

Lance Knowles
DynEd International
www.dyned.com

RELC International Seminar

The Great Divide: Mixing Teachers with Technology

Technology is on the threshold of transforming education, a fact underscored by the theme of this conference, and something I witness firsthand everyday. From my perspective, as one who has been a proponent of CALL from its earliest days, it's clear that many teachers and administrators are not prepared to deal with technology, even when the decision has been made to do so. I see this throughout the world, from classrooms in the US, Turkey, and Mongolia, to private language academies and universities in China, Korea and Japan. Technology is playing an increasing role, but the nature of that role is anything but clear. Issues of training, existing curricula, tests, and parents, for example, continue to confront teachers with difficult and often contradictory choices about how best to proceed. In fact, my greatest challenge, day to day, is not technology, but teacher training and support, both technical and pedagogical.

This presentation explores this issue and suggests that both cultural and theoretical issues need to be addressed. Some of the points that I will focus on are: (1) differences between the cultures of technology and education; (2) strengths and limitations technology; (3) insights from other disciplines, such as cognitive neuroscience, that can help us better understand the interface between the learner, the target language, and the technology, and (4) a rethinking of the roles that the teacher and technology should play in the language learning process. In exploring these issues, I will share some of the insights and theories I have used to build a support infrastructure for more than 5 million learners in schools, universities, and corporations.

The Issue of Culture and Change

First, the professional use of technology requires a support infrastructure. Networks, connections to the Internet, computers, headsets and microphones need to be installed and continuously maintained. Record-keeping and security issues pose another set of challenges. Managing this infrastructure, which has a direct impact on student experience and motivation, requires a set of skills few educators have, especially teachers.

As a result, expectations are often unrealistic and oversimplified, just as the Y2K phenomenon of a few years back, which had people worrying that planes would fall from the sky as software programs failed to function when the year changed to 2000.

This new infrastructure has a personality and culture of its own, very much like globalization itself. Dealing with this culture may even require a challenging and new cultural identity, for teachers as teachers and students as learners.

It's not surprising that many teachers feel threatened or insecure as their territory, the classroom, is invaded. Or perhaps they seek to minimize the impact of technology by assigning to it a marginal, supplementary role that allows things to continue with as little change as possible.

Without a clear understanding of the benefits technology can bring, there is reason to be skeptical about the nature of the transformation. What problems does it address? What are the costs and benefits? How should teachers be involved?

Contrasting Cultures

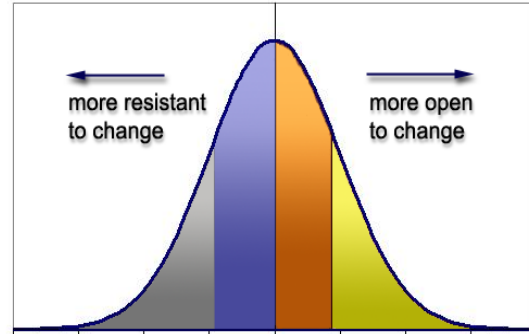
One of the chief characteristics of the technology culture is its openness to innovation and change. Anyone working in technology must be open to and adept at learning new things and ways of doing things. If you compare the technology of 20 years ago with now, the changes are clear and profound. In fact the most exciting changes are referred to as *disruptive* technologies, those that force changes in how things are done. Disruption is welcome in this culture because it creates new industries and economic rewards for those who cause the disruptions.

In contrast, in the field of language education, if you compare classrooms of 20 years ago with classrooms of today, you will find little change, except perhaps in the very best schools. In my own experience, visiting classrooms throughout the world, I see little change: students sitting in rows, memorizing lists of vocabulary words and sentences, and passively listening to teacher-talk. Sometimes you'll see students sitting at a computer, but the focus is almost always on the written skills. It's rare to see students working on their oral skills, though the role of listening as the key language skill has been known for years.

Where technology *is* used, it's often used as a supplement or as a means to connect learners with other learners. Teachers still teach, and students still memorize vocabulary and learn grammar in basically the same way. Textbooks are used extensively, and students end up *not* being able to speak English well enough to use it in any practical way. Language tests are basically the same, though there are now attempts to add more listening components. As a result, after hundreds of hours, students who need to use English to get a job must go to private language schools, which is where DynEd, for example, does a growing business.

One conclusion we might draw from these observations is that the education community resists change, especially if that change means to *actually* change. In Korea, for example, there is lots of talk about the necessity to change how English is taught, yet upon further investigation there is an implicit expectation that change should not really disrupt how things are done. There is a need to satisfy parents, for example, who want change but who still think of language learning in the traditional way, the way they learned, with a reliance on textbooks and memorizing vocabulary. It failed for the parents, yet they expect the same approach for their children, though with better results.

In other words, there is pressure to change education, but without changing. This of course is not surprising. The figure on the right shows how people generally react to change, especially if it's a paradigm shift, which is what technology represents. Some are more open than others, and can take a leading role. Others are resistant – resistant to the point that efforts to sway them can be counter-productive. Therefore, it's important to identify those who can facilitate change. These are the people who can help build successful models. Equally important is to identify those who are against change or who remain skeptical, often for good reason. In my experience, it's best to let them continue doing what they are doing. Attempts to push them too soon are seldom successful and can be a waste of valuable resources.



I bring this up because it's important to recognize that not everyone is ready for change, especially when the benefits of change are unclear, or when the skills required for change, such as oral fluency in English, are not present. Therefore, significant change should be done in incremental steps, with the right people, and with a support plan in place to help those who would like to develop the necessary skills. We should also remind ourselves that we don't know what we don't know. Even experts may need training, especially when we think we don't.

An example of a good first step is the use of technology to improve the oral skills of teachers. We have been involved in such programs in China and Mongolia, for example. These countries are making serious efforts to improve English language education, and have recognized that the traditional ways of doing things are not meeting their needs.

What we found in these programs was a very low level of oral proficiency, too low for the teachers to move beyond traditional ways of teaching, regardless of any theory that says they should do so. The decision to improve their oral fluency was a good first step. Not only did it provide an immediate and clear benefit to the teachers, but it served to familiarize them with the technology itself, lessening the fear factor.

Another benefit of this training was that while the teachers were using the technology to develop their oral fluency, they were experiencing it as learners. They were using it to address a need that they were aware of in their own teaching, and they could see their progress.

In fact, the lack of oral fluency among teachers is a major problem and an impediment to change. It impedes change because it limits what kind of change is possible. Even in affluent countries like Japan and Korea, there are a significant number of English teachers who have so little confidence in their English that they avoid any contact with native speakers. This problem is one that can be addressed with technology and is something we are working on every day. In fact, the product I'm working on right now is a training course for English teachers!

And at the other end of the spectrum, there are large numbers of native-speaker English teachers who, though fluent, lack basic teaching skills. They resist attempts to change what they are doing. These teachers can also impede change, perhaps because it's more difficult for them to admit that what they are doing is *not* meeting the long-term needs of their students. Sometimes these teachers can be great entertainers, or they face little criticism because they have the status of being a native speaker, and are unaware of their problems.

For *all* groups, to expedite change, there first needs to be a recognition of what isn't working. Problems need to be identified. For example, it needs to be pointed out that many students with very large vocabularies cannot hold a simple conversation. That's a fact. And second, there needs to be leadership, and a willingness to understand that change takes time. The success or failure of change must also be measured. There needs to be accountability. And this requires testing, including a realization that existing tests and metrics are inadequate to the task. Old metrics, for example – tests that measure passive vocabulary or relatively obscure points of grammar – are part of the problem.

Again, this is an area where technology can play an important role. In fact, to meet this challenge, we are constantly working on new test designs, including oral proficiency tests – and even ways to measure how *effectively* our technology is being used. We can now look at a group of students and see how our programs are being used, minute by minute. We can compare one lesson against another, and we can identify which teachers need further training. We can also predict which programs will succeed and which will fail, and we can identify the reasons.

Strengths and Limitations of Technology

From my observations over more than 20 years, it seems that the role technology should play is still not clear. Technology is here, but it hasn't been *integrated* into how we teach languages. Many different teachers have come up with ways to use technologies in very creative ways, but the vast majority of the programs I have seen are an extension of the old teaching paradigm, often using the Internet, PowerPoint presentations, or vocabulary games. Instead of using a blackboard, teachers may use an LCD or a computer. But the content is the same, words and sentences, lots of text, translation, and usually with an emphasis on the written skills.

I characterize many of these uses of technology as doing old things in new ways. However, with multimedia computers, learners can interact with the language in completely new ways, particularly with respect to the very skills that are lacking: listening and speaking. It was this observation that inspired me to start DynEd more than 25 years ago. At that time I was the Director of a total-immersion, intensive program in Japan, and in my many class observations, I noted the consistent lack of effective speaking and listening practice that students were getting. It was to address that need that I went to the US and started DynEd in 1987.

What I saw then and see even more clearly now is that the introduction of such formidable capabilities as speech recognition, the ability to coordinate visual and audio inputs, opportunities for students to practice and compare their student-generated language with a

native model, at any time and any place – these capabilities allow us to do new things and take advantage of new capabilities not possible with textbooks or in a classroom-only environment. In addition, technology allows us to monitor and measure activities and progress, which sets up the possibility to do meaningful research.

For example, I have immediate access to the study records of hundreds of thousands of students. I can see what they have done, minute by minute, and I can correlate those activities with test results.

| Student N... | Time | Cmpl | MT-... | SS | Rep | ABC | Mic | Head | SR-C | SR-A | SR % |
|--------------|-------|------|--------|----|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|
| Student 1 | 16:19 | 100% | 99.0 | 12 | 2467 | 22 | 1244 | 1230 | 302 | 416 | 73% |
| Student 2 | 12:08 | 100% | 98.3 | -6 | 58 | 41 | 75 | 66 | 451 | 716 | 63% |
| Student 3 | 08:45 | 100% | 100.0 | 9 | 5125 | 27 | 541 | 542 | 195 | 220 | 89% |
| Student 4 | 15:18 | 100% | 100.0 | 7 | 2369 | 136 | 1701 | 1642 | 225 | 468 | 48% |
| Student 5 | 14:36 | 100% | 97.3 | 11 | 1822 | 28 | 1438 | 1494 | 353 | 516 | 68% |
| Student 6 | 11:58 | 100% | 100.0 | -6 | 201 | 59 | 93 | 80 | 461 | 685 | 67% |

This screen for example, summarizes the activities of a class in China. Not only can I see time on task, but I can use metrics to judge the *quality* of that practice time and can provide specific suggestions to learners about how to improve their practice.

However, one danger of technology is in not understanding its limits. I have seen too many cases where technology has been oversold and where good-meaning educators have invested only to find that things didn’t work as promised.

The Internet, for example, still has major problems, such as bandwidth and infrastructure problems beyond the ability of any one school to manage. For example, if your school has a fast Internet connection, but you are connecting to a site that can only be reached through other connections or nodes that are slow or clogged by too much traffic, performance can be highly unsatisfactory. I have an expression that may be worth remembering: “To be on the bleeding edge means to be on the *bleeding* edge.”

In one recent case, several thousand students in one country were scheduled to take a test at the same time, as a contest. So the students all logged in and started, precisely at the same time, overloading the system – in front of television cameras covering the event – until everything failed. And they had been warned that this would happen!

With a little more thought and planning, these schools could have started in waves, spread out in 2-minute intervals. But there was not sufficient technical management to work this out. People just expected it to work, revealing their lack of understanding about the limits of the underlying technology. Technical advice was overruled.

And finally, a significant limitation of technology is its lack of humanity. Yes, we can use it to link people from all points of the globe – but call me old fashioned – I believe that communication activities, pair work, role plays, and oral presentations are best done with real people in the same room – with the opportunity for students to see each other without a lag time or through a video monitor, and get constructive feedback.

I believe that though computer software can provide excellent language models, the specific needs and cultures of students are best dealt with locally, in the classroom, with a teacher or tutor to guide, direct, and provide feedback – assuming of course that the teacher has the skills, and is willing, to play this role.

For these reasons, I have never been a proponent of e-learning, where in many cases students are expected to learn on their own. Instead, I favor a *blended* model where teachers and technology work together, and where their roles are clearly defined.

To do this well, we need to articulate a model that defines the roles of the teacher and the technology. In addition, we need to monitor progress and measure both successes and failures. What this requires, in my view, is an expanded learning theory, one that takes into account the new capabilities of technology. In the rest of this presentation, I will outline some of the key points of the learning theory that has guided our programs, our training, and our testing.

To begin with, I will give a brief overview of the traditional approach and set up a contrast with the blended model that we have begun to implement.

The Traditional Model

The figure below summarizes the typical language learning model we see in classrooms around the world. It shows typical ratios between classroom activities, homework, and language practice. Note that practice is minimal. This is a knowledge-based approach, where the teacher is the knowledge-giver and the students learn or memorize what is given to them. When technology *is* used, it is often used to provide additional ways to get or exchange information, including activities where students interact with other students through the Internet. In this model, technology is seldom used in conjunction with the main syllabus. Note again the small percentage of time spent in actual language practice, especially the oral skills.



In this model textbooks are used extensively, and students memorize lists of words and rules of grammar. In the classroom, the teacher does most of the talking, and uses written text to set up listening and speaking drills.

In one interesting example, at a school in Shanghai, I witnessed a young, intelligent teacher with good oral fluency set up a role-play in her class. There were about 40 students in the classroom, and the teacher used an LCD projector to bring up her PowerPoint slides. The theme of the day was to talk about food.

First the students read aloud the dialog as it was shown on the screen. Then they broke into pairs and practiced playing the roles, often looking back at the screen as they attempted to memorize the short dialog. After a few minutes, the teacher chose a girl from the front and a boy from the back to come to the front of the class and perform the dialog. In the short

exchange that followed, the girl asked: “And what would you like to eat?” Quickly, the boy answered: “I’d like a pizza!” At that point, the teacher intervened and corrected: “No, not pizza – Dumpling.” *Dumpling* of course was what was in the memorized dialog, and the student complied. As I saw it, the student was being asked to memorize rather than communicate – a lost opportunity.

This is an important distinction. Memorization is different from language processing, where real choices are made in real time. I have seen many other examples, in the traditional approach, where even students who have won speech contests cannot have a simple conversation, unless it is rehearsed. They have knowledge and memory of the language, but not the acquired skill that comes from practice. This distinction between memorization and skill acquisition is fundamental.

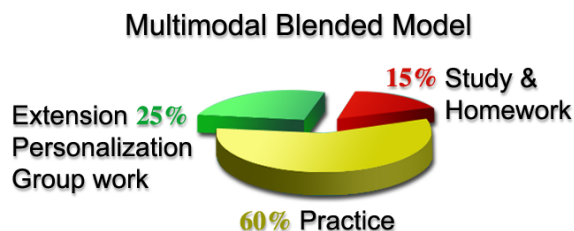
So why did that teacher correct that student? What was her theory of language acquisition? For *any* teacher, how should technology be used? Should it be to facilitate the memorization of vocabulary words, or should it be used to facilitate language processing of a different kind? In my opinion, without a learning theory, there is no framework to support the choices we have to make.

A Learning Theory for a Blended Model

For teachers and students who use *our* programs, we have developed a learning theory, “Recursive Hierarchical Recognition” or “RHR”. Without an understanding of this learning theory, users of our programs cannot realize their full potential. Without training, teachers don’t know what to do, or they use our programs as an independent supplement or in ways that the data shows to be ineffective. This is one reason we have decided to make our programs available only to institutions where teacher support is possible and where at least some training is a requirement.

RHR is a cognitive, neuroscientific theory that approaches language learning in a way that makes specific use of multimedia technology. It supports and defines a *blended* approach, where classroom activities and computer-based lessons play complementary roles and are linked together.

In this blended approach, computer lessons provide *multimodal* language input and practice. Classroom activities provide extension and personalization of the language models *previously practiced*. The teacher acts as a coach and a facilitator, *not* a lecturer or entertainer. This figure shows the model, with its emphasis on practice.



Though RHR has similarities to other theories, such as Krashen’s Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, it has the means to transform and monitor the learner experience as never before. It is this theory that guides our design and implementation, including teacher training and support. The model also requires and uses data collection and measurement,

all done automatically and with metrics designed to measure what the theory says is important. Data is collected and analyzed, fed back into the design, and shared with teachers and students.

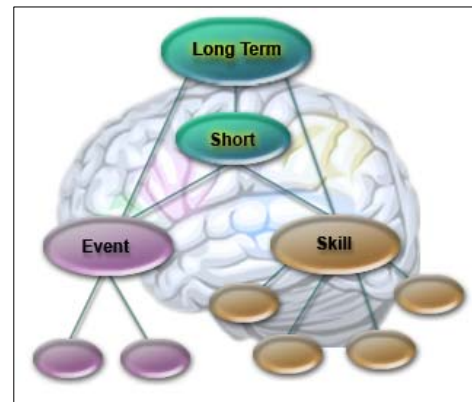
Like any good theory, RHR makes predictions that can be tested. It also provides insights into the learning process and takes advantage of research in other areas. Most importantly, it provides a degree of clarity and a framework that can support and direct teachers and students in their new roles.

What are some of the main points of this learning theory? First, it makes use of insights from the neurosciences, especially regarding memory systems in the brain. In particular, it approaches language processing as primarily a skill, not knowledge or conscious understanding. It *isn't* a knowledge-based approach.

From the neurosciences, we know that an important part of skill learning involves the development of procedural memory (skill memory). Skill acquisition is a process that generally occurs over many repetitions of a learning activity, distributed over a suitable period of time.

Skills are acquired through practice, not study or memorization. Or rather, it's a *different kind* of memorization. In fact, skill memory, or procedural memory, is what allows for *automaticity*, a key idea in RHR.

Language automaticity means the skill to automatically process language patterns, without conscious thinking or analysis. According to RHR, without automaticity, language fluency is not possible. If we accept this, then the development of automaticity becomes one of the primary goals of language learning.



Automaticity, as a skill, is developed through repetitive practice, and is stored as an implicit memory, an automatic sequence of language processing actions, much like playing a sequence of notes on a piano. Once a sequence is mastered, such as recognizing and grouping words into a phrase, it can be carried out automatically, without consciously attending to each step. This is important for language processing because conscious processing takes time, and the oral skills in particular require fast processing.

In fact, conscious processing *interrupts* the process. If you're in the jungle and you hear a lion roar, you start running and your heart starts racing even *before* you know you're afraid.

Second, to develop language automaticity, RHR distinguishes between the 4 skills. It notes that the oral skills are *temporal* skills, or time-based skills, and the written skills are *spatial* skills. The oral skills are time-based because they deal with a moving stream of language patterns. These sound patterns go through the brain once, without stopping. The

written skills, on the other hand, deal with text, which is spatial. You can stop and look at it.

When processing oral speech, the language is held in working memory and processed very quickly. This kind of memory is limited. According to neuroscientists, it lasts between one and five seconds, and can hold from four to seven chunks of information. To hold language in working memory, the brain uses pattern recognition logic to group and process the language input into larger chunks.

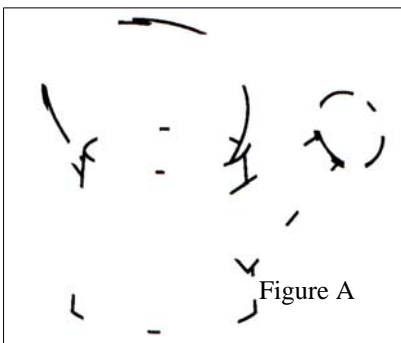
Individual words, for example, are grouped into phrases, which are larger chunks. The three words, *for, two, hours*, can be grouped into one chunk: *for two hours*. Once it is recognized as a chunk, rather than individual pieces, it can be processed very quickly. The sentence, *She stayed at the party for two hours*, can be seen as two or three chunks rather than eight words. You can try this experiment for yourself when you repeat a long phrase or sentence, such as: "She got wet/ because it started to rain/ and she didn't have her umbrella."

For the oral skills, time pressure, or *temporal tension*, activates the chunking mechanism. The brain attempts to chunk language patterns so that the language input can be processed in the working memory. In fact, according to RHR, language fluency is proportional to the ability to chunk language.

Developing the ability to recognize and process larger chunks of language is the key to oral fluency. This skill is different from reading texts, yet in traditional language teaching text is used to introduce language patterns. This is one reason traditional language teaching is so inefficient. Text and textbooks are spatial, not temporal.



According to RHR, the use of text interferes with the development of oral skills. The use of text reduces *temporal tension*. Temporal tension activates the brain's pattern recognition logic to identify new patterns that can aid in the chunking process. Without this tension, the identification process is bypassed. You can feel this yourselves when you look at subtitles or use text support. Without the right level of temporal tension, students can become bored with repetition. Temporal tension keeps the brain engaged, as long as it's at the right level.



Temporal tension is a *positive* force. It engages the learner and helps the brain learn. In Figure A, for example, the brain instantly and naturally fills in the expected pattern. It takes incomplete information and extrapolates, or infers the rest. RHR takes advantage of this natural learning force. The brain wants to complete patterns, fill in gaps, and make sense of things. It relates things to its long-term memory and to familiar contexts.

Third, in the RHR approach, the key patterns of English are carefully introduced so that the brain learns to recognize and use them. The learning sequence is: familiarization; then recognition; then comprehension; then practice and mastery; and finally, review and automaticity.

In this process, RHR takes advantage of the fact that computers can provide both language input and language practice better than textbooks or even classroom activities, where too much repetition is inefficient. Computers have an advantage because they can provide *multimodal* language input and practice activities far superior to anything possible with a textbook.

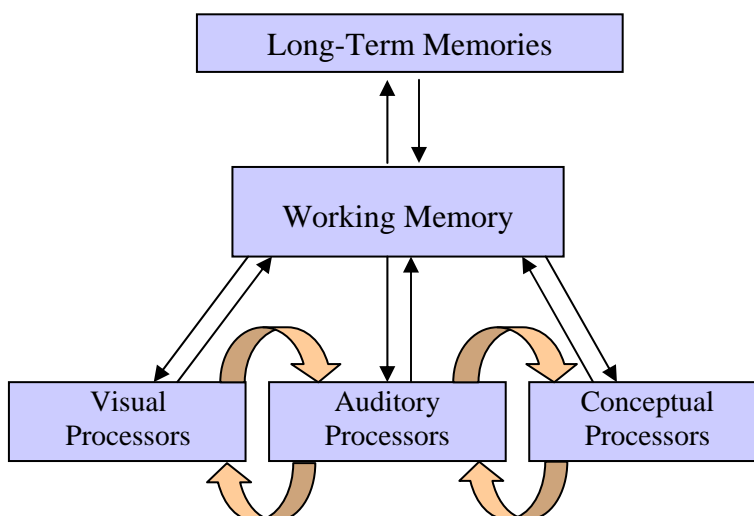
By multimodal, I mean the *coordinated*, synchronized activation of visual, auditory, conceptual, and other systems within the brain, including long-term memory.

Also from the neural sciences we are learning about the nature of brain *plasticity*, the kinds of changes in the brain that occur when learning takes place. We know that *multimodal* activities in particular enhance the creation of new or strengthened synaptic connections, which is the stuff of new memories. As the famous neuroscientist, Donald Hebb said: *Neurons that fire together, wire together.*

Language processing requires many neural systems to interact, with information flowing upward and downward within the brain. The figure below illustrates how various processors in the brain communicate with each other and the working memory.

During multimodal practice, students are coached to listen multiple times to a language model in context. This language input is supported by synchronized, visual input of an iconic nature, such as geometric figures, charts, or arrangements of pictures designed to express causal relationships. This kind of visual input helps learners to infer or guess the meaning of a language pattern, especially if it is animated or brought into focus so that the visual and auditory inputs are appropriately synchronized.

With each passing sentence or question, the underlying language patterns and gaps become familiar, then recognized, and then comprehended, provided that the input has been

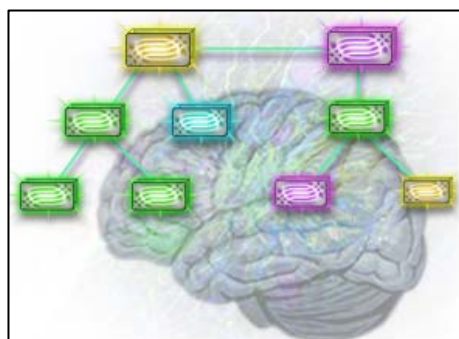


sequenced appropriately. This learning sequence doesn't happen the first time through, of course, but with multiple cycles and repetitions.

A well-designed multimedia program optimizes this process, both in the presentation of language models and in the interactive exercises that support them. In particular, long term (LT) memory, visual information, and conceptual processors work together to help decode and fill in comprehension gaps – a scaffolding process.

RHR takes advantage of the brain's innate ability to guess and make sense of things. It fills in gaps, and gaps create interest if the gaps are not too great. In fact, the brain *enjoys* learning in this way – an approach similar to how we learned our first language. Let's remember how often young children like to hear the same story told over and over again, even when they miss many of the language details.

Fourth, RHR says that language chunks are built around *concepts* and that these concepts are part of the structure of the brain. In fact, in neuroscience, there is considerable evidence that there are structures in the brain – cortical columns – that specialize in specific concepts, such as size, shape, or number. These elements of meaning structure our perceptions. They are the dimensions of our world, and as such, they are reflected in the structure of language.



In RHR, the sequencing of concepts is important. The language presentation follows an hierarchical order. Frequent, concrete concepts, such as *duration* and *location in time*, are introduced and practiced first.

In RHR lessons, vocabulary is best taught in phrases and sentences, *not* as individual items. Not only does this approach help students gain a better sense of the meaning of words, which are heavily dependent on context, but it also gives students a handle on how each word is used, *conceptually*.

Taught this way, in phrases and sentences, the chunking skill develops at the same time, which is the road to language fluency. As the chunking ability improves, it carries over to the written skills, reading and writing, where students are then able to process language in larger units than individual words.

In fact RHR predicts that oral fluency facilitates the development of written fluency, since language chunking is utilized in all 4 skills. In RHR, lessons should follow the 4-skills path: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The oral skills facilitate and support the written skills, and the written skills reinforce and extend the oral skills.

And finally, RHR specifies the role of teachers and classroom activities so that they support and extend what the students have practiced during self-study with the courseware. Just as a music teacher shows students how to practice, and has the students perform what

they have practiced, the role of the language teacher is to coach and facilitate rather than be a knowledge giver.

Lecture and explanation is minimized. Instead, teachers *coach* students in how to practice effectively. Teachers *facilitate* classroom interactions that extend and personalize the language models from the computer-based lessons. This complementary relationship between practice and classroom extension is the secret to a successful blend, rather than a mix of oil and water, where classroom activities are unrelated to what the students have practiced.

In this blended model, both computers and the classroom have important roles to play. The strengths and limitations of each are recognized. In the computer-based lessons, language models are presented and practiced in an interactive, multimedia format. Learners are active, not passive, and work at an optimal language level which is adjusted and monitored for each individual by the software.

Compared to a classroom-only approach, the advantages of this kind of practice are manifold, particularly in the total amount of productive time on task. If coached properly, the number of learning encounters per session is significantly higher than in a classroom-only scenario and can be monitored.

In addition to the computer-based lessons, the classroom provides the human element, accommodating the needs and lives of learners in a social context. In the classroom or tutorial sessions, students make short presentations, do role-plays, work in pairs or small groups, and do dictations that expand vocabulary and build on the language models.

In short, students use the language to communicate about their lives, their jobs, their families, and their interests. Memorization is used, but held to a minimum. The teacher sets up activities and provides directions and feedback, and allows for 'happy accidents' to occur so that the class is alive. Of course the teacher also assigns additional reading and writing support, as well as homework assignments, along with anything else mandated by the school curricula.

In this skills-based approach, multimodal practice activities form the core of the learning process. The teacher is in overall control, not only in the classroom, but in setting and monitoring learning paths for the students. For real success in this model, the teacher should be familiar with the multimedia materials and believe in them – not blindly, but because the materials make good pedagogical sense and, more than anything else, because both the teacher and the learners can see and feel their progress.

Conclusion

The above is just a summary of the theory. My aim isn't to explain the theory here. My aim is to illustrate how a learning theory can guide and optimize the use of technology. A good learning theory can also give skeptics a better understanding of how and why technology provides significant advantages to language learners in terms they can respond to and appreciate.

In the case of RHR, it's clear that teachers play an important role – though it is a different role. Some teachers may resist this change. But hopefully they will resist only because they disagree with the theory or because they have a better learning theory that can deliver better results.

Whatever, no teacher should be teaching who doesn't have a learning theory; and technology shouldn't be used without defining and justifying its role. Every decision a teacher makes is based on a theory, whether the teacher can articulate it or not. Sometimes that theory is nothing more than what they themselves experienced as a learner, or "It's what everyone else does." But is this good enough? I would suggest that the answer is in the results.

Now that English language fluency has clear and urgent economic consequences for countries, there are different expectations and consequences for language learning. There is much more pressure to help students gain productive language skills, rather than a dead understanding of the grammar rules and a huge vocabulary that students either forget or aren't able to use in a real encounter, where time is important. There just isn't enough time to think and remember definitions or translate from one language into another. The brain simply can't do that task.

Conscious thought takes too much time. Language processing must be carried out automatically, by the brain's skill memory. The goal of RHR is to better develop that skill memory through a blend of computer based lessons and coordinated classroom activities where language models are extended and personalized. The blend isn't mechanistic at all, but takes advantage of what the brain can do mechanically so that we can express our humanity and interact with confidence and fluency.

There are many other areas of importance that I cannot cover here, such as the importance of scheduling and study frequency. Cognitive neuroscience has much to say about learning, skill-acquisition, memory systems, and multiple intelligences. These are areas that directly relate to the design and implementation of technology, and these areas need to be focused on more in quality teacher preparation courses.

Buying computers and software is easy and fast. But reaching and supporting teachers, and bringing them across the divide, is far more difficult – along with changes in the infrastructure, tests, and even the culture of language learning. Without addressing these areas, technology will continue to play a minor, supplementary role, which is far less than its great potential.

In my experience, teacher training and teacher support benefit from having a learning theory that can unify the elements in a blended solution and take full advantage of the interface provide by true multimodal programs.

In closing, though computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has great potential, not all multimedia programs are equal. Comparative studies need to differentiate much better than they have. Reviewers need to look through the eyes of a different paradigm than the text-based one that still dominates. Where some programs are extensions of a page-based, spatial paradigm, or follow a knowledge-based approach, other programs follow a

completely different approach, a multimodal, skill-based approach which emphasizes the importance of the oral skills as the basis for language acquisition.

And even when the same program is used, there may be significant variations in *how* it is used, whether as a supplement in a language lab, in an e-learning mode where no classroom or teacher is involved, or as the core material for subsequent classroom work.

Such differences matter. Let's welcome this disruptive technology and realize its potential to help our students.

References

- Brown, R. W. Learning, Hierarchical Storage, Assembly and Recall / R. W. Brown // Proceedings of the 2003 ASEE/WFEO International Colloquium
- Craik, F. Depth of processing and the retention of words in episodic memory / Craik, F. I. M. Craik, E. Tulving // Journal of Experimental Psychology - 1975 - General, 104, 268-294.
- Deacon, T. The Symbolic Species: The Co-evolution of Language & the Brain. (T.W. Deacon) -NY: WW Norton, 1997
- Feldman, J. The Simplicity Principle in Human Concept Learning / J. Feldman // Current Directions in Psychological Science - 2003 - pp 227-232
- Hawkins, J. On Intelligence (J. Hawkins) New York, Times Books, Henry Holt & Company -2004
- Hebb, D. The Organization of Behavior (D. Hebb) Wiley - 1949
- Knowles, L. On the Cusp: New Developments in Language Teaching / L. Knowles // ESL Magazine, Issue 40, July/August 2004 - available <http://www.dyned.com/pdf/Teacher-Guides/TGTHEORY.PDF>
- Knowles, L. The Evolution of CALL / L. Knowles // Language Magazine, August 2004
- Knowles, L. Mind Blocks / L. Knowles // Language Magazine - August 2008
- Krashen, S. The Input Hypothesis (S. Krashen) Beverly Hills: Laredo - 1985
- Kuhl, P. Early Language Acquisition: Cracking The Speech Code / P. K. Kuhl // Nature Reviews/Neuroscience [Vol 5] pp831-41 www.nature.com/reviews/ Nov. 2004 doi:10.1038/nm1533
- Lazarus, R. Autonomic discrimination without awareness: A study of subception / R. Lazarus, R. McCleary // Psychological Review - 1951 - 58, pp 113-22
- LeDoux, J. The Emotional Brain (J. LeDoux) New York, Simon and Schuster - 1996
- Lidz, J. Understanding How Input Matters: Verb Learning and the Footprint of Universal Grammar / J. Lidz, H. Gleitman et al // Cognition 87.3 - 2003 - pp 151-178
- Palmer, H. The Oral Method of Teaching Language (H. E. Palmer) University College, London - 1921
- Pinker, S. How could a child use verb syntax to learn verb semantics? /S. Pinker // Lingua, 92 North Holland - 1994 - pp 377- 410
- Pinker, S. How the Mind Works (S. Pinker) New York: W.W. Norton & Company - 1997
- Restak, R. The Modular Brain. (R.M. Restak, M.D.) Macmillan, New York - 1994
- Shukla, M. Revealing the Workings of Universal Grammar /M. Shukla // Journal of Bioscience 28.5 (September 2003) pp 535-537
- Snedeker, Jesse. Cross-Situational Observation and the Semantic Bootstrapping Hypothesis. E Clark (ed) Proceedings of the Thirtieth Annual Child Language Research Forum. (2000) Stanford, CA Center for the Study of Language and Information
- Ullman, M. Contributions of memory circuits to language: the declarative/procedural model / M. T. Ullman // Cognition 92 -2004 - pp 231-270 available at http://www.brainlang.georgetown.edu/PUBS/Ullman_Cognition_04.pdf
- Wilkins, D. Notional Syllabuses. (D. Wilkins) London: Oxford University Press - 1976.
- Zajonc, R. Feeling and Thinking: Preferences Need No Inferences / R. Zajonc // American Psychologist 35 - 1980 - pp151-75