In This Issue:

Content-Based Teaching Activity: Using “Clickbait” to Develop Media Literacy Skills
By Mike de Jong 3-4

Teaching Kids in Kanchanaburi: Teacher and Learner as One
By Ian Lactaoen 5-6

Second Language Acquisition: Increasing Incidental Vocabulary Opportunities for Learning in Explicit Teaching Methods
By Michael Deatherage 7-10

Problems Chinese Speakers Have Translating into English
By Albert Lin 11-12

Some Unheralded Benefits of Using Dictation
By Joshua Cohen 13-15

ESL Learners’ Pragmatic Issues: Two Value Systems in Hawaiian Culture, Collectivism vs. Individualism
By Sunok Kim 16-18

Baby Steps Toward a K-12 Critical Multilingual Participatory Curriculum: Practices and Teacher Networks
By Jana Moore, Graham Crookes, 19-21

How Radical Behaviorism Can Foster New EFL Knowledge Transfer
By G. Andrew Reynolds 22-25
Submission to The Word

Topics
I welcome any topic which would be of interest to HITESOL members or ESL professionals in Hawai'i. We are interested in, for example: recommended Internet sites (or a tech type column), book reviews, a grad student's perspective, field trips/learning outside the classroom, reports from members working overseas, content-based teaching ideas, using video and music in the classroom, online teaching, CALL, a "gripes" column, DOE news/concerns, K-12 news, neighbor island news, applying theory to practice, interview with someone in the field, blended learning, and other topics. (You do not have to be a member of HITESOL to submit an article).

Format & Style
Articles should be no more than 4 pages, double-spaced, Times New Roman font, 12 point, attached as an MS Word document. Accompanying photos or clip art are optional but welcome. Please also include a short biographical statement about the author (email address optional). In general, articles are written in a fairly informal, non-scholarly style. Please refer to previous issues of The Word to get a sense of the types of articles which appear in the newsletter, or contact the editor with questions.

Submission Deadlines
You can send an article to me at any time and it will appear in the next issue of The Word. Please note that the deadline for submissions will be posted on the web site regarding the upcoming issue.

Please submit the articles via E-mail to Lisa Kawai at <lkawai@hpu.edu>. I look forward to receiving your submissions.

Lisa Kawai, Editor of The Word

Hawai'i Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, the local affiliate of TESOL, is a nonprofit organization dedicated to building a community of professionals teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) in the state of Hawai'i.

Keep up to date with HITESOL online at hawaiitesol.wildapricot.org
Content-Based Teaching Activity: 
Using “Clickbait” to Develop Media Literacy Skills

By Mike de Jong

Introduction
If “All the world’s a stage,” as Shakespeare wrote, then that sentiment has never been more pertinent than today. In our modern media world, electronic communication has enabled citizens around the globe to connect and engage like no other time in history. Whether it is through television, newspapers, radio or online media such as LINE, YouTube, Twitter, or Facebook, it is difficult to find anyone who is not tuned into the media in some way.

Younger people—so called Millennials and Post-Millennials—are particularly well-connected, especially those in Japan. Research shows that 92% of Japanese aged 20-29 own or have access to smartphones, while the number is about 80% for Japanese aged 13-19. (Information Media Trends in Japan, 2018).

However, is all of this interconnectedness healthy for the promotion of intellectual discourse, and for addressing the social ills that affect our world? Or are we, as Neil Postman (1985) said, “amusing ourselves to death”?

Critics might argue that the more media sources we have, the less likely we are to be well-informed citizens. With the proliferation of independent blogs, websites and so-called “fake news,” it is becoming increasingly difficult to sort out fact from fiction. Media errors and outright misinformation abound, affecting the outcome of elections and influencing our political choices. In an era where so much information is so readily available, misinformation has even been blamed for societal problems such as bullying and suicide (Sato, Sato, & Horita, 2018).

With all of this media noise coming at us from various directions, it is vital for citizens to develop stronger media analysis skills. Learning to distinguish news from noise is an important skill, especially for younger people who will be the next generation of voters and media consumers. That is why scholars believe that students should undergo media literacy education as early as elementary school or junior high school (Sato et al, 2018).

Media Literacy
Media literacy, or the “ability to access, analyze, evaluate and create media in a variety of forms,” (“Media Literacy,” n.d., ¶ 1), is important for helping citizens learn how to sort out news from noise. For students, media literacy activities develop analytical and critical thinking skills, creating more informed, reflective and engaged participants in a democratic society (“Core Principles,” 2009).

However, media literacy is a wide-ranging field, covering various theoretical and practical areas, and encompassing the mass media, journalism, advertising and public relations. Trying to determine what exercises and activities are best to help learners develop media literacy skills within a limited time frame can be a daunting task, especially for teachers with little experience in the subject.

This article will suggest one activity that has proven effective with students in first and second year university classes. The exercise engages students in media of their own interest, yet helps them develop stronger evaluation and critical thinking skills.

Activity Overview
The following activity promotes several classroom objectives: it provides students with new vocabulary and terminology for analyzing media texts. The activity also develops critical thinking skills, as students learn to recognize information from the internet which is lacking in credibility and believability. Students gain new perspective on the media as they work together to deconstruct media texts.

Activity
The activity begins with the instructor delivering a short lecture on media sources and credibility, with a particular emphasis on so-called “clickbait” articles from the internet. Clickbait is defined as “the use of alluring headlines to tempt readers… into clicking links” (Rony, Hassan, & Yousuf, 2017). Students are then given a checklist of criteria with which to judge the credibility of a news source. The checklist is as follows:

1. Who wrote the article? Is an author’s name given?
2. What sources, data or facts are given in the article?
3. Is the information verifiable and given in the article?
4. What is the URL of the site? Is it “Wordpress” or “.com.co”?
5. What information is contained in “About Us” on the website?
6. Is the article or headline sensational and intended to shock the reader?
7. Does the author use biased labels or language?

(Continued on page 4)
Once given the checklist, students work in groups to analyze the articles they have brought to class. They carefully examine the elements of each web source, using their own mobile phones or classroom computers to check for sources, data, verifiability, author’s names, and website background. They cross-reference articles and sources with each another, attempting to determine the legitimacy of each news article. Finally, student groups rank their articles in the order of trustworthiness, from least to most believable. After this list is compiled, the groups then develop short presentations to demonstrate their findings to the class. The activity encourages students to think critically and develop their own opinions and helps them learn to recognize the importance of credible sources of news and information.

Conclusion
After completing this activity, students will have gained an important understanding of how the news media works. They will also have learned to be better informed and more discerning media users and to think more critically about the information that they see and hear. This activity leaves them in a good position to be better informed citizens as they go forward in their academic and post-university careers.

References


About the Author: Mike de Jong is a lecturer at Tokyo’s Aoyama Gakuin University. He is also a journalist, with 30 years of experience in radio, television and print. Mike de Jong holds a Master’s in Communication and Culture from York University, Toronto, Canada.
In the summer of 2018, I got the chance to study abroad in Thailand. What I did not expect was how, once I came back to Hawai‘i, things would never be the same.

I was one in a group of thirteen Hawai‘i Pacific University (HPU) students who were traveling to the Land of a Thousand Smiles as part of a three-week International Relations program. In addition to exploring the country’s history, politics, custom, and culture, we were also going to do a great deal of service learning – that is, teaching English to schoolchildren in Banwangtakian Elementary School, in the historic town of Kanchanaburi.

As a TESOL student, I was simultaneously thrilled and apprehensive. On the one hand, I was thrilled because I would apply some of the skills and principles I was taught to a real-world academic setting. I also happen to love working with children, having tutored my two nieces – Isabella and Janelle – when I was last in the Philippines.

On the other hand, I was apprehensive because this would be my first time teaching and communicating with non-native English students. You may not know this, but I am a terribly complete misfit. I am often awkward in social situations, outspoken at times, easily annoyed, and can be rebellious.

These impediments are not very ideal in the TESOL community, which is composed of (as I have seen so far and mostly inaccurately) extroverts. Yet, here I was, riding the bus to Banwangtakian.

It was seven-thirty in the morning when we arrived. The school was small but well-kept, I was trying my best to keep myself together and open-minded when we stepped off the bus. What I never expected, as we went through the front gates, was to be treated with such celebratory fervor by the students, teachers, and staff. The students stood out most prominently – children, ages four to twelve, eyes wide open with enthusiasm, their wide toothy smiles as bright and crisp as their newly-ironed and spotless uniforms. The headmaster asked us to introduce ourselves. I was the only one who spoke in (basic) Thai (hands clasped together, bowing, and saying “Sawat di khrap!” (“Hello!”)), which was greeted with awe and cheer. This also reaffirmed my belief that if you want to be an effective English teacher anywhere in the world, it helps to learn a bit of your students’ native language (L1 in ESL lingo).

The schoolchildren introduced themselves in their best English. I was amazed at how well they spoke and at how well they wrote. They already knew “hello,” “goodbye,” and “pleased to meet you,” among other basic words and phrases. The headmaster and teachers were equally friendly. From the whole morning to the early afternoon was devoted to playing activities using both Thai and English. One was a take on “Head, Shoulders, Knees, and Toes” (though in Thai), and for another, we had to come up with a dance (with English words). When the day was through, we were exhausted but happy. I was especially happy knowing that our time with the Banwangtakian kids would not end there.

The remaining fortnight spent with the Banwangtakian kids was full of more engaging activities and learning experiences. For example, on one occasion we got to dress up in traditional clothing and make floating lanterns out of banana leaves. My friends and I would often point out certain objects of interest (be it a shirt, a flower, or a banana leaf) and say, “In English, this is called a ‘shirt,’” “This is called a ‘flower,’” “This is a ‘banana leaf,’” and so on. The kids would repeat so loudly and cheerfully that the whole hall would start ringing with English and Thai words. The next day, we continued this magical mystery tour of code-switching during a field trip to a notable waterfall and cave. One student, named Pink, was especially inquisitive. She would point at certain landmarks and ask (in English), “what is that?”.

(Continued on page 6)
said (referring to one of the statues in our destination), “is a statue of the King, Bhumibol the Great. He is a great leader.” “He is a great leader,” she and her friends would say. “Long live the King!” I would exclaim with arms spread out wide. “Long live the King!” was their reply. As we rode the train back to the school, my friends and I would even teach them the English words for “train,” “railroad,” “conductor,” and “fast/slow,” all while enjoying the sights of the lush rice paddies and rolling hills and the sweet scents of sugarcane and palm trees as we rolled by.

A few days after our adventures, the students and student-teachers were back in the classroom. It was a Wednesday, just a day after celebrating a late Songkran (Water Festival) and getting soaked with such watery fun with our young disciples. I was going to be teaching a class full of First-Period (first grade) students with my friend “Skip,” who was more experienced in teaching kids and helped plan our teaching unit. The morning was filled with fun and exciting activities designed to stimulate our students’ English language comprehension. This included a variation of the Total Physical Response “Head, Shoulders, Knees, and Toes” song (done in English), having them draw the indicated body parts used in the song, and playing a team-on-team game on the board. There was one hiccup – a student was so disappointed with her team losing the game that she cried for ten minutes. We all helped to console her, which cheered her up completely. Damage control in the classroom has never been so brief yet enlightening, and I learned how to properly deal with a situation in which a student was crying.

On our last day with Banwangtakian, the students, teachers, and staff all wrote thank-you letters in the shape of hearts. In them, they wrote (in very good English) messages of gratitude and thanks for being by their side for the last few weeks. Tears flowed freely throughout the crowd; there were hugs, kisses were given, and pictures were taken. I thanked my students the best way I could (“Kopkun khrap!” (“Thank you very much!”)) one last time before getting on the bus.

Coming back to Hawai‘i, I was a changed young man. I had lost ten pounds and had brought back plenty of souvenirs and stories about my exploits. Most importantly, I had learned an important lesson: the teacher and the learner are one and the same, and teaching non-native English speakers is an equally rewarding learning experience.

Just so long as you are also willing to learn and love learning.

About the Author: Ian Agustin Lactaoen has lived in Hawaii his entire life. He is a TESOL student and aspiring poet/writer/teacher at Hawai‘i Pacific University. He is a former slam poet affiliated with Youth Speaks Hawai‘i. He is interested in helping students (native and non-native English speakers alike) find and deliver their inner voices.
Second Language Acquisition: Increasing Incidental Vocabulary Opportunities for Learning in Explicit Teaching Methods

By Michael Deatherage

Vocabulary knowledge, one of the most pivotal factors in primary and secondary language acquisition (Alqahtani, 2015) has defied researchers and theorists in determining the singular means for developing the best teaching models, strategies and methods for second language acquisition (SLA) (Meara, 1980). Vocabulary teaching and learning strategies have been regarded as the building blocks for language development and learning (Saunders, Goldenberg, & Marcelletti, 2013). One of the issues commonly addressed in modern research is what type of classroom input can be more effective for SLA if the student were in an immersion environment (Nation, 2001). Research often focuses on topics that determine if explicit instruction can supersede implicit instruction in its effectiveness (Hulstijn, 2001), and vice versa. In terms of effectiveness, explicit instruction has been shown to be a key component in having a significant impact on SLA outcomes more so than implicit instruction (Norris & Ortega, 2000) while implicit instruction has been found to increase vocabulary learning. However, both types of instruction for input, having beneficial impact in some aspect of SLA, if left unregulated or relied exclusively upon, can have a negative impact or weaken SLA learning. Qureshi’s (2015) research noted that, the “age of exposure did not seem to affect outcome for early and late learners” (Qureshi, 2015, p. 159); therefore, increasing incidental learning opportunities is not limited to the age of the learner. To help determine when to integrate incidental learning strategies, an educator’s examination of the different roles that incidental SLA can have on explicit instruction to develop the relationship of varied incidental teaching methods can strengthen teaching styles, strategies and methods.

Integrating Vocabulary Input and Grammar Correction

Drawing on the goal for the learner’s attention to focus on specific vocabulary input, the educator uses grammar teaching in such a way that the learner will benefit through input in a precise means to help understand the principles, foundations, and rules for using the learned language. The process that the educator uses to instruct the student should be a thoughtful consideration of the best process for comprehension so that the learner can internalize the second language for further production (National Research Council, 1998). The expected language development response of student synthesis for production would be that the presentation and practice of grammatical items continually show improvement through grammar correction and instruction of new second language vocabulary. The learner’s communication should show both accurate comprehension and meaning when being assessed for language acquisition progress.

Corrective feedback, referring to any feedback provided to a language learner, specifically addresses the notification of learner utterances and their language form errors. Explicit feedback, which can be given throughout the learner’s acquisition processes and stages, eludes researchers as to whether the practice develops or hinders SLA. Tedick and Gortari (1998) noted that grammar correction can have a multitude of impacts on SLA according to the different types of feedback given, the scenario in which the feedback is given, whether written or verbal, and the motivation of the student will deliver various types of results. The vast number of factors affecting grammar correction continue to provide mixed reviews and rarely provides defining proof as to whether the practice hinders or develops language development and acquisition.

Nation (1990) supported the belief that language learners will often regard vocabulary knowledge as being one of the most fundamental and primary means for language development and supports self-regulation in grammar correction without the educator’s explicit Instruction. Frequently noted (Nation, 1990, Nation 2001, Alqahtani, 2015) was that when not provided with adequate vocabulary instruction, language learners relate the absence to being the leading cause of poor grammar and language comprehension. While deliberate vocabulary learning has a profound effect on language acquisition, the necessity of incidental exposure has been shown to provide profound gains in SLA and a higher rate of retention after the critical period hypothesis (CPH) has been met (Nation, 2001, Tajeddin & Daraei, 2013).

Educator’s Expectations of Reading to Determine SLA

Improving the level of second language literacy may require
interventions at various levels, such as, optimizing text format and information sharing, Guided Language Acquisition Design and Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (GLAD/SIOP) strategies, and even teaching methods and strategies may need to be changed for differentiation (Kareva & Echevarria, 2013). Reading has been shown to be a difficult task that involves not only verbal communication, but also other means of communication. Emphasis of sound, empathy in voice, precise patterning or reading rate, and even motor skills to accentuate what is being read for audience comprehension (Rose, 2015) can be found while reading a written text to imitate social speaking.

For a second language learner, being expected to combine all the principles of reading development in the second language can be a daunting task, especially where the student may be expected to focus on input comprehension rather than output for communication of meaning at their current first language development stage. Unlike social speaking where the student is the sole creator of the meaning of what is being communicated, the student is striving to display phonological awareness (Li-Jen, Yuuko, Tae-Jin, & Xinuan, 2016) while understanding what is being communicated by the author. This may be more challenging than the level of understanding that the student is capable of for vocabulary awareness. Incidental vocabulary acquisition, through targeted language reading, has shown to increase encounters with vocabulary that allows the learner to deduce contextual meaning (Maghsoudi, Talebi & Mirkamali, 2014); however, there exists evidence that independent readings are not as effective as direct vocabulary instruction (Paribakht & Wesche, 1996, Subon, 2016).

Effects of Collaboration and Exercise on Incidental Vocabulary Learning.
Vocabulary knowledge through collaborative exercises has shown to enable SLA where academic vocabulary becomes intermixed with social communication; therefore, the input becomes processed or built upon in the student’s language development. This type of learning brings about a concept where inactive learning intermingles fluidly with active learning (Alemi & Tayebi, 2011). The crucial role vocabulary plays in communication is shown through the student’s capabilities of producing ideas and information in both social and academic environments. For example, when a student has an idea of what he wants to say in class, but it does not come from his own mind, he will have difficulty expressing it effectively. Therefore, through collaborative exercises (Bygate, 2016), the student will hear exemplary synthesis of the vocabulary being taught explicitly through implicit means. This should, or hopefully will, further encourage the student to produce those words combined with instruction from peers beyond what the educator taught. The ability to use vocabulary is also important because it allows students to express their ideas clearly and accurately. The more they know about the topic, the better they can communicate their ideas. If the educator does not teach those definitions and contextual meanings explicitly, then the student should be allowed the opportunity to contextualize meaning through further input (Perrin, 2011), either through written or through social verbalization or communication methods.

The importance of recognizing vocabulary and its uses in all avenues of SLA processes is unquestionable; however, fail-proof ways for teaching and learning vocabulary remains a mystery due to the vast number of factors involved in SLA. However, research has recognized that collaborative learning and engagement, supported by Involvement Load Hypothesis (ILH) (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001) which predicts that the degree of engagement affects SLA, is a known effective factor for SLA. Jahangiri and Abilipour (2014) evaluated ILH as containing three components for involvement: need, search, and evaluation (p. 704). These three
Second Language Acquisition . . . (continued)

(Continued from page 8)

components support that according to the need of the learner and how they utilize that word in future communication will enhance the retention rate of vocabulary. The findings of several studies, replicating ILH studies previously conducted, have effectively found tasks with involvement have led to higher amount of retention (Keating & Farley, 2008).

Conclusion

Modern studies have continued to increase the frequency of seeking to highlight the use of reading for vocabulary retention, comprehension and production through multiple reading mediums (Bee Choo, Ai Lin, & Pandian, 2012) as compared to the yester years of research where vocabulary was given considerably less importance (Alemi & Tayebi, 2011). When teaching grammar, the educator must refrain from relying on either implicit or explicit teaching methods but should integrate both types of instruction through both written and verbal input. Though this paper focused on written input and reading for corrective feedback, emphasis cannot be stressed enough on the importance of recognizing when feedback is positive and when it can be negative. Further research into the effects of corrective feedback would be highly beneficial in the andragogical (adult learning) education setting due to the vast number of studies that have relied on data input from pedagogical (children learning) settings. This type of research focus would be useful in advancing the lack of theories in adult SLA (Slabakova, 2013) and the use of corrective feedback through both implicit and explicit teaching methods. Empirical evidence has been contributed which show a significance amount of theoretical insights into SLA and how there seems to be a paradox in how learning a second language at a young age is completely different from that at an older age, yet there still exist types of strategies that benefit both age groups at different times, through different stages and processes. Future studies into the development of vocabulary teaching strategies that involve both explicit and implicit strategies would further determine the effectiveness of teaching models and SLA theory while also demonstrating differentiation according to age, or CPH stage strategies.

References


(Continued on page 10)
About the Author: Michael Deatherage is a full-time English Literature teacher at Kealakehe High School in Hawai‘i. He is currently working on his dissertation for a Ph.D in Education, specializing in English as a Second Language and Second Language Acquisition, at Northcentral University in the United States. His research interests focus on incidental vocabulary learning through project-based learning activities and brain based research in SLA.
Aloha, my name is Albert Lin, and I am currently attending Hawai‘i Pacific University as I am pursuing a Master’s Degree in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages). I am currently taking a translation course, and I would like to share and discuss my findings from my term paper in this article.

A lot of people in Taiwan have difficulty translating from Chinese or Taiwanese to English. There are many problems that can occur in translation, such as when there are false or nonexistent equivalents between the languages; different connotations of lexical items in the languages; more than one word for a given word in either language, or compounds that will require clarification; and misunderstanding or lack of clarity due to word-for-word translation. In addition, lack of cultural background and/or knowledge of the English language can cause problems in translation. Other problems involve traditional customs.

Therefore, my recommendation for teachers of Chinese speakers is to remind the students that they should think before translating and not translate word-for-word directly from Chinese to English. It is better to have them think in Chinese before saying it in English, then have English speakers examine and clarify the intended meaning expressed by the Chinese speakers to make sure the translation does come across in English. I have experienced these problems as a court interpreter and I will discuss them in this paper.

When there is no equivalent between the languages, interpreters are asked to paraphrase, simplify, and explain the language that is being used on the spot. Research is often required to explain something new or recently invented that does not exist in the target language (Cook, 2010, p. xix). Once, when I was interpreting at a cross examination, the judge asked me what “We Chat” was (Wei Shin in Chinese), and I had to look up the expression right then and there to explain this unfamiliar terminology. “We Chat” is an intercom from an app from Tencent Company Limited in China that allows users to send messages, images, and pay for expenses as with any cellular phone in the U.S. Since there is no exact equivalent, especially because this technology was invented exclusively in another country, I had to paraphrase and simplify the phrase’s intended meaning to something similar in the target language so that the judge could relate to it.

Some problems Chinese speakers experience when translating word-for-word directly from Chinese to English, which becomes ‘Chinglish,’ occurs when there is no or false equivalents and/or there are different connotations. For example, the false equivalence of the word “Until” (zhidao in Chinese), leads to this sentence: He took a rest until he had finished his work with the intended meaning: He did not take a rest until he had finished his work (Chang, 2001, p. 321.) Therefore, direct translation word-for-word from one language to another can be very confusing when it involves false friends or it does not translate the way it appears it might. A “false friend” is a word that sounds as if it is the same word, but it means something different. For example, the word ‘intoxicado’ does not mean ‘intoxicated’ but ‘poisoned’ in Spanish (Kelly & Zetzsche, 2012, p. 4).

Furthermore, idiomatic expressions in Chinese are often used during social interaction; however, they can be awkward or result in different connotations in English translations. For example, the phrase “Don’t be polite” in Chinese intends to mean “make yourself at home.” An example of an idiomatic expression in my life occurred when my mom invited my American friends to come over for dinner and instead of saying: “Help yourself with more,” my mom said: “Eat more” to show hospitality in English but with direct Chinese thoughts (Chang, 2001, p. 321).
Problems Chinese Speakers Have... (continued)

(Continued from page 11)

Even though my mother meant well, it sounds like a command to English speakers, and it could distort the intended hospitality shown. In addition, because some idiomatic expressions can be translated word-for-word from Chinese to English smoothly, like the expression: "long time no see," Chinese speakers assume inductively that all the idiomatic expressions can be translated directly, which is not true. For example, Chinese speakers always use the term: "people mountain, people sea" to mean that "a place is crowded and full of people," but they are not aware that the intended meaning can be misunderstood when they translate word for word from Chinese to English.

In addition, literal translation with distinctive cultural connotation can be difficult to carry over from one language to another as “the source language word may express a concept which is totally unknown in the target culture. The concept may be abstract or concrete as it may relate to a religious belief, a social custom, or even a type of food” (Baker, 2011, p. 18). In Taiwan almost anything can be translated into English; however, without understanding the tradition and customs of its culture, native speakers of English still cannot grasp the actual meaning of such things expressed by Chinese or Taiwanese speakers. For example, the Chinese expression ‘Feng Shui’ or ‘wind-water’ is a distinctive and unique cultural practice which can be very difficult to translate to a different language or culture. Ironically, ‘feng shui’ by no means denotes either wind or water as it is its literal translation ‘wind-water.’ It is actually one type of pseudoscience used to harmonize one’s surrounding by applying geomancy in people’s residences generally for auspicious purposes (“Feng Shui”). Therefore, Chinese words with distinctive and unique cultural connotation can be complicated and confusing when they are only translated literally to English.

Other than literal translation, Chinese syntax sometimes can also be problematic when translating into English. In particular, Chinese speakers may have a problem with conditional sentences that are hypothetical or counterfactual in English. Consider these two sentences: “if you burned your finger, it would hurt” and “if you had burned your finger, it would have hurt” (Odlin, 1989, p. 74). The first sentence is hypothetical or denotes a warning, and the second sentence is counterfactual and describes something which did not happen. However, Chinese speakers may not be able to distinguish the semantic difference between the two in English because in Chinese they are both said the same way. Hence, Chinese speakers may misinterpret the intended meaning, and it becomes difficult for English speakers to determine the intended meaning, whether it is hypothetical or counterfactual.

In sum, Chinese speakers have problems translating into English. These problems include false or no equivalent expressions, idiomatic expressions, words or customs with different cultural connotations, direct word-for-word translations, misleading words and syntax. These problems show that literal translation alone is often not sufficient to express concepts with their implicit and distinctive cultural meanings. Moreover, Chinese words which have no equivalent in English will require a similar alternative for translation; however, they may alter the intended meaning. Furthermore, direct word-for-word translation may not get the meaning across from one language to another as it may result in confusion and awkwardness in a social context as well as misinterpretation in the target language if the connotation or meaning differs from that of the source language. Moreover, Chinese syntax may mean one thing whereas, in English syntax, it can be used for more than one interpretation. Finally, these problems may become “contagious” if Chinese speakers continue to repeat the same pattern from exposure to other Chinese speakers’ English mistakes.

References


About the Author: Albert Lin lived in California and Taiwan before I came to Hawai‘i, and received his Bachelor’s Degree in both Economics and Chinese from the University of Hawai‘i at Manoa. Since graduating from UH, he has worked as a private tutor teaching English and Chinese to students in special education, which inspired him to become a court interpreter as well as study linguistic translation.
Some Unheralded Benefits of Using Dictation
By Joshua Cohen

Clever language teachers know the best activities for their students are the ones that offer the most learning potential for the least amount of preparation time. Dictation is one such activity that is easy to organize and set up and can be done with learners of any level. It is also virtually free to produce and can be used in a variety of different contexts.

So, why isn’t dictation used more frequently in modern language classrooms? The answer may have to do with the way the technique got its start. Dictation was first used as a teaching device in the Middle Ages (Kelly, 1969) long before textbooks became widely available. Education at that time was highly influenced by the Church, and students were often forced to learn Greek, Roman, and Latin by listening to their elders dictate entire texts to them verse by verse. Despite its effectiveness as a means of learning language, it is not hard to imagine pupils of that day wincing at the thought of transcribing something as long and arduous as the Bible.

In more recent times, attitudes toward dictation have fluctuated. It has been referred to as uncommunicative, inauthentic, teacher-centered, and not surprisingly, flat-out boring. For some, the mere mention of the word is enough to set off a wave of bad middle-school memories. However, supporters of the technique know that when done in fun and engaging ways, dictation can be a meaningful and incredibly powerful teaching tool.

There are several reasons for its efficacy. Perhaps most interesting is related to how the mind is thought to process language. We know that certain activities such as listening, reading, and writing place a heavy cognitive load on the brain (Tindle & Longstaff, 2015). The extra mental effort required of tasks like these may result in deeper, more impactful learning because so much of our working memory is in demand at that time. It is also possible that practicing activities such as these promotes noticing (Nation, 2009), aids in the formation of schemata, and contributes greatly to the conversion of input into intake (Chi, 2016). This is likely intensified for students working in a second language as to achieve success, dictation involves the simultaneous decoding and unpackaging and the recoding and repackaging of spoken text into written prose.

Moreover, the benefits of dictation go beyond psycholinguistics. Dictation also has tremendous value as a remedial intervention. It can be used to pinpoint and practice individual sounds, letters, and words or to target specific areas like spelling, syntax, and punctuation. Teachers wishing to review a troublesome grammar point need look no further. It’s easy to take in the first conditional or the ordering of adjectives while delivering a dictation. Additionally, on a larger scale, dictation can be used to address weaknesses in listening comprehension and to build up short-term memory capacity (Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002).

Teachers can also use dictation as a tool to manage their classrooms. Tasks utilizing dictation are often low stress and have a calming effect on students (Lewis & Reinders, 2008). The decreased anxiety associated with dictations can lead to a lowering of students’ affective filter (Krashen, 1982), which many suggest assists in the acquisition of foreign language.

There are other reasons teachers might consider doing dictation activities in their classrooms. The following list, adapted from Davis and Rinvoluci (1988), should be sufficient to start a dialog with anyone previously unaware or unconvinced of the technique’s power and potential.

(Continued on page 14)
Students are active during the exercise

 Dictation requires students to listen intently to a spoken message and quickly note down as accurately as possible what was heard. On the surface this may seem like a passive activity, but the students’ minds are working furiously as both chemicals and electricity combine to transmit information from sound to script. The effort and energy required of dictation make it a mentally challenging activity, but it can also be inspiring for students to see the page before them fill with words, sentences, and paragraphs. By becoming the subjects of the activity rather than simply participants in it, students interact with the task in more complex and meaningful ways.

Students are active after the exercise

 Once a dictation is over, who checks the students’ work? If it’s not being used as a form of assessment, students can be empowered to take control of their own learning by asking them to look over the answers and correct it themselves. This is known as grammar consciousness raising and is likely familiar to readers. Another option is for teachers to ask students to exchange papers with one another and have them read and grade each other’s work. This practice of self and peer review can lead students to reflect on their own writing production. Teachers can also use dictations for quiz questions, to assign classwork or homework, or as a pre-task activity to something else such as initiating a Webquest.

Leads to oral/communicative activities

 It’s easy to segue from the intense focus of dictation into the freer practice of speaking activities by asking students to comment on the material they were presented. Alternatively, including follow up or post-task material into the body of the dictation can lead naturally to communicative activities. For example, if the dictation consists of a series of questions, learners can then pair up or group up to ask and answer one another’s questions.

Fosters unconscious thinking

 Implicit or incidental language learning is like feeding two birds with one seed. On a basic level, teachers can embed a grammar point or insert new vocabulary words into a dictation for their students to discover on their own. On a slightly more cerebral level, teachers can use dictations to create opportunities for students to discover the deeper meanings of a text based on context. By promoting new conceptual associations, teachers help their students access unconscious learning pathways in the brain.

Copes well with mixed-ability groups

 Most teachers have faced this challenge before. Whether you have students lagging behind or slightly ahead of their peers, dictation is a great activity to do with learners of different levels. One solution is to pick out a text that is relatively easy for advanced learners and ask them do it unassisted. For learners struggling to keep up, the teacher can create a cloze activity out of the text. Deleting words at regular intervals (e.g. every 4th or 7th word) offers a kind of scaffold for slower-paced learners and creates a greater likelihood for success.
Some Unheralded Benefits . . . (continued)

(Continued from page 14)

Savvy teachers can then pair up higher and lower proficiency students to share and compare their answers and to check for accuracy and overall textual comprehension.

Helps deal with large groups
There is no maximum number of students who can participate in dictation activities. Whether you teach two or two hundred, the only hazard to doing dictation with large numbers of students is your capacity to be heard in the back of the room. Certainly a microphone and speakers could solve this issue easily, but in most cases would be unnecessary; the room will already be silent as students listen intently to your voice.

Safe for non-native teachers
Anyone who feels uncomfortable with their pronunciation need not worry if they take the time to rehearse reading aloud prior to the activity. Or, record yourself speaking. These days who among us doesn’t carry around some kind of portable sound recorder in our mobile phones? Teachers could also bring in audio CDs, cassettes, or speech samples from just about anywhere to play for their classes.

Can calm groups
Dictation is a low-stress activity, which can be used to help manage the classroom. Whether your class meets first thing in the morning, just after recess, or last period in the day, dictation activities are a great way to get your students’ attention and hold on to it. Students quickly realize that concentration and focus are essential for success during a dictation, which makes the activity perfect for high-energy students and classrooms.

Is technically useful
In cases where students’ native language does not use the Roman alphabet, teachers can design dictation activities to practice simple penmanship. Once they have mastered writing, students can be introduced to some of the nuances of the language. English, with its wonky and unintuitive set of spelling rules can be downright hard to explain at times. Dictation activities are perfect for helping students to memorize words and sounds. For example, think of doll and roll or home and some, font and front or word and sword.

Gives access to interesting texts
Dictation is not boring. Perhaps there are boring topics, boring texts, or boring deliveries. But for teachers wishing to enliven their classrooms with authentic language, why not choose a menu, playbill, song, or poem to dictate to students? Short stories work well too, especially when serialized. Doing so helps build and maintain enthusiasm for the task and encourage students to look forward to the next installment. Better yet, why not ask students to choose the text? And maybe even read it for the class? Having a say in the content of a lesson can be intrinsically motivating for students.

It’s hard to fail when you combine solid language theory with a contemporary approach. The goal of this article has been to recirculate a useful, but somehow undervalued aspect of language teaching and to provide readers with a basic understanding of how and why it works. Dictation has stood the test of time largely due to its strength and malleability as a teaching device, but also because of the great value it has for students.

References

About the Author: Joshua Cohen has taught English in Asia and South America. In addition to doing frequent dictations with his students, he enjoys teaching literature and reading classes.
ESL Learners’ Pragmatic Issues:
Two Value Systems in Hawaiian Culture, Collectivism vs. Individualism

By Sunok Kim

Many ESL students in Hawai‘i study language and cultural behaviors using standard English textbooks. However, they deal with very different behaviors when they interact with Hawaiian English and culture. Previous research focused on linguistic differences, but I argue that many differences are cultural resulting in pragmatic failure based on Collectivism and Individualism. Studies have demonstrated relationships between L2 culture and target language learning, some in a Hawaiian context. Vogt, Jordan and Tharp (1987) investigated why native Hawaiian children were not doing well in the traditional U.S. public school model that included many traditional individualistic tasks. In response to poor test scores, classroom learning environments were changed to reflect Hawaiian children’s more group-centered, collectivist culture. As this study shows, conflicts between collectivist and individualist orientations deeply pervade Hawaiian social environments and culture including educational contexts. Vogt et al.’s (1987) study, along with many others, showed that, when teachers adjust their teaching to the cultures of their learners, learning increases. I report on a research project where student cultures were divided into two categories: (1) Individualist cultures such the general U.S. culture which emphasizes personal achievement regardless of group goals, resulting in a strong sense of competition, and (2) collectivist cultures, such as Polynesian and Asian cultures which emphasize family and work group goals. Results confirm what other studies have shown in that Pacific Island and Asian students showed the most collective preferences and distinguished the least between family, friends and strangers. Thus, their cultural differences influenced their academic performance and further academic achievement.

Previous Research

The general dictionary definition of culture (Oxford Dictionary, 2019) is “the customs, arts, social institutions and achievements of a particular nation, people, or other social group.” Culture is now commonly defined as the attitudes and behavior characteristic of a particular social group or it is the set of people’s values and beliefs toward their world regarding nature and society. Given that definition, culture is considered to affect not only social norms but also to impose constraints on individual behavior. According to North (1990), culture is related to institutions in formal, political and legal ways.

Two major culture-model researchers are Hofstede and Schwartz. Hofstede’s (1983) research on core symbols identifies four dimensions of culture: individualism-collectivism; power distance; uncertainty avoidance; and masculinity-femininity. Schwartz (1994, 2006) is an Israeli sociologist who developed a model for cultural values: embeddedness; harmony; egalitarian commitment; intellectual autonomy; affective autonomy; mastery; and hierarchy. He studied K-12 school teachers and college students and mapped 76 national groups on seven cultural orientations.

Kim, Sherman, and Taylor (2008), Cobb (1976), and Cohen (1988) researched how culture influences behavior with respect to social support, one of the most effective methods to deal with stressful events. Asians and Asian Americans ask for support from close others more indirectly than European Americans because they are more concerned about the potentially negative relational results of asking for support (Kim, et al., 2008). Cobb (1976) and Cohen (1988) focused on specific support connections relating to receiving help, tangible assistance, informational support, or emotional support. Au and Mason (1981) found that culturally compatible instruction had positive effects on Native Hawaiian speakers’ level of engagement and participation in reading.

Research Question

ESL students in academic contexts in Hawai‘i learn language and cultural behaviors from standard English textbooks. However, they deal with very different behaviors when they interact with Hawaiian English and culture. Previous research focused on linguistic differences, but I argue that many differences are cultural resulting in pragmatic failure due to differences caused by Collectivist and Individualist cultures.

My research question is “Do cultural differences (Collectivism and Individualism) effect higher academic achievement among students (such as Hawaiians and non-Hawaiians) in Hawai‘i when they are educated at school?”

Hawai‘i is Racially Diverse

Polynesians arrived from the Marquesas Islands 1,500 years ago. The European (Captain James Cook) arrived at the Hawaiian Islands in 1778. After his arrival, Europeans started rushing to the Hawai‘i Islands. The first missionaries arrived in the Hawaiian Kingdom in 1820, and in 1835, the first sugar plantation opened. Sugar became a dominant

(Continued on page 17)
economic force. The mass plantation farming required considerable labor work which caused immigration from Japan, China, and the Philippines to work in the fields. Due to the immigration at that time, the Asian population rapidly increased. In 1896, the Japanese population was about 25 percent of Hawai’i. However, in 1920, the native Hawaiian population dramatically dropped from 300,000 in the 1850s to 24,000 in 1920 because of disease including small pox, measles, influenza and whooping cough transported by the Europeans.

According to the 2010 Census, 23.6% of Hawai’i residents are multi-ethnic races, far more than any other state in the U.S. 38.6% of Hawai’i’s population is Asian, 24.7% is White, 10% is Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islanders, 8.9% is Hispanic, 1.6% is African American, 0.3% is American Indian and Alaska Native.

**Individualism Versus Collectivism**

Two concepts of cultural diversity categorize individualism and collectivism. According to Schneider, Gruman, and Coutts (2005), individualistic people focus on themselves. They consider their opinion more important than others. However, people from a collectivistic orientation focus on the family and the group in which they involved. Broadly defined, individualism emphasizes personal freedom, rights, and goals. Individualist cultures therefore are encouraged to do things themselves. The examples of countries with general individualistic countries include the United States, Australia, the United Kingdom, Canada, and some European countries. Collectivism, in contrast, emphasizes individuals belonging to a larger group. Individuals are encouraged to be active players in society. It encourages conformity, brotherhood, and selflessness by supporting each other. The best-known international measure of individualism and collectivism is Hofstede (2001) who used surveys of IBM employees in about 30 countries. The examples of countries with generally collectivism countries: China, Japan, Korea, Vietnam, Philippines, and Polynesia (Hawai’i). In Hawai’i, there is the Aloha Spirit which means each person must think and emote good feelings toward others. The Ohana (family) is the fundamental unit in Hawaiian culture. The relationship of the individual to the family and the community is emphasized, so group goals are considered a priority.

Cross cultural research studies how these cultural differences impact various aspects of behavior. Studies suggest that culture influences how students behave, as well as their self-concept. Students who come from individualistic cultures introduce themselves by describing themselves in terms of personality traits and characteristics. While those from collectivist cultures would more likely describe themselves in terms of their social relationships and roles.

Demmert and Towner (2003) researched how culturally relevant strategies influence academic achievement. Public schools in the United States typically educate students through a Western lens. Therefore culture-based education is necessary, and minority students need to be aware of educational inequalities when they learn in Western-based educational cultures. In Hawai’i, educational research normally has focused on four primary ethnic groups: Native Hawaiian, East Asian (Chinese, Japanese, Korean), Filipino, and Caucasian. Relevant learning environments are important

(Continued on page 18)
ESL Learners’ Pragmatic Issues . . . (continued)

(Continued from page 17)

for Native Hawaiian students and other ethnic groups to mention stereotypes and ethnic bias (Kana‘iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2005).

Summary of Findings

Standardized test score results of Native Hawaiian and Filipino students are lower than East Asian and Caucasian students. Based on these results, teachers argue that the worldview of Hawaiians is not the same as the worldview of English speakers, so teachers should teach both language and culture. Some studies show benefits derived from Hawaiian-focused charter and Hawaiian language immersion schools for Hawaiian and non-Hawaiian ethnicities (Wong, 1999).

In other words, cultural differences (Collectivism and Individualism) can affect academic achievement among Hawaiians and non-Hawaiians students. Students from collectivism cultures feel more comfortable with less stress in school education systems that are oriented toward collectivist cultural values.

Kana‘iaupuni and Ishibashi’s (2005) claims that Hawaiian-focused schools are important for lessening stereotypes and ethnic bias while increasing academic achievement. It is a meaningful finding that culture-based education has positive outcomes for Native Hawaiian students, as well as benefitting non-Hawaiians. This means that developing culture-based (Collectivism and Individualism) education seems to provide the best ways for students to understand culturally relevant instruction.

Limitations of the study include the understanding that the conclusions are derived from literature reviews. It is worth doing in-depth studies of cultural differences of Collectivism and Individualism orientations in order to improve students’ academic achievement.

Reference


About the Author:  About the Author:  About the Author:  About the Author:  Sunok obtained a Graduate Certificate in TESOL as well as an MA Linguistics. She is an experienced EFL and Korean language teacher with credentials in TESOL, English language teaching, and Korean language teaching. She has been involved in teaching English and Korean for more than 20 years. She taught EIL 310 (reading, listening, speaking, writing, and grammar) at BYUH in 2018. Her interests are sociolinguistics, second language writing, and critical pedagogy.
Introduction
In an era of “fake news” and resurgent nationalisms, it is all the more important that multilingual students find a space for their voices in classrooms and curriculum. Language teachers should help them develop the skills they need to distinguish fact from fiction in the media that swirl around us. In this short piece, we introduce the ideas of critical literacy that help multilingual language learners develop voice and perspective.

Critical Literacy
In most language classroom settings, teachers commonly believe literacy means the skill of reading and writing in a language. However, we need to question what literacy is in a democratic society, a society that advocates justice, equality, and freedom. Moreover, we need to ask how we can promote students’ critical thinking, so that they can see issues from different cultural perspectives through learning literacy. Thus, it is time for us to consider implementing critical literacy in L2 classrooms.

Critical literacy is a way of using texts to bring a reader’s critical awareness of injustice and inequality in society and to take action to bring justice and equality to society (Luke & Dooley, 2011). Moreover, it encourages students to challenge common beliefs through different perspectives and actively participate and discuss the world around them; students are empowered to create text or image to bring justice and equality in their lives (Gains, 2009; Vasquez, 2012). With critical literacy, students are no longer passive learners, instead, they are active learners of literacy and are able to question the world around them through multicultural perspectives.

Recently, educators are seeing the value of critical literacy in various contexts. Borsheim-Black, Macaluso, and Petrone (2014) suggested that teachers who are interested in teaching canonical literature instruct students to read “against” the literature by questioning it. By doing this, students can see whose voice is missing, why particular literature is chosen to be included in the curriculum, and what other literatures are missing from the curriculum. In addition, Leland, Lewison, and Harste (2014) suggested that teachers can also use children’s literature to bring students’ critical awareness of social issues and encourage them to question the world around them.

They provided an example work which Kim Huber did in her classroom where she read picture story books to her students and let them see the social issues from different perspectives. In the end, students started to question issues in their community and were willing to learn more about the issues from other’s perspectives. While critical literacy is a way of encouraging students to actively participate in class discussions, there are probably not many teachers doing it in K-12 multilingual classrooms here in Hawai‘i. But how can it be done? One way to do it involves inviting all students to participate in developing a critical literacy curriculum, program, or materials.

Participatory Curriculum in the EL Classroom
In many classrooms, the design and ownership of the curriculum lies with the teacher, whereas when a participatory curriculum is used, these components are put into the hands of the learners. The impact upon students when they help design the curriculum indicates better reception and learning (Taylor, 2004). Students are invested in the class as well as their own learning. Opportunities arise for the use of first languages as a means of introducing others to native cultures.

One way to get students involved with the curriculum is by allowing them choice. Many students have topics that are either easier content (Continued on page 20)
Both curriculum topics and methods of delivery lead towards a stronger student voice in the curriculum, that of the student influencing the overall curriculum, or a negotiated curriculum. In the participatory, or negotiated curriculum, the students become an integral member of the curriculum planning process, essentially taking ownership for their learning. For example, building a website. Topic and delivery choices, as well as a negotiated curriculum, present meaningful classroom strategies that teachers can use to encourage learners to share their diverse backgrounds. Engaging the students through their own multiculturalism will also lead to more investment on the part of the student.

Teacher Networks Needed
To help new ideas be developed by teachers, or take root, teachers need to have confidence in them and get feedback and support as they try them out. A good way for this to happen naturally would be if there are supportive teachers, and for this, we can refer to the idea of teacher groups and networks (Adams, 2000). While TESOL teacher development groups have been discussed in our literature for many years (Sithamparam & Dhamotharan, 1992), the idea of a teacher network seems more appropriate to face the fact that critical literacy-oriented teachers may be few and far between—perhaps only one at any given school. Adams (2000) noted that “one can view teachers as embedded within two systems: a local policy system . . . and a professional one. The professional system, operating as a teacher network, provides an alternative source of perceptions, beliefs, and actions for its members” (p. 25).

Adams (2000) was not thinking in terms of a radical or critical alternative, but the idea of networks of teachers who may be attempting professional development in opposition to dominant trends and patterns in education seems to apply. Schools are often written about as though unitary, but in reality, teachers often disagree about values or ways of teaching (Achinstein, 2002). Or they may avoid
disagreement, taking refuge in the isolated nature of teacher life (Adams, 2000). Teachers often consider their work private to themselves, not to be shared or discussed. Teachers are often the only adults in their classroom, and may be reluctant to share problems, rarely team-teach, do not observe each other, and are not usually provided with opportunities for shared professional development.

Yet we wish that like-minded teachers could communicate with each other to share and solve problems together. Thus, we would like to encourage teachers to seek out other teachers with the idea of developing a certain amount of mutual aid and support when they are developing together (Rasulo, 2008). We want to suggest teachers try to foster a form of community that is overarching and reaches beyond individual schools, after any short-term form of professional development. If a sense of community, through membership in a network that goes beyond any one individual school, could develop, possibly that would support the taking-root of an educational innovation like (L2) critical literacy.

Thus, in advocating that teachers explore critical L2 literacy, we want to add in here that as they do so, they try to make links with other like-minded teachers. This may mean finding them outside their own school and then using social media or just regular personal contact to share ideas and support each other as they try to develop their teaching. Finding them may require presenting at a local conference (as we did) and then writing a short piece to encourage responses, in a local publication (as we are doing right now).

**References**


How Radical Behaviorism Can Foster New EFL Knowledge Transfer

By G. Andrew Reynolds

This article addresses the problem of English-as-a-Foreign Language (EFL) instructional practice in remedial EFL instruction. The question is how can teachers apply precepts of evidence-based instructional design (and the psychology of learning in second-language acquisition) in a brief, face-to-face EFL workshop? In this case with English learners (ELs) raised in a nation ranked 57th in English proficiency (out of 72 countries worldwide) where English is not the mother tongue (World Bank, 2017).

Workshop Methodology

In April 2019, I conducted a face-to-face remedial EFL workshop for an ASEAN Nation’s Department of Navy Education. Our host was the Navy Wives Club, and our ELs were arranged in three groups totaling 87 eight to twelve-year-old children of navy staff. (Sidebar: This workshop was the basis for my recent Purdue University M.S. Ed. Learning Design & Technology practicum in the psychology of learning in second-language acquisition. This practicum involved conversion of this type of face-to-face setting to 100% online, instructor-led delivery (See Appendix B.) However, this Navy Wives workshop was technology-wise, a bare-bones educational experience, for our groups of thirty ELs were seated on their haunches in an empty conference hall before a single instructor with a single whiteboard. “Low-tech?” No-tech!

“Media [technology] will never influence learning?”

University of Southern California’s Professor of Psychology and Technology Richard Clark (1994) famously said that “media will never influence learning” Perhaps this minimalist workshop proves his point! Normally, this course’s materials are supported by vibrant graphics in a modern multimedia language lab complete with a large projection screen. But without that tech, (just a whiteboard and worksheets), we were essentially back to the days of Abe Lincoln in a log cabin with a book and a candle. Yet learning took place. One might suggest Clark’s position then is akin to the baker’s end-user consumer – someone who doesn’t care how those baked goods got to the retailer, only that they did; be it by horse ‘n buggy OR by an autonomous Amazon delivery vehicle, they still got eaten. Yes, learning can take place in low-tech settings folks.

Synthesizing Radical Behaviorism, Constructivism, and Learning Assessment

Instructional Design & Learner Context

According to the Dick and Carey model of instructional design, learning is all about learner context (as cited in Pappas, 2015). In this case, an inventory of an entire nation’s decades-old EFL deficiencies reveals nine key English phoneme that are, across the board (and in all age groups and demographics), either “dropped” (omitted) or assigned peculiar pronunciations that are nearly indecipherable to the native English ear.

History of the SIGNPOST phonics Table of Nine Targeted Phoneme

For instance, in the correct pronunciation of the phoneme /s/ in the numeral six, we often hear how it’s “dropped” in this native ASEAN population’s English conversation. Therefore, the message the speaker has encoded “There are six people,” is decoded by the native English ear as “There are sick people”! (See Appendix C for a spontaneous and unscripted hand-held video digital artifact that demonstrates this phenomenon.)

After presentation of the SIGNPOST graphic table of nine targeted phoneme, we conduct an informal group inventory of existing EL performances (prior knowledge). Turkkan (2017) asks: “How can we use graphics to enhance the power of words?” Mayer’s (as cited in Turkkan, 2017) active learning approach offers a learner-centered instructional design that graphically connects prior knowledge to new INFO, engages ELs in exchanges that foster cognitive INFO processing, and creates a presentation that consolidates new knowledge in accessible long-term memory that results in durable behavior.

“Inventorying” = Accessing Prior Knowledge in EFL Settings

We first present the SIGNPOST graphic table of nine targeted
Radical Behaviorism . . . (continued)

(Continued from page 22)

phoneme, and one by one inventory each EL’s individual ability to correctly pronounce that “SIGNPOST phonic” in a single word or sentence. Using radical behaviorism’s focus on correct psychomotor tongue placement, we signal exactly when and where the tongue resides in the pronunciation of that specific phoneme. The s-sound for instance, is signaled by the letter /s/ being drawn in the instructor’s palm; an open-palm gesture that signals the s-sound’s presence in say the s-sound in the numeral six. Contrarily, the absence of the s-sound is signaled by a closed fist gesture, as in the word sick. In the case of the th-sound’, ELs are instructed to touch their index finger to their nose “make sure your tongue touches your nose when you say the number 3.” (The pre-existing behavior describing “three people” would be heard by the native English ear as “tree people”)

**Distribution of the Self-Assessment Key**

Kurt (2016) described how the Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick model (of Four Levels of Program Evaluation) suggests that Level 2 learning assessments should be simple in design, and straightforward to understand. In our case, our ELs are now asked to identify and write down (on the A5 SIGNPOST worksheet Part B) correct multiple-choice answers (provided in the A4 Self-assessment key) that uniquely matches a specific SIGNPOST prompt. Please note: While all (a) or (b) multiple-choice answers are correct SIGNPOST statements, only (a) or (b) uniquely matches that specific prompt. Discernment of that distinction fosters cognitive information processing and provides evidence that learning has taken place in settings low-tech or not: 1. Given the multiple-choice question prompt for “The s-sound”, select the correct response in the form of a complete SIGNPOST sentence: (a) “There are nine phonics on SIGNPOST” OR (b) “s – The s-sound in six”

If you selected (a) you are INCORRECT – but true - there are nine phonics on SIGNPOST. If you selected (b) you are CORRECT for the s-sound is important in the number six.

**Inventory of ELs Performances Confirms Consolidation of New EFL Knowledge**

As we approach the 20-minute mark of the 25-minute workshop, we review what we know about SIGNPOST: “There are nine phonics on SIGNPOST” ... then select ELs are asked to read a complete sentence from the A5 worksheet Part A when given a random prompt from a classmate. For example, the prompt ‘The th-sound’ matches the sentence “There are three trees on SIGNPOST.”

**Motivation, Recognition & Awards**

This randomized Q&A process affirms Mayer’s contention that for new knowledge transfer take place the use of visualization (creating a personal hand-drawn SIGNPOST graphical table, and recognizing the importance of signaling) affords the learner to understand the material as it is presented as new knowledge (Kurt, 2016). As is local custom, awards and prizes are presented to the top three performers, but everyone wins when everyone learns.

**References**


(Continued on page 24)
Radical Behaviorism . . . (continued)

Appendix A
Our Instructional Design Document
Here is the Design Document for a 3-hour workshop consisting of three groups of thirty 8 to 12-year-old remedial ELs; 25 minutes per group.

Learning Conditions (CN) – a one-off 25-min F2F workshop with 8-12 year-old remedial EL learners
EL Performance Objectives (PO) – correct psychomotor tongue placement in nine targeted phonemes
Criteria of Learner Success (CR) – Review of EL’s hand-drawn constructivist deliverables plus a Kirkpatrick Level 2 Self-assessment learning instrument

Appendix B
Here is the link to my portfolio of 14 Purdue-required competencies in Learning Design & Technology specific to Second-language Acquisition in face-to-face, blended and 100% online programming:
https://portfolium.com/entry/g-andrew-reynolds-ldt-portfolio-artifacts

Appendix C
“SIGNPOST” is a graphic that depicts nine commonly missing (“dropped”) English phonemes most remedial SE Asian English as a Foreign Language learners fail to recognize or commonly mispronounce. This “vdoDNA” artifact is one of many spontaneous and unscripted hand-held video recordings we utilize that offer learners near instantaneous explanatory feedback about their performances and how to improve them. And upon review, it is often the main subject of the performance who laughs loudest!
https://vimeo.com/212699459

Appendix D

SIGNPOST phonics

Here is What I Know About SIGNPOST phonics!!!
Please mark “a” or “b” for the BEST answer to these prompts:

Q no. 1 “This sound”:
(a) __________
(b) __________
Q no. 2 “The s-sound”:
(a) __________
(b) __________
Q no. 3 “The th-sound”:
(a) __________
(b) __________
Q no. 4 “The p-word”:
(a) __________
(b) __________
Q no. 5 “The b-word”:
(a) __________
(b) __________
Q no. 6 “The k-word”:
(a) __________
(b) __________
Q no. 7 “The m-word”:
(a) __________
(b) __________
Q no. 8 “The n-word”:
(a) __________
(b) __________
Q no. 9 “The r-word”:
(a) __________
(b) __________

Appendix E
L2 SIGNPOST / PWR-verb L2 KEY

1. SIGNPOST / PWR-V Self-Assessment Guide KEY
Presented the SIGNPOST table (CN), participants will be able to demonstrate an ability to discern nine commonly mispronounced English phoneme (B); and correctly pair a given prompt with its correct statement (CR).

SIGNPOST Self-Assessment Guide

1. Given the multiple-choice question/prompt:
“The s-sound”
Select the correct response in the form of a complete SIGNPOST sentence below:
“there are nine phonics on SIGNPOST"
“s” – The s-sound in six’s
If you selected (a) you are INCORRECT – but true - there are nine phonics on SIGNPOST. If you selected (b) you are CORRECT for the s-sound is important in the number six.

2. Given the multiple-choice question/prompt:
“The ta-sound”
Select the correct response in the form of a complete SIGNPOST sentence below:
“The ta-sound in we talked about SIGNPOST yesterday“
“The th-sound in three“
If you selected (a) you are CORRECT! The ta-sound changes the present tense of “talk” to the past tense in “we talked about SIGNPOST yesterday”. If you selected (b) you are INCORRECT, yet the th-sound is important in the number three.

3. Given the multiple-choice question/prompt:
“The staa-sound”
Select the correct response in the form of a complete SIGNPOST sentence below:
“staa-sound” in we talked about SIGNPOST yesterday“
“The th-sound in three“
If you selected (a) you are INCORRECT – (Continued on page 25)
Radical Behaviorism . . . (continued)

(Continued from page 24)

below:
“R - the err-sound in Right!”
“st - The staa-sound in first, last, start, stop!”

If you selected (a) you are INCORRECT!
Yes, the R-sound in Right is correct … for
the err-sound but not for this question.
If you selected (b) you are CORRECT, as
the staa-sound is important in first, last,
start, stop!

4. Given the multiple-choice question/
prompt:
“The paa-sound”
Select the correct response in the form
of a complete SIGNPOST sentence
below:
“R - the err-sound in Right!”
“p - The paa-sound in I am so
HAPPY!”

If you selected (a) you are INCORRECT!
Yes, the R-sound in Right is correct … for
the err-sound but not for this question.
If you selected (b) you are CORRECT, as
the paa-sound is important in “I am so
HAPPY!”

5. Given the multiple-choice question/
prompt:
“The err-sound”
Select the correct response in the form
of a complete SIGNPOST sentence
below:
“R - the err-sound in Right!”
“p - The paa-sound in “I am so
HAPPY!”

If you selected (a) you are CORRECT!
Yes, the R-sound in Right is correct – for
the err-sound!
If you selected (b) you are INCORRECT,
but the paa-sound is important in “I am
so HAPPY!”

6. Given the multiple-choice question/
prompt:
“The ull-sound”
Select the correct response in the form
of a complete SIGNPOST sentence
below:
(a) “L – the ull-sound in Left!”
(b) “st - The staa-sound in first, last,
start, stop!”

If you selected (a) you are INCORRECT!
Yes, the ull-sound in Left is correct!
If you selected (b) you are INCORRECT,
yet the staa-sound is important in first,
last, start, stop!”

7. Given the multiple-choice question/
prompt:
“The va-sound”
Select the correct response in the form
of a complete SIGNPOST sentence
below:
“V – the va-sound in My Navy Life!”
“p - The paa-sound in I am so
HAPPY!”

If you selected (a) you are CORRECT!
Yes, the va-sound is important in navy,
and very well thank you!
If you selected (b) you are INCORRECT,
but true, the paa-sound is important in “I
am so HAPPY!”

8. Given the multiple-choice question/
prompt:
“The wa-sound”
Select the correct response in the form
of a complete SIGNPOST sentence
below:
“The ta-sound in we talked about
SIGNPOST yesterday”
“The wa-sound in “would you like to
take a break?”

If you selected (a) you are CORRECT!
The ta-sound changes the present
tense of “talk” to the past tense in “we
talked about SIGNPOST yesterday” nine
phonics on SIGNPOST. But we are
looking for the wa-sound here.

If you selected (b) you are CORRECT, for
the wa-sound is important in the word
would – would you like to take one more
quiz question? Ok …next:

9. Given the multiple-choice question/
prompt:
“The th-sound”
Select the correct response in the form
of a complete SIGNPOST sentence
below:
(a) “s – The s-sound in six”
(b) “th – the th-sound in there are
three trees on SIGNPOST!”

If you selected (a) you are INCORRECT –
but true. The s-sound in six is important!
If you selected (b) you are CORRECT, for
the th-sound is important in the
complete sentence “There are three
trees on SIGNPOST!”

About the Author: G. Andrew Reynolds is
a Purdue University trained instructional
designer and senior foreign educator for
the ASEAN Navy Department of
Education. As a specialist in the
psychology of multimedia learning for
academic success and professional
development, he creates all manner of
learner-centered study aids and
organizational job aids ranging from K-12
to HiEd. He holds a B.S. in English
Communications / Education
Psychology, an M.S. Ed. in Curriculum &
Instruction specializing in Learning
Design & Technology. He is currently
completing his doctorate in
Organizational Change & Leadership at
the University of Southern California’s
Rossier School of Education. He can be
contacted at gareynol@usc.edu.
Hawai‘i TESOL Conference
February 15, 2019 at Brigham Young University
Laie, Hawai‘i
Opportunity for HITESOL Members

Announcing a new benefit opportunity for Hawai‘i TESOL members!

Maintained by the Department of Second Language Studies at UH Mānoa, the ESL Job List is the largest list-serve of its kind in Hawai‘i, listing current job opportunities for ESL professionals locally, nationally, and abroad.

Hawai‘i TESOL members can now opt-in to receive job announcements through the list-serve. When you renew your membership, this opt-in will be the final option on the form. If you have already renewed your membership and want to opt-in, follow these steps:

1. Log in to your Hawai‘i TESOL account.
2. Select the “View profile” link on the bottom left below your name.
3. Click the “Edit profile” button just below the Hawai‘i TESOL logo near the top of the page.
4. Check the “Yes” box next to “ESL Job List-Serve Access” at the bottom of your profile.
5. Give up to 4 weeks to begin receiving list announcements, as we update the Hawai‘i TESOL opt-in list with the ESL Job List administrator monthly.

If you want to opt-out at any time, you must complete two steps: 1. Follow the directions at the bottom of each job announcement to unsubscribe from the list., and 2. Follow the opt-in steps above but check the “No” box instead.

For employers who would like to post jobs to the ESL jobs list please use the link below.

http://www.hawaii.edu/sls/graduate/employment/

Up Coming Events

September, 2019: Fall Social

November, 2019: Practical Workshop

February, 2020: Conference

May, 2020: Language Experience

Keep up to date with Hawai‘i TESOL events online at www.hawaiitesol.wildapricot.org