion, limitation or opposition to the treatment, I can contact the address protecciondedatos@um.es. I have also been informed of my right to file a claim with the Spanish Agency for Data Protection.

I have also been informed that I can leave my participation in the study at any time without giving explanations and without causing any harm to me.






I have been given an information sheet to the participant and a copy of this informed, dated and signed consent.

Taking this into consideration, I grant my consent that this interview (extraction, data collection) take place and be used to meet the objectives specified in the Doctoral Thesis.

Place (City, town), Month Day, Year.

Sgd. Mr/Mrs/Miss

Appendix III

<p>https://www.um.es/cei/... https://www.um.es/cei/... https://www.um.es/cei/...</p>	UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA	Vicerrectorado de Investigación y Transferencia	CEI Comisión de Ética de Investigación	 CAMPUS MARE NOSTRUM			
	INFORME DE LA COMISIÓN DE ÉTICA DE INVESTIGACIÓN DE LA UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA						
<p>Jaime Peris Riera, Catedrático de Universidad y Secretario de la Comisión de Ética de Investigación de la Universidad de Murcia,</p>							
<p>CERTIFICA:</p>							
<p>Que D.ª Eti Deri presentó la memoria de trabajo de la Tesis Doctoral titulada <i>"El desarrollo de un método para inculcar la lectura del idioma hebreo como lengua materna basado en la integración de los sentidos"</i>, dirigida por D.ª M.ª Encarnación Carrillo García y D.ª Antonia Cascales Martínez a la Comisión de Ética de Investigación de la Universidad de Murcia.</p>							
<p>Que dicha Comisión analizó toda la documentación presentada, y de conformidad con lo acordado el día dieciocho de diciembre de dos mil diecinueve¹, por unanimidad, se emite INFORME FAVORABLE, desde el punto de vista ético de la investigación.</p>							
<p>Y para que conste y tenga los efectos que correspondan firmo esta certificación con el visto bueno del Presidente de la Comisión.</p>							
<p>Vº Bº EL PRESIDENTE DE LA COMISIÓN DE ÉTICA DE INVESTIGACIÓN DE LA UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA</p>							
<p>Fdo.: Francisco Esquembre Martínez</p>							
<p>ID: 2658/2019</p>							
<p>¹A los efectos de lo establecido en el art. 19.5 de la Ley 40/2015 de 1 de octubre de Régimen Jurídico del Sector Público (B.O.E. 02-10), se advierte que el acta de la sesión citada está pendiente de aprobación</p>							
	<table border="1"><tr><td></td><td>Código seguro de verificación: RUXFMvRI-7uQPMFLX-1/HsS/+8-+gbPUnyQ</td><td>COPIA ELECTRÓNICA - Página 1 de 1</td></tr></table> <p><small>Esta es una copia auténtica imprimible de un documento administrativo electrónico archivado por la Universidad de Murcia, según el artículo 27.3 c) de la Ley 39/2010, de 1 de octubre. Su autenticidad puede ser contrastada a través de la siguiente dirección: https://sede.um.es/validador/</small></p>					Código seguro de verificación: RUXFMvRI-7uQPMFLX-1/HsS/+8-+gbPUnyQ	COPIA ELECTRÓNICA - Página 1 de 1
	Código seguro de verificación: RUXFMvRI-7uQPMFLX-1/HsS/+8-+gbPUnyQ	COPIA ELECTRÓNICA - Página 1 de 1					

Appendix IV

Abstract in Spanish for thesis written in another language.

Introducción

El idioma es un elemento fundamental en la formación de la identidad cultural y nacional de los estudiantes israelíes, como lo demuestran los esfuerzos por enseñar hebreo en las escuelas. Desde los inicios del Estado de Israel fue crucial inculcar a los estudiantes judíos el estudio del hebreo. La Torá para pasar la historia de generación en generación. La "sala" tradicional fue la primera institución educativa establecida. Por lo general, se construía cerca de la casa de oración y estaba en conexión directa con la lectura y el aprendizaje de la Torá. A principios del siglo XX, la sala sionista fue reparada y se convirtió en la piedra angular de la educación hebrea en Israel. Desde entonces, las escuelas modernas israelíes mantienen una combinación de estudios y trabajo de Torá. El movimiento sionista en Europa hizo muchos esfuerzos para reunir a todos los judíos en Israel y esta es la razón por la cual había diferentes idiomas en Israel, tales como: español, árabe, francés, rumano, polaco y más.

Desde el establecimiento del estado (1948) hasta hoy, ha habido una gran inmigración de judíos de Europa y África al Estado de Israel. La ola de inmigración trae consigo una variedad de idiomas. Esta diversidad lingüística es uno de los problemas para los estudiantes en Israel (judíos, árabes, rusos, etíopes, etc.) dado que se les exige aprender el idioma hebreo y ser evaluados en él cuando en hogares en Israel las familias de muchos estudiantes no hablan hebreo, por lo tanto, el único lugar donde los estudiantes se introducen al idioma hebreo es en casa el libro. Muchos alumnos llegan a la escuela con un lenguaje verbal pobre, un vocabulario escaso y una pronunciación estándar y gramatical de palabras y frases, de ahí la dificultad inicial porque la infraestructura para adquirir la lectura y la escritura es el lenguaje hablado y la comunicación oral.

El idioma hebreo es oficial en el Estado de Israel y el papel del maestro como mediador es enseñar al niño a leer de forma independiente mientras se adhiere a las reglas del hebreo donde al final del proceso el niño podrá dominar el vocabulario, la estructura sintáctica de la lengua y saber desenvolverse en el mundo de los adultos. Esta capacidad nos parece casi trivial, pero surge del esfuerzo personal, social y comunicativo y, en ocasiones, de las dificultades objetivas que trae consigo cada alumno.

La mayoría de los estudiantes en Israel logran leer, pero el 20% de todos ellos no dominan las habilidades del idioma y se sienten frustrados y comienzan a acumular una brecha significativa entre ellos y el resto de los estudiantes de la clase. El desfase académico creado afectará a todas las materias de estudio y posteriormente afectará también a la autoconfianza del niño hacia sí mismo y hacia el entorno.

El objeto de este estudio es investigar los métodos de trabajo de los profesores en el aula para dar una respuesta diferencial a las necesidades de los alumnos. Perfeccionar el trabajo con todos los alumnos de la clase requiere crear un enfoque ecléctico que combine métodos diversos, experienciales y multisensoriales.

El idioma hebreo es un idioma alfabético que consta de 22 letras, escritas gráficamente en forma de letras mayúsculas/impresas y en una forma casual redondeada utilizada en la escritura rápida y cotidiana. Además, hay cinco voces; Cada uno tiene al menos dos formas. Esperamos que un estudiante aprenda todo esto en un año académico. Es un largo proceso y por tanto, para mantener la motivación de los alumnos por aprender, practicar y trabajar, debemos combinar el juego, la actividad creativa, la diversión y el disfrute en el aprendizaje. Por lo tanto, otro objetivo de este estudio es examinar todos los métodos de enseñanza que existen en Israel y crear un fondo de conocimiento accesible y práctico. Otra de las metas de esta tesis es explorar las habilidades

relacionadas con la forma en que el cerebro aprende a leer y revisar las metodologías esenciales de la enseñanza de la lectura y la escritura a medida que surgen de las entrevistas con los maestros.

Método

Los maestros que participaron en el estudio tenían más de cinco años de experiencia en la enseñanza de educación especial en los grados 1-2 de Educación Primaria. La mayoría dijeron que les gustaba enseñar a este grupo de edad, que se sentían muy involucrados y que el proceso de adquisición de la lectura era desafiante y emocionante. Además, los docentes manifestaron que diversifican las lecciones de manera creativa y estimulante y además crean conexiones emocionales con sus alumnos y logran la satisfacción del proceso.

Este estudio se llevó a cabo en varias etapas. Primero, antes de comenzar la investigación, revisamos la literatura relevante y realizamos una revisión exhaustiva de la literatura sobre los enfoques para la adquisición de lectura y las estrategias de enseñanza en el sistema educativo israelí. Entre los modelos revisados se encuentran el modelo de arriba hacia abajo, el modelo de abajo hacia arriba y el modelo de abajo hacia arriba. el modelo interactivo. Sobre la base de estos modelos, se construyeron varios métodos conocidos en Israel, tales como: "sin secretos", "la llave mágica", el poder de leer, "caricias" y más. Estos métodos también se basan en las teorías de adquisición de la lectura, el método alfabético, el método fonético, analítico y sintético.

El instrumento de investigación elegido fue una entrevista semiestructurada, los docentes fueron invitados a participar en las entrevistas a través de distintos medios. Se aseguró a los docentes participantes que recibirían los resultados del estudio al final de su redacción y presentación. Cada entrevista duró entre una hora y media y dos horas. Primero, los entrevistados firmaron un formulario de declaración en el que aceptan

participar en la entrevista. En segundo lugar, a los participantes se les hicieron preguntas demográficas como: género, edad, años de experiencia docente y más. Los participantes de la investigación leyeron las preguntas antes del comienzo de la entrevista y se les pidió que las respondieran todas. Cada entrevista comenzó con una pregunta general y continuó con preguntas dirigidas al tema de investigación.

Entrevistamos a 30 maestros de primer y segundo grado con al menos cinco años de experiencia profesional en la enseñanza de lectura en educación regular y especial. Además, se incluyó instructores de idiomas que participaron en el desarrollo de programas de estudio para la adquisición de la lectura. Se realizó un análisis crítico en profundidad de la literatura relacionada con el campo de investigación.

Resultados

Los resultados del estudio plantearon los desafíos de los docentes de primer y segundo año en la enseñanza de la lectura y la escritura. Uno de los retos más importantes en las clases numerosas es la heterogeneidad y la necesidad de un aprendizaje diferenciado para llegar a todos los alumnos.

Los resultados del estudio enfatizaron, entre otras cosas, el uso de un enfoque didáctico dirigido a todos los estudiantes de la clase y al grupo de estudiantes que no pueden aprender a leer a través de un modelo uniforme. Una combinación de varios métodos del hogar heterogéneo permitirá conducir al éxito en la lectura de todos los estudiantes de la clase.

Sin embargo, los maestros enumeraron varias estrategias creativas para enseñar a leer y escribir. Finalmente, con base en los testimonios de los docentes y las conclusiones extraídas, desarrollamos un programa de aprendizaje ecléctico basado en los cinco sentidos.

De los profesores entrevistados, solo unos pocos estaban familiarizados con el método multisensorial. Muchos docentes relataron que realizaban diversas actividades en el aula, como canciones, juegos, presentaciones y movimiento, "divertidas", según ellos, pero no reconocieron que estas actividades estimulan los sentidos. Además, uno de los hallazgos más destacados de la neurociencia se basa en la capacidad de neuroplasticidad a través de la práctica de acciones repetidas y consistentes para mejorar las habilidades; Por lo tanto, cuando hay una barrera o dificultad en cierto sentido, otro sentido más fuerte encontrará la manera de reemplazarlo.

Conclusiones

El aprendizaje a través de la estimulación y el entrenamiento multisensorial puede fortalecer los sentidos debilitados y activar los sentidos fuertes como compensación. Tal estimulación puede ocurrir a través del juego, el disfrute, la felicidad y el estímulo. Además, cuando se produce la excitación, el sistema límbico del cerebro liberará una sustancia química llamada dopamina que se almacenará en el sistema de memoria durante mucho tiempo.

La elección de los métodos de enseñanza, los procesos más relevantes en la promoción de la adquisición de la lectura y la escritura, el clima educativo y los entornos de aprendizaje y los factores externos que afectan la enseñanza en el aula, así como el número de estudiantes en el aula, o la falta de recursos y recursos educativos constituyen los temas centrales derivados de la investigación.

La enseñanza multisensorial se basará en canales más fuertes mientras se desarrollan sentidos debilitados. Cada lección debe activar los sentidos de la vista, el oído y la kinestésica al escuchar una canción o un cuento, mirar un video, una presentación, moverse y usar materiales, como plastilina, arena y arcilla, hacer sopa, galletas y más. Todos los materiales creativos mencionados

anteriormente son materiales diversos que los estudiantes de todas las edades y en todos los niveles de aprendizaje utilizan de diversas maneras. El uso de materiales posibilita un aprendizaje y una actitud diferente según las necesidades del niño.

El material debe estar accesible a los estudiantes durante todo el horario escolar. El contacto con el material es relajante, la pegajosidad evoca alegría y felicidad en los niños y la creación tiene un valor sentimental para ellos, por lo que el docente debe tratar la creación con respeto.

Enseñar las habilidades y técnicas a través del aprendizaje integrado experiencial y divertido conduce a una atmósfera de aprendizaje positiva, el aprendizaje experiencial mientras se juega no enfatizará las dificultades del estudiante; Esto los animará a participar y ser parte de todo el grupo; se sentirán en un ambiente seguro y sin amenazas. Un entorno alentador y de apoyo reducirá las frustraciones, la ira innecesaria, la renuencia a venir a la escuela y el comportamiento disruptivo durante la clase. Un ambiente tranquilo y alentador conducirá al desarrollo socioemocional y resultados positivos en el aprendizaje del idioma y la lectoescritura.

Una enseñanza adaptada, ecléctica y multisensorial hace posible llegar a todos los estudiantes; la clave del éxito es evaluar al profesorado y preparar la lección con anticipación, trabajando dentro de la clase grande en grupos pequeños de manera diferenciada. Teniendo esto en cuenta, el éxito depende de la capacidad del docente para proporcionar un aprendizaje diferenciado, adaptado y multisensorial, al tiempo que alienta a los estudiantes y les brinda un aprendizaje experiencial y no amenazante.

Además, los profesores deben explicar a los alumnos el significado de la lectura y su importancia. Leer y escribir tienen un gran significado práctico para sus vidas en el presente y en el futuro, por lo tanto, los docentes deben

enfatar de vez en cuando que son actividades divertidas y útiles que nos ayudan en diferentes situaciones, como leer una receta, leer un manual para operar un nuevo dispositivo, escribir un mensaje a un amigo, ver una película con subtítulos y mucho más.

Partiendo de la premisa de que la lengua es un medio importante para constituir y consolidar el conocimiento instrumental y cultural de la ciudadanía, esta tesis doctoral ha pretendido llevar a cabo un estudio de las percepciones de los profesores en activo sobre la adquisición y enseñanza de la lectoescritura hebrea. El enfoque metodológico basado en los cinco sentidos ha sido el hilo conductor de la investigación. A través de entrevistas (instrumento de evaluación) con los profesores, se ha intentado averiguar: cómo eligen los profesores los métodos de enseñanza y cómo los aplican; qué recursos utilizan en relación con la adquisición de la lectura y la escritura en hebreo; y, cuál es la gestión del aula y cuáles son las relaciones con el entorno educativo (principalmente las familias). Estos resultados reivindican la necesidad de seguir formando al profesorado en la didáctica de las lenguas.