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Implications of Multimodal Learning Models for foreign language teaching and learning¹

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Abstract

This literature review article approaches the topic of information and communications technologies and their impact on the language learning process, with particular emphasis on the most appropriate design informed by models of multimodal learning. The first part contextualizes multimodality within the field of the psychology of learning and CALL; the second, deals with multimodal conceptions of reading and v

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hypertextuality and literacy. A final section outlines the possible implications of multimodal learning on language teaching and learning.

Key words: multimodal discourse, literacies, multimodal principles and design.

Resumen

En este artículo se hace una reseña de la literatura en torno al impacto de las tecnologías de la información desde la perspectiva de su impacto en el proceso de aprendizaje de la(s) lengua(s), con particular énfasis en los modelos multimodales más pertinentes según indican los modelos de aprendizaje multimodal. En la primera parte se discute la multimodalidad en el campo de los estudios del discurso, la psicología del aprendizaje y CALL y, en la segunda parte, se plantea la lectura y escritura multimodal por medio de la discusión de los conceptos de hipertextualidad y lectoescritura, planteando las posibles implicaciones de los modelos de aprendizaje multimodal para los procesos de enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras/segundas.

Palabras clave: discurso multimodal, lectoescrituras, principios y diseños multimodales.

Introduction

Our interest in multimedia learning can be attributed to several questions we posed to ourselves in trying to understand the impact of information and communications technologies (ICT's) on our lives as citizens, individuals and learners. As we notice a differential in computer literacy skills among generations of colleagues and learners, we are interested in the cognitive skills that these technologies are making possible. Turkle (1984, 1995, in press) was a pioneer in this respect as she tried to give an account, from a psychosocial perspective, of how identities are constructed and created via Internet. For her, ICT's have introduced new tools that we use to think; consequently, the way we think would also change. New identities are born that are tethered to communications devices and things that are part of a tethered self who is "always-on/always-on-us" (a play on words that implies that technological gadgets are always present and whose presence is always haunting us), shaped by this world of rapid response and whose successes are always made, e-mails answered, contacts reached, (Turkle in press: 16). From the perspective of applied linguistics, I am interested in the effects that this emergent and changing scenario is having on the processes of language acquisition and interpretation.

The changes introduced by ICT's in the cultural landscape have been approached as a new revolution by many authors (Turkle 1995, Vandendorpe 1999, Avila 2006) as "from page to screen". Some of these researches draw a parallel between the invention of the printing press and the widespread use of computers as impacting factors in modern societies. Still, some others are more critical and do not jump into the bandwagon of success with such enthusiasm. The same inequalities in the access to books can be observed in the access to computers, which creates a digital divide (Piscitelli 2004). Notwithstanding that access is still a problem that permeates our lives, it is evident that our conceptions of language and communication have shifted radically with the arrival of digital capabilities. Just take the possibility of cutting and pasting and compare it (if you belong to the generation that grew up to the same processes but using a typewriter).

Communications, on the other hand, have also changed radically; again, just compare (we are writing this article) to the many cards you wrote and received fifteen years ago, to the few (if any) cards you wrote and received today. Now they are in your computer's memory or in some virtual site, or they were email messages exchanged with multiple recipients. As Crystal (2001:238) claims, the electronic revolution is also bringing about a linguistic revolution: "Netspeak is something completely new. It is neither 'spoken writing' nor 'written speech'" (see also I

Such change has obviously affected the school communities and the relationships established between teachers and students. Now we now include other modes of cognitive involvement and social interactions made possible by digital technologies. This diversity in language processing skills has led some authors to coin the concept of multiliteracies, which refers to the competences that the digital era require and that include visual literacy, TV literacy, computer literacy and digital literacy (Kalantzis 2000). Actually, the compiling work by Cope and Kalantzis (2000) summarizes the concerns of the New London Group (known as the New London Group) evidenced as a result of their discussion on issues of literacy pedagogy.

their implications for language teaching. The socio-cultural context in which these new modes of producing and comprehending language emerged and the implications that they may have for literacy education have been successfully reviewed by Clavijo and Quintana (2004) in the first part of their book, which dedicates the last chapters to the illustrations from students and teachers who explored the world of hypertextuality. We consider the work of Colombian researchers a solid and ground breaking contribution to the applications of contextualized learning both for mother and foreign language teaching and learning. As for the Chilean context Farías (2004a) has introduced to the specialized TEFL community the issues of multimodal learning and language teaching.

In this paper, firstly, we are going to place the issue of multimedia learning in the larger context of the creation of intersubjectivities by reviewing the literature coming from discourse studies, research in the area of CALL and the lines of research known as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL); secondly, we discuss the new modes of language representation and production afforded by ICT's with special reference to hypertextuality and finally we approach the concept of multimedia learning and its possible implications for foreign language teaching. A final caveat in this introduction is to mention that most of the discussion and potential applications here reviewed certainly apply to learning in general; however, our natural foci are second/foreign language learning here where experimental research is badly needed.

1. Multimodal discourse and semiotic models of text interpretation.

Authors like Kress and van Leeuwen (1996, 2001) have paved the way to introduce the discussion on multimodal presentation that they call multimodal discourse. These new types of discourse would require a semiotic model to be produced and interpreted by resorting to several codes: images, layout, letters, colors, sound. Their work has increased our understanding of the changing portrayals of information brought about by new language processing technologies. Interest is paid by them to the increasing importance of visual communication and the replacement of written texts for more visually charged texts. Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) set the ground for a semiotic and sociocultural model of multimodal texts by investigating communication as "a process in which a semiotic product or event is produced and interpreted or used" (p. 20). Previously, Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) had explored the concept of what they called the 'grammar of visual design' that was needed to understand the meanings conveyed by visual texts. Interpreting skills would be at the heart of visual literacy. One important point they raised for our consideration is the value of visual texts in the life of students outside the school, as opposed to the prominence of written texts in the curriculum.

Kress, Jewell, Ogborn and Tsatsarelis (2001) continue the tradition set by Kress and van Leeuwen by exploring the science classroom. For them, language is one of a multiplicity of modes of communication that are available in the classroom. One of their suggestions for teacher education is that "teachers must be given the means to become highly effective in their practice....particularly of the interaction between modes and shape of knowledge, and between modes of communication and receptiveness by the students" (p. 177). For the purpose of this review, we here make the distinction between multimedia and multimodality, which need to be operationally defined as they are central to comprehending and underpinning the models we have reviewed. Multimedia refers to the idea that the instructor uses more than one medium, whereas multimodality refers to the idea that the learner uses more than one sense modality. Despite such distinction, there is no agreement in the literature as both terms are often used interchangeably.

1.1. Multimedia learning, models and principles.

Now, dealing with the effects that these new modes of information representation are having on the learning process, Mayer (2001, 2005a) and Schnotz (2005) have worked on two complementary models. Mayer's model of multimedia learning is based on the assumption that learners can comprehend better when content material is presented in words and pictures. In presenting his theory, Mayer (2001) includes the discussion about three views of multimedia, two views of multimedia learning, two metaphors of multimedia learning, three kinds of multimedia learning outcomes, two kinds of active learning, and two principles of multimedia design. Using an attractive and pedagogical discourse, Mayer (2001) looks at multimedia from two perspectives: as delivery media (combining two or more delivery devices, as overhead projector and computer screen) and as presentation modes (representations that include words and pictures, as on-screen text and animation). Mayer also discusses the channels theory (visual and auditory senses, as used to process slides and narration, for example). Supported by Paivio's dual-coding theory that asserts that humans possess separate channels for processing visual and auditory information, Mayer focuses on the presentation mode as more consistent with a cognitive view of human learning. As [Fig. 1](#)

multimedia learning theory combines pictorial and verbal channels that are integrated in working memory with the learner's prior knowledge from long term memory.

Following a similar rationale, he opts for a view of multimedia design as learner-centered rather than a view that also inspires our work when we look historically into the promises of technologies for learning. This view yielded the expected results as the emphasis has been on technology rather than learning. In this respect, the following comment: "Changes in the availability and flexibility of technologies are allowing for greater progress in which these technologies are used for education and training" and asks this question: "are these changes driven by learning and instructional theories, or do the technological advances drive them?" (p. xvii). In his metaphors, again, he subscribes to an approach to multimedia learning as knowledge that is constructed through active activities rather than as information that is acquired and stored by a passive being (cf the empty vessel metaphor). This view, in turn, is consistent with Mayer's (1997) evolving theory of learning consisting of three stages: response selection, information processing and knowledge construction. As for the outcomes of multimedia learning, Mayer (2001) identifies three possibilities: no learning (both poor retention and transfer), rote learning (good retention and poor transfer) and meaningful learning (good retention and good transfer). If meaningful learning is to be achieved, active learning should be encouraged in its two kinds: behavioral activity and cognitive activity. Regarding Mayer (2001) writes: "My point is that well-designed multimedia instructional messages can promote active information processing in learners, even when learners seem to be behaviorally inactive" (p. 19). Then, in addressing the principles of multimedia design, seven principles are postulated:

1. **Multimedia Principle:** Students learn better from words and pictures than from words alone.
2. **Spatial Contiguity Principle:** Students learn better when corresponding words and pictures are presented near rather than far from each other on the page or screen.
3. **Temporal Contiguity Principle:** Students learn better when corresponding words and pictures are presented simultaneously rather than successively.
4. **Coherence Principle:** Students learn better when extraneous words, pictures, and sounds are excluded rather than included.
5. **Modality Principle:** Students learn better from animation and narration than from animation and on-screen text.
6. **Redundancy Principle:** Students learn better from animation and narration than from animation, narration, and on-screen text.
7. **Individual Differences Principle:** Design effects are stronger for low-knowledge learners than for high-knowledge learners and for high-spatial learners rather than for low-spatial learners.

Figure 1. Taken from 'Seven research-based principles for the design of multimedia messages', (Mayer 2001: 184).

A somewhat different set of principles is presented in Mayer (2005b) where a personalization principle is added, that there is deeper learning when words are presented in conversational style rather than formal style. Mayer (2005b) adds two more principles: an interactivity principle, deeper learning occurs when learners are allowed to interact with the material; and a signalling principle: deeper learning takes place when learners are signaled rather than nonsignaled. Designers of TEFL materials should, then, pay attention to these principles when elaborating multimodal texts.

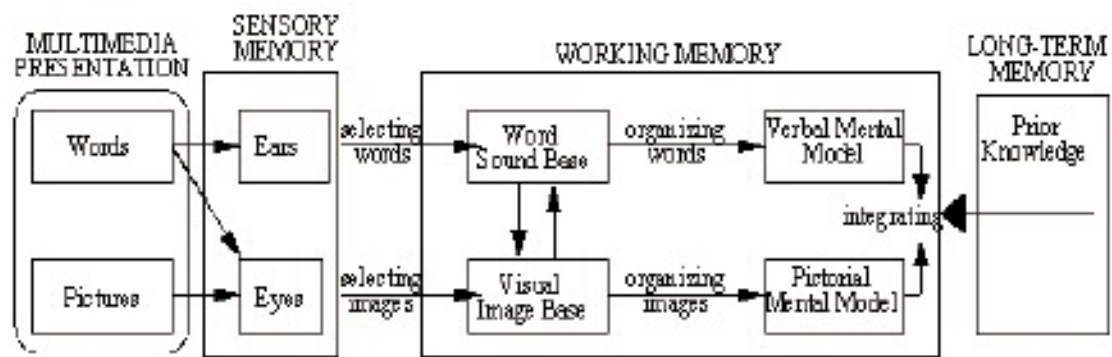


Figure 2. Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning. Taken from 'Multimedia Learning: guiding visoespatial thinking with instructional animations' (Mayer 2005b: 4)

On the other hand, Schnotz (2005) has proposed the Integrated Model of Text and Picture Comprehension, which attempts to account for "how individuals understand text and pictures presented in different sensory modalities". Following the dual-coding concept of Paivio, a verbal system and an image system, having different functions, are postulated for the human mind. Schnotz, however, departs from the dual-coding theory by suggesting that mental representations are formed both in text comprehension and in picture comprehension" (p. 54). When discussing the instructional implications of his model, he highlights the commonalities between his model and Mayer's, discarding any rule of thumb that may suggest that the sole fact of using multiple forms of representation through different sensory channels can automatically lead to effective multimedia learning. Contrary to that, Schnotz's model of multimedia learning is based on "an understanding of human perception and human cognitive processes, supported by empirical research" (p. 65). Then, these implications are aimed primarily at instructional material design, warning against the temptation to add irrelevant bells and whistles to multimedia learning environments" (p. 65). However, Schnotz departs from Mayer's in postulating three extra principles: the picture-text sequencing principle, the structural redundancy principle, and the general redundancy principle. The picture-text sequencing principle simply states that text cannot be presented simultaneously, the picture should be presented before the text. The structural redundancy principle is a long-term memory replicating effect in that it postulates that among several pictures to visualize the concept, the picture with the visualization that is most appropriate for solving future tasks should be chosen. Finally, the general redundancy principle claims that pictures and text should not be combined if learners have sufficient cognitive ability to build a mental model from either picture or text.

A concluding remark on these models of multimodal learning that appeals to the necessary learner's cognitive load comes from Schnotz (2002) as he asserts that "visuo-spatial text adjuncts and other forms of visual display are effective for communication, thinking, and learning only if they interact appropriately with the individual's cognitive load".

As with many a new area of instructional research and practice, these models and principles should be tested in real-world contextualized settings to prove their applicability. It is the purpose of this paper to set the grounds for further research in the field of teaching and learning English in Latinamerican environments so we can eventually adhere to Mayer's principles. I suggest that "as student interest in multimedia courses increases, learning tends to decrease because students are not learning in these courses requires less work" (Clark and fieldon 2005: 111).

1.2. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Multimedia and SLA.

In English language teaching and learning (ELTL) the field of computer assisted language learning (CALL) has become a focus for language teachers and researchers to approach the impact of ICT's in the classroom. Multimedia and CALL have been identified by Warschauer (2002) as one of the latest developments of CALL in what he called "integrative CALL", which includes the advent of multimodal software, hypermedia, Internet, www and CD-Roms. On the other hand, Chapelain (2002) has identified computer applications in three areas of SLA: computer-assisted second language learning, computer-assisted second language assessment, and computer-assisted second language research. Although most of her analysis is technical, she argues that the computer can be an aid in the three areas mentioned, her words when dealing with the issue of evaluation: "Tasks not intended to promote learning in more than an incidental way, but they should play a central role in L2 teaching.[...] For language learning tasks, the criteria of language learning potential should be considered the most important" (Chapelain 2002: 111).

Plass and Jones (2005) synthesize the concerns we have been dealing with so far, our interest in how students can benefit from multimedia, by integrating the models of multimedia learning and second language acquisition. For multimedia, they adopt Mayer's model of multimedia learning and for SLA they follow the interactionist model of Chapelle and take some elements from Ellis's model of SLA as they ask themselves the question: "In what ways can we support second-language acquisition by providing comprehensible input, facilitating meaningful interaction, and producing comprehensible output?" (Plass and Jones 2005:471). Their integrated model of SLA with multimedia addresses the cognitive processes involved and the possible strategies to support them using multimedia.

2. The impact of the multimodal/digital revolution on the processes of reading and writing

It is a fact that texts come in different formats and make use of different modes of communication. We live in the digital era in which the notion of text has changed dramatically. We are certain that as linguists or educators we have been interested in visualizing and analysing texts as a purely linguistic phenomenon. However, these texts should not be thought of or seen as such since most of them combine visual and written modes of representation. In this regard, Jewitt (2005: 317) states: "Until recently the dominance of image over word was a feature of text on screen: there are more images on screen and images are increasingly given a designed prominence over text." Along the same lines, she agrees that "Despite the multimodal character of screen-based texts and the changes in reading and production, reading educational policy and assessment continue to promote a linguistic view of language and reading" (p.330).

This revolution has been in the landscape of communication for quite a while. It has been taking place for many years now. If we look at the old textbooks, magazines and newspapers, we can see that they were covered with text. In contrast, the newspapers in 2007 combine images with text (Kress, 2000). All this means that as linguists, we should be aware of this, even more so about the effects that such a change has brought to reading and writing.

So far, the old theories of reading have been based on an ideal representation of text which highlights a linear presentation of information (Gough, 1985; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974, 1985; Samuels, 1985). This text was closed and finished. In this new scenario, our own conceptualizations about these processes seem old-fashioned and should be reviewed in order to re-address reading and writing from a multimodal perspective. In this sense, it is a call to our eyes towards the effects that multimodality has on reading and writing. In what follows, we will discuss the purpose of this article to cover all the discussion around these topics.

We assume that the reading of multimodal texts is a different process from the reading of print-based texts. Kress and van Leeuwen (1996, 2001) have challenged the notions of traditional literacy's emphasis on the growing dominance of multimodal texts and digital technology. This means that reading comprehension is not only printed-texts can not give an account on the way people process multimodal texts containing images and movement. According to Kress (1997, 2003), new types of texts require different conceptualisations and modes of thinking. This author also states that writing relies on the logic of speech while graphics rely on the logic of space. Consequently, the reading of visual information would involve quite a different process than the reading of text.

What comes next is related to the implications that multimodality has in the processes of reading and writing. When comparing and analyzing the way reading might be different when a reader reads a multimodal text as opposed to a monomodal text. The first thing to remember is that a multimodal text is one that combines different modes of information by making use of different formats. In other words, a multimodal text can be composed of images, text and sound among other modes. Walsh (2006) defines multimodal texts as "those texts that use multiple 'modes', so that meaning is communicated through a synchronisation of modes." Written text is only one mode of message and different modes are orchestrated together to make meaning. Within this new scenario, the reading comprehension process must be different to reading from print-based texts. In this way, Walsh (2006) summarizes similarities and differences between reading in a multimodal and a monomodal (print-based) environment. The following table summarizes these differences.

Reading print-based texts	Reading multimodal texts
Principal mode: The words that 'tell', including discourse, register, vocabulary, linguistic patterns, grammar. Arrangement and layout of chapters, paragraph and sentence structure, typography.	Principal modes: Visual images that 'show' including layout, size, shape, colour, line, position, perspective, screen, frames, icons, links, hyperlinks. Movement, sound, animation with graphics, video clips, voice-over, writing.
Use of senses: visual, some tactile	Use of senses: visual, tactile, hearing, kinaesthetic.
Interpersonal meaning: developed through verbal 'voice' –through use of dialogue, 1 st , 2 nd , 3 rd person narrator.	Interpersonal meaning: developed through 'voice': positioning, angle, perspective –'offer' and 'demands', and sound.
Verbal style: including tone, intonation, humour, irony, sarcasm, word play, developed in the use of 'words'.	
Typographical arrangement, formatting, layout, font, punctuation.	Visual style: choice and arrangement of motifs, angles, colour, graphics, animation, window frames, menu board, hyperlinks.
Verbal imagery: including description, images, symbolism, metaphor, simile, alliteration, poetic devices with words, sound patterns.	Visual imagery and sound effects: use of motifs, icons, repetition, with specific voice, music, sound effect.
Reading pathway: mostly linear and sequential. Reader mostly follows.	Reading pathway: use of vectors –non-sequential, non-linear. Reader has more choice and opportunity to interact.

Figure 3. Taken from "Differences between reading of print-based and multimodal texts". Walsh (2006)

Accordingly, Kress (2003) visualizes reading from multimodal texts as reading as semiosis. When speaking of the landscape of communication, Kress argues that there has been a move from 'telling' the world to 'showing' it. He mentions that this change points to a profound shift in the act of reading which, as he says, can be characterized as 'reading as interpreting' and 'reading as ordering'. The idea behind his statements is that we are no longer making meaning exclusively from written text nowadays. Then, from these differences we can infer that reading multimodal texts involves establishing different reading paths. To some extent, reading from a monomodal text is reading sequentially. On the contrary, when students (and readers in general) are exposed to hypertext, it is quite difficult to establish which reading paths they make use of. As a consequence, there are authors like Moreno (2003) who claim that multimedia texts impose a strong cognitive load upon the working memory. A model of multimodal principles would be, then, a model that identifies and evaluates the weaknesses and strengths of multimodal texts in terms of their potential for retention and transfer, two essential processes involved in learning and teaching.

2.1. Writing and hypertextuality

In relation to the effects that multimodality might have in order to understand the process of writing, several opinions are involved. For instance, Jewitt (2005) argues that print-based reading and writing have been affected by the increasing use of digital technologies. She states that this occurs because they require the interpretation and design of visual marks, space, colour, and increasingly image, and other modes of representation. She also points out that "the new technologies have opened up the potential of writing in ways that bring forth new configurations of image and writing on screen: font, border, and beyond" (Jewitt, 2005: 321). Currently, new technologies allow people to use many computer applications to write well. In fact, the advantages of word processing enable students to design and redesign their writings. They allow students to alter the page set up, to change the margins, to move from different font styles and sizes, to add images, and so on. The new Microsoft Word capabilities enable writers to combine different formats to present information. Whenever students make use of these new Microsoft Word affordances, they have to make choices and negotiations about the design of their writings. These include whether to use a given font or border and whether to add images from "clip art", among many others.

Besides, authors like Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, Couzijn & van den Bergh (2002) state that the main difference between hypertext and linear text lies on the way people structure the information. According to them, hypertext structures the information following a hierarchicalization process, while for linear writing a linearization process is used.

There are other authors like Clavijo and Quintana (2004) who visualize the affordances of hypertext as a tool for developing the writer's creativity. In this regard, they argue that the possibility of creating hypertext from a writing process traditionally centered and linear to a process which can enhance multilinearity have developed a project with English Pedagogy students in the Colombian University Francisco José de Caldas. They write "hyperstories" by making use of all the affordances that hypertext offers nowadays.

Along the same lines, Douglas (2007) highlights the potentiality of hyperstories. He calls them "interactive narratives" (narratives written in hypertext). According to him, hypertext narratives encourage readers to shape the meaning they read by the decisions they make in the reading process. In other words, people can create their own paths or selections that the software allows them to make. Some programs that are used for this are Apple's HyperCard and HyperStudio, among others in the market.

Some authors are positive about the effects that the digital change will bring to the process of reading and writing. Cassany (2000) points out that the writing of hypertexts will contribute to make the writing process more effective. He believes that the digital change will allow people to self-direct their writing by making use of the options that the digital platforms have to offer.

We think that writing hypertexts and hyperstories, which are only two of the multiple possibilities that exist, can contribute to improve the writing process of our students. It is now our responsibility as teachers to evaluate the effects of the new digital technologies on the processes of text comprehension and language production. The effects of digital change on writing is well summarized by Cassany (2000:4) in the following chart:

ANALOGICAL CONTEXT	DIGITAL CONTEXT
<p>Pragmatic context</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speakers: Speech community (local, national, discursive). Monoculturalism 2. Limited access to public and encyclopaedic resources 3. Presential world with physical coordinates. 4. Visual channel. Graphics language 5. Differed interaction, slow transmission, etc. 6. High costs <p>Discursive context</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Linearity. Unique path 8. Retroactive Intertextuality. Closed text. 9. Traditional genres: letter, report, invitation, book. 10. Sentence elaboration <p>Writing Process Context</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Slow Processing 12. Cognitive overload 13. Hetero-directed learning 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speakers: virtual communities (Virtual tribes). Cultural diversity. 2. Unlimited access. 3. Virtual and ubiquitous world. 4. Visual and auditory channels. Hyper or multim 5. Simultaneous interaction, instantaneous tran 6. Low costs. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Hipertextuality. Paths diversity. 8. Explicit Preactive Intertextuality : Links. Open 9. New genres: e-mail, Chat, web. 10. Specific registers, isolated syntagmata <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Efficient Processing: linguistic engineering. 12. Cognitive discharge. Emphasis on strategies. 13. Emphasis on self-directed resources.

Figure 4. Taken from "De lo analógico a lo digital. El futuro de la enseñanza de la composición" (Cassany, 2000:4)

3. Computers and minds: Technology-centered research vesus learner centered res

The motivations underlying the research related to Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) about the type of access that different cultural groups within a country have nowadays, finding out about sophistication in the equipments used and the type of training that professionals and students need in the state of the art, are some examples of the type of research that is centered on technology. Although motivation behind our own research is different. It aims at finding out about the potential impact of technology on learning, which means that our focus of attention is not on the technologies themselves but on how they are working, adjusting, benefiting from the exposure to ways of obtaining information that differ from the traditional ones.

The new modes that technology is offering invite us to think that new cognitions are needed on the part of those who are processing information and constructing knowledge in a non-traditional manner and who have emerged in the last decades now.

Are the new modes of presenting information making our youngsters' reading process more fluent and comprehension deeper than the traditional fat text?, Is their "little black box" benefiting from the hype of the new process of construction of knowledge? Are our screenagers (Brant 2003) reading faster, more fluently and

Are they becoming intellectually better equipped to interpret the broad ideational complexity of a text are also part of it? Do images and movement matter more than the printed, flat text alone? These are so questions that stem from our interest in learner-centered research in connection with the new technological literacies.

3.1. Re-visiting conceptions of language and learning

Throughout the history of linguistics and psychology the conceptions of "language" and "learning" have had their definition stem from the psychological and linguistic stance adopted at the moment. Brown (1973) in these attempts to characterize the concept of language, some of which are: language interpreted as system of symbols that are primarily vocal, language as communication. When defining the learning process, Brown covers a broad spectrum of possibilities. He provides several characterizations: as synonymous with acquisition, obviously a controversial definition for those who draw a thick line between the processes of language acquisition, learning as retention of information (with the obvious implication of placing memory and learning on at least as two sides of the same coin), learning as an active and conscious process. He does not leave out a definition that focuses on a change of behaviour.

McCarthy (2001) summarizes the controversial positions regarding the conceptions of language and learning nowadays. The strictly psycholinguistic perspective is based on the conception of language as an abstract system. The child in his role as "little linguist" is able to discover under the basic condition of having exposure to the language. Although psycholinguists do not necessarily neglect the role of the environment, their focus is on what is going on in the child's mind. The sociolinguistic perspective, on the other hand, overemphasizes the social function of language.

These apparently conflicting perspectives are reflected on the explanations given to the language learner's progress to its causative factors. On one hand, the human being's genetic predisposition and, on the other, the social environment, which is defined in terms of the help that "motherese", also called "care-taker speech", is given by the person who takes care of the child and that is addressed to him, seems to give to the child through simplification that characterizes it. The caretaker engages in social negotiation with the child by accommodating the form and content to the child's needs, co-constructing language.

3.2. Multimodality and Second Language Acquisition

When attempting to relate the multidisciplinary domains subsumed under multimodality and SLA, it is clear the current controversy between the strictly psycholinguistic stance and the sociolinguistic position. This is represented in the following quotes by Firth and Wagner and by Michael Long. Firth and Wagner's paper has received a lot of criticism and is the basis for the whole section on second language acquisition in the book by Long (2003). Their defense is not necessarily directed at the exclusion of a cognitive stance in favor of an exclusively social one. In fact, they contend that:

Our ultimate goal is to argue for a reconceptualization of SLA as a more theoretically and methodologically rigorous approach that endeavours to attend to, explicate, and explore, in more equal measures and, where possible, in both the SOCIAL and COGNITIVE dimensions of S/FL use and acquisition. (p.175)

In the same controversial article, these authors argue that:

Researchers working with a reconceptualised SLA will be better able to understand and explicate how language is being acquired through interaction, and used resourcefully, contingently, and contextually. Language is a cognitive phenomenon, the product of the individual's brain; it is also fundamentally a social phenomenon and used interactively, in a variety of contexts for myriad practical purposes. (p.190)

Michael Long, one of the several researchers who reacted against Firth and Wagner, responds:

Whether F & W like it or not (they do not), most SLA researchers view the object of inquiry as an internal mental process: the acquisition of new (linguistic) knowledge. And I would say, with good reason, that language (often) takes place in a social setting, of course, but then so do most internal processes -learning, sexual arousal, and digestion, for example -and that neither obviates the need for theories of the

the goal of inquiry to a theory of the settings. A theory of memory, for example, deals with such among the frequency and intensity of instances of the phenomena an individual experiences as remembered, storage and retrieval of same, and so on, but not, or not "centrally," at least, with an example, courtroom testimony or storytelling in a pub, during which memories are put to use. (

Although we adhere to the psycholinguistic position, which emphasizes the processes that occur in the believe that these two views do not have to be mutually exclusive, coinciding with Susan Gass (in Seid states that:

Views of language that consider language as a social phenomenon and views of language that reside in the individual do not necessarily have to be incompatible. It may be the case that some constructed socially, but that does not necessarily mean that we cannot investigate language as resides in the individual" (p.227)

The knowledge that the learner's little black box constructs is not constructed in a vacuum. We would with "others" as a necessary springboard which feeds the mental processes in the active mind of the learner where multimodality can play an important role. The use of multimedia presentations can contribute to the design of an immediate surrounding similar to those contexts where the mother and her "motherese" meanings with the child's mind. As a consequence, multimedia presentations can be an excellent means of "constructing" a pseudo-natural environment in which these negotiations of meaning that serve as the second language acquisition can take place.

Accompanying the interaction between teacher and second language learners with a combination of non-verbal (visuals and movement) and narration (not only on the part of the teacher but also from the animation) contexts to be used for developing all the components of communicative competence. Some of these are those rules of appropriateness that are better perceived and remembered when the relationship between the immediate context in which these rules and formulas of appropriateness occur are clearly shown to the learner. These are the modes that characterize our daily life.

Although sometimes used interchangeably, Mayer and Sims (1994) apply the concept of multimedia to the presentation of information through more than one medium and the concept of "multimodality" to the use of more than one sense. Thus, they state that:

Multimedia learning occurs when students use information presented in two or more formats - presented animation and verbally presented narration- to construct knowledge. In a strict sense, this is not the term "multimodal" (which refers to the idea that the learner uses more than one sense modality) but "multimedia" (which refers to the idea that the instructor uses more than one presentation medium).

The multimodality era goes beyond both the generative-psycholinguistic and the interactionist-social constructivist approaches to language learning to consider several extra-linguistic representational modes (verbal, visual, musical, and several media (books, CD-ROM, teacher's body, sound). The drastic change in perspective derives from technological advances and is of interest to all those professionals whose disciplines deal, directly or indirectly, with learning and communication.

Among the cognitively-oriented researchers whose focus of attention centers on the impact of multimodality on the mind of the learner, Schnotz (2002) emphasizes the need to study the interaction between visual and verbal modes of presentation and the individual's cognitive structures. He explains that visual modes of presentation may enhance communication processes as long as there is an adequate interaction with cognition. In other words, all different forms of presentation accompanying oral or printed texts constitute a good source of research on learning and communication. The study of direct or indirect factors intervening in the individual's mental processes.

3.3. Collocational and Sociolinguistic Competences

When Larsen-Freeman (2003:14) explains that "a great deal of our ability to control language is due to the fact that we are committed to memory thousands of multiword sequences, lexicogrammatical units or formulas that are stored in memory" Lewis (2000:177) acknowledges that "...proficiency in a language involves two systems, one formulaic and one creative."

they confirm what has already been contended by applied linguists with respect to the implications of the second language acquisition research in Linguistics; specifically, the notion that the input produced - orally and in writing - by expert users of a language is not only the result of rule application but also the reproduction of multiword sequences that the speakers use naturally.

Taking into account the correct terminology used in education in general, we would like to insist on the distinction between knowing something is the way it is (declarative knowledge) and knowing how to perform something well (procedural knowledge), which are two different things. Consequently, knowing that an important percentage of the language we teach is made up of prefabricated phrases that our students simply need to remember and use automatically does not necessarily help us discover the most effective way to go through the process conducive to that desired fluency and appropriateness in the use of prefabricated phrases.

Collocational competence (the use of canned speech) as well as sociolinguistic competence (rules of appropriateness) are two essential components of the very inclusive concept of communicative competence, require special didactic attention for the adequate presentation of rules and contexts but mainly for the necessary **retention** of information and that happens to be a prerequisite for the progressive automatization on the part of the students. Multimediality can provide the context that helps bring a bit of reality into the classroom. This is not the same thing as being in a natural environment. The aim of formal instruction is to replicate what happens in natural settings. We agree that the classroom cannot be a natural environment. In "the streets" as it were, the learner captures meanings in the totality of a series of interactions: s/he perceives gestures, where s/he hears noises and ideally listens to interlocutors and comprehends, and is aware of the broad field which is the framework behind the expression of meanings. Multimedia messages can provide a context through which meanings can be grasped in the totality of complex, "almost" real scenarios.

3.4. Practice versus noticing

As Lewis (2000) explains, when our methodology was based on behavioural and structural principles, the emphasis was on a means towards automatization via the drilling of patterns. His lexical approach, primarily characterized by the shift from the syntactic system of language to the formulaic system composed of prefabricated pieces, reformulated the condition for learning by changing the emphasis from practice into the need to encounter the new information. He explains his position saying that "a lexical approach suggests that it is repeated meetings with an item that leads to its acquisition which converts that item into intake." (p.171)

Lewis admits that the process of noticing is not easily defined. However, whether we call it "noticing", or "conscious attention given to" new information, this is a necessary but insufficient condition for learning. It may be using all his senses and concentration; however, if the information (rules or formulas to be memorized) is provided through many sources, it may result in overloading the learner's mind (cognitive load), which hinders learning. This is a good example of the relationship between modes of presentation and cognitive processing. Sweller (1995:320) explain that the so-called "split attention effect" occurs "when students must split their attention between multiple sources of information, which results in a heavy cognitive load." They make reference to some experiments that have been conducted in the area of geometry whose results have led them to posit that "effective working memory is maintained by presenting material in a mixed rather than a unitary mode."

3.5. How multimodality can accelerate classroom learning.

The classroom as a metaphor has received at least two different interpretations in terms of what its metaphorical function is: the classroom as an artificial setting that cannot possibly be compared to "being there", experiencing the language in a natural English speaking environment, on the one hand, and the classroom as a potential mirror of "the street" on the other.

Larsen-Freeman's (2003) "reflex fallacy" intends to teach us that it is a place not designed for emulating natural acquisition, but for improving what natural acquisition does for the learner. The second language learner should progress in a natural environment even if s/he engages in discovery procedures since the teacher's input and capabilities are limited. The potentially chaotic exposure s/he could get in a natural environment. She points out (p.20) that:

I have referred to this as the reflex fallacy (Larsen-Freeman, 1995), the assumption that it is our job to create artificial conditions in classrooms the natural conditions of acquisition present in the external environment. Instead, what we do as teachers, it seems to me, is to improve upon natural acquisition, not emulate it. Accelerating natural learning is not the purpose of formal education.

Multimedia presentations lend themselves to the adequate treatment of the formulaic component of L2 contextualization of the pragmatic and sociolinguistic aspect.

3.6. How multimodality can contribute to education

The cognitive perspective indicates that when the learner does not possess cognitive structures for the instead of absorbing the new information as we would expect, it happens to fall into a vacuum, leading to difficulties encountered by our less privileged students. Whether we teach chemistry, history, physics or a foreign language after puberty, we teachers are all to difficulties encountered by our less privileged students. Especially in heterogeneous classes or groups with mixed proficiency levels, we find it particularly hard to provide the tools needed when the "floor" is placed at very different levels.

Having to compensate for the lack of cognitive structures at least in some areas, together with the rudimentary verbal skills both in the first language and/or the second, constitute two of the many difficulties that we must face. A relevant implication that derives from Schnotz' view is that knowledge maps specially helpful for those with low prior knowledge and those whose verbal skills are also rather basic.

A final consideration has to do with the present-day reality of state-funded schools in Chile, some of which exist in the existence of highly deprived communities. In fact, the ultimate goal of public schools in Chile is to provide the necessary skills to enable them to have access to tertiary education in particular, and to social mobility.

Concluding remarks

The theoretical and practical implications presented in this paper seem to suggest that multimedia presentations constitute one way to do just that: compensating for absence of appropriate cognitive structures in certain communities because of the lack of opportunities that characterize certain communities and social groups- and also weak or incomplete development of verbal skills.

The research agenda calls for studies, among others, evaluating the principles of multimodal learning and multimedia designs as they affect the acquisition of reading, writing, speaking and listening in various multidisciplinary approach is needed to understand the social, cognitive, neurological, cultural and linguistic factors involved in processing multimodal discourse. Questions like the following can guide such agenda: which designs are more helpful for learners with different learning styles? As proficiency levels increase, are multimedia designs more appropriate? What is the impact of the audio, linguistic, visual, gestural and spatial meaning modalities on the learning process? How can educators integrate these dimensions into a semiotic model of language learning? This model be also critical so learners evaluate the implications of multimedia designs? How is hypertextual learning evaluated at the classroom level? Can teachers offer learners opportunities to select the processing modalities according to their learning style?

The lines of research reviewed here can set the grounds for empirical investigations into the various affordances that multimodality offers for the process of language learning. The quick pace of change in visually oriented presentations of information involves also a quick response from language teachers to take advantage of multimodality to engage learners in meaningful cognitive, social and critical understanding. The meaning-making potential of the various designs of multimodal discourse is an important component that can help language learners to cope more efficiently as they face new modes of information portrayal.

(Endnotes)

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