

This article has been published in a revised form in *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1366728921000948>. This version is free to view and download for private research and study only. Not for re-distribution or re-use. © The Author(s), 2021. Published by Cambridge University Press

Understanding the Interaction between Technology and the Learner: The Case of DLL

*Ping Li*¹ and *Yu-Ju Lan*²

¹ The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

² National Taiwan Normal University

In our Keynote Article (henceforth KA) we outlined the DLL framework for using cutting-edge digital technologies to enhance second language (L2) learning and representation. L2 is an excellent example for illustrating how the development of emerging technologies may intersect with education due to the complexity and relevant instructional practices involved. Although our KA had much to say about the different types of technologies (e.g., mobile learning, virtual reality, and digital games) and the impacts that they bring to L2 learning in particular and to education in general, our goal was to understand how the features/affordances of these technologies could be better applied to enhance L2 learning effectiveness. At the outset we considered the gaps in the literature as the starting points of our discussion, specifically, the mismatch between technological features and learner-specific characteristics. Without understanding how the technologies may be relevant to a given task (L2 learning in this case), the application of a new technology will be blind. At the same time, without understanding how the learner characteristics fit a given technology, the use of a technology will be fruitless.

The two sides of digital learning

Mayer's (2021) commentary hits on a critical point that we wish to use to anchor our responses here, that is, the interaction between the available technologies and the characteristics of the learner or user. He points out two different approaches toward digital learning and suggests that we put instructional methodologies before instructional technologies, that is, to

1
2
3 shift our focus from the specific media type (e.g., mobile phones, VR) to the design of digital
4
5 learning environments based on our knowledge of how students learn. We agree wholeheartedly
6
7 that we should ask the question of “how can we adapt today’s technologies to design effective
8
9 instructional methods for L2 learning?”, aiming at evidence-based design principles for effective
10
11 L2 learning and teaching. However, we believe that we need not shift from one end
12
13 (understanding what features of the technology are relevant) to the other (understanding what
14
15 methods are effective), but to study them together.
16
17
18

19 Indeed, the approach advocated by Mayer (2021) regarding instructional methods implies
20
21 strongly that we must understand the learners, their characteristics, and their cognitive, affective,
22
23 and neural differences that are brought to bear on the learning task. In our view, it is the
24
25 understanding of both sides of digital learning and their *interactions* that will lead to the most
26
27 productive and effective instructional design. We mentioned in several places of the KA the
28
29 concept of ‘affordances’ of today’s digital technologies, and how specific affordances may be
30
31 leveraged for better learning. Take, for example, learner autonomy, according to which the
32
33 digital tools can facilitate the learner’s (rather than the teacher’s) control in the learning
34
35 environment, where the student can maximize learning as a discovery process. This is an
36
37 example of the technology’s affordance to move from traditional teacher-centered to student-
38
39 centered method, which brings the media-based and method-based approaches together. Of
40
41 particular interest to note here is Mayer’s (2021) point regarding the utility of guided/directed
42
43 activity versus total self-exploration, where the understanding of enhanced joint social attention
44
45 and deep cognitive processing will be crucial for the effective use of technology (see further
46
47 discussion below).
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Increasingly more researchers are paying attention to the effects of motivation on
4 learning, for both children and adults (e.g. Chik & Ho, 2017; Sha et al., 2016), and DLL tools
5 and platforms are shown to enhance motivation and interest in learning and therefore increase
6 cognitive processing. In this regard, Caldwell-Harris (2021) points out that VR creates learning
7 environments that are inherently interesting for learners to explore, which helps to overcome
8 boredom during sustained efforts of learning. For example, when being immersed in VR,
9 learners' engagement is promoted through either person-to-person or environment-to-person
10 interactions (Lan et al., 2013; Lan et al., 2015); real-world-like situations can provide the learner
11 with hands-on experience through discovery explorations (see some examples illustrated in
12 Figure 1 of KA). We also agree with Chien and colleagues (2021) that components of the IDC
13 theory (Chan et al., 2006) may guide instructional designers to focus on the role of motivation. In
14 addition, the use of DLL can occur anytime and anywhere, especially through mobile devices,
15 consistent with the requirements of 'seamless learning' proposed by Chan et al. (2006).
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 Several commentators have echoed the exciting research avenues that the study of DLL
34 and the brain can bring. As we elaborated in section 4.4 of the KA, understanding the neural
35 substrates of DLL will not only provide further evidence on the impacts of DLL, but also a
36 window into how brain changes might reflect the various cognitive and social dimensions of
37 DLL. Chen (2021) further points out that understanding the brain's function and structure will
38 have direct implications for building brain-computer interfaces to enable AI-driven DLL tools.
39 Although our understanding in this regard remains rather limited, new exciting work is emerging
40 rapidly. Chen (2021) also articulates the need, along with Godwin-Jones (2021) and
41 MacWhinney (2021), to make DLL more complete by not only considering MALL, VR, and
42 GBLL, but also RALL (robot-assisted language learning), social media tools, captioned videos,
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Google maps and so on (MacWhinney, 2017; Presson et al., 2013; Sykes, 2017). As mentioned
4
5 by Chen, multiple language teaching approaches have been implemented by RALL, and it is
6
7 attracting attention from language educators and researchers particularly because of its ability to
8
9 integrate advanced AI technologies, including speech recognition, NLP, and machine learning
10
11 (Cheng et al., 2021). RALL could further broaden our perspectives on the interaction between
12
13 technology and the learner, with respect to both the cognitive, social, affective, and neural
14
15 dimensions (Table 1 in Chen's commentary), and the interface between technology and
16
17 instructional design (see Table 2 of Chen's commentary).
18
19
20
21

22 **Personalized learning through DLL**

23
24 In authentic DLL contexts, learners' learning logs accompanied by long-term portfolios
25
26 can be automatically saved and analyzed in DLL, to provide the basis for constructing student
27
28 models and precise and personalized progress indices. This is a promising direction for
29
30 integrating DLL with AI and big data analytics (see section 5 of KA). MacWhinney (2021)
31
32 paints a futuristic but highly plausible picture in which DLL could be implemented in this way to
33
34 fully realize DLL's potential, particularly through large-scale shared platforms to promote
35
36 personalized learning (see MacWhinney, 2017). To do so, it will require the storage and
37
38 automatic analyses of hundreds or thousands of users' data in terms of the learner's first
39
40 language (L1) background, history and habits of language use, cognitive abilities, social and
41
42 cultural preferences, and different proficiency levels (e.g., variables or dimensions assessed by
43
44 the LHQ3; Li et al., 2019). Only when such a shared platform is developed will we be able to
45
46 construct meaningful student models that contain information about the profiles of variation of
47
48 learning, background, motivation, and aptitudes, which will then allow us to track learner
49
50 progress and performance in real time. This will also enable a wide range of personalized
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 learning options that match with learners' needs, levels of knowledge, and available resources
4
5 for learning. Further, such a shared platform will provide a solid empirical foundation to ask and
6
7 answer theoretical questions such as whether there are fundamental differences in the
8
9 mechanisms or principles of learning between child L1 and adult L2 – Han (2021) and Spector
10
11 (2021) seem to suggest there are, while others debate this premise (e.g., Hernandez,
12
13 MacWhinney, & Li, 2005; MacWhinney, 2012).
14
15

16
17 Ma and Yan (2021) raise a similar point regarding the need to integrate large-scale
18
19 corpora of authentic language data with DLL tools and platforms for personalized learning. But
20
21 for this to occur, as also pointed out by MacWhinney (2021), it will require joint efforts and
22
23 collaborations among not only SLA researchers, linguists, and educators, but also efforts in
24
25 open-science platform building, cross-lab and cross-disciplinary data sharing (see a recent call by
26
27 Kriegeskorte & Douglas, 2018), along with online data collection and analytic tools which are
28
29 especially important under today's climate when in-person learning and teaching are affected by
30
31 the pandemic. A good example in this regard is the creation and expansion of the CHILDES data
32
33 exchange system since the 1980s (see <http://childes.talkbank.org/>), which contains not just
34
35 corpora and data, but also analytic frameworks, manuals, programs, scripts, tests, and metadata,
36
37 setting a successful example for the emerging SLABank for adult L2 learning (MacWhinney,
38
39 2017). Finally, such large-scale joint projects require the collaboration of key players not only
40
41 from academia but also instructional designers from the industry and policy makers from the
42
43 government, as discussed in a recent manifesto by Luan et al. (2020) on challenges and future
44
45 directions of big data and AI in education.
46
47
48
49
50

51 **A continuum of contextualized student-centered learning**

52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 A number of scholars comment that 1) total self-exploratory or discovery learning may
4 not be effective, at least not to some students (Lantolf, 2021; Mayer, 2021), and 2) exploratory
5 and contextualized activities for learning are not uncommon in today's classrooms for learning
6 L2 or other subjects. For example, Godwin-Jones (2021), Han (2021), and Lantolf (2021) all
7 point out that today's language classrooms value interactive, sociocultural learning and are not
8 necessarily based on teacher-centered, translation-focused learning pedagogies. We concur with
9 these points and wish to note that DLL does not in any principled way deny the important role of
10 directed instructions or the existence of interactive activities in L2 classrooms. Further, we wish
11 to highlight the 'continuum' along which contextualization is established or realized on different
12 learning platforms. In this regard, we argue that modern digital technologies have enabled new
13 capabilities of contextualizing learning, in ways well beyond reading or acting out a story in the
14 classroom. While no doubt adults can learn from other traditional media types and means (e.g.,
15 text reading remains the main medium of scientific knowledge acquisition; Hsu et al., 2019),
16 ample evidence has accumulated that students acquire language better through contextualized
17 learning, not only for children learning L1 (Kuhl et al., 2007; Lan et al., 2018) but also for adults
18 learning L2 (Li & Jeong, 2020).

19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40 As we discussed in the KA (section 4), DLL-based contextualized learning involves
41 embodiment and real-world social interaction, where physical or simulated bodily activities are
42 integrated within the learning task, which will also create integrated brain networks that enhance
43 memory retention and retrieval (see also Jeong et al., 2021; Lan, 2014; Li & Jeong., 2020). When
44 the learner is immersed in VR and games, contextualization is at the higher end of the continuum
45 (e.g., involving whole-body experience or physical simulation), as opposed to thinking about the
46 relevant context while reading a story (e.g., involving no physical participation but imagination
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 or mentalizing); in between, we have a variety of other media types that can provide different
4 levels of contextualized learning, from videos to desktop animations to 3D IMAX cinemas (see
5
6 Li et al., 2020). The best contextualized learning scenario is one that can enable adult L2
7
8 learning to occur like in child L1 learning, as we mentioned in the KA. Caldwell-Harris (2021)
9
10 points out that this can be achieved through content-and-language integrated learning, including
11
12 ‘learning by doing’ activities that target specific domains of interest (e.g., martial arts while
13
14 learning Chinese, soccer while learning Spanish, and opera singing while learning Italian).
15
16
17
18

19 We agree with Han (2021) and Lantolf (2021) that “student-centered learning” is not
20
21 new, but DLL provides a new way for implementing smartly guided student-centered learning,
22
23 especially for immature or struggling learners. Han (2021) specifically mentions instructed
24
25 second language acquisition (ISLA; Loewen & Sata, 2017) as a burgeoning field of study in this
26
27 regard, and in our view, ISLA can indeed benefit from the use of advanced technologies in the
28
29 digital era. This is particularly important if ISLA aims at catering to individual student needs and
30
31 personalized learning, as discussed (see also Lan, 2020). Pushing the continuum of
32
33 contextualized learning further, if the teachers are to use DLL to provide precise feedback and
34
35 suggestions based on real-time data and model, and the learning history and process, then task-
36
37 based language teaching can become more effective (see, for example, discussion on the role of
38
39 feedback in section 5 of KA). Going back to the central point in this article, contextualized
40
41 learning is only one side of the story; without understanding how variations of individual
42
43 learners and teachers may fit the context, it is not possible to answer the question of whether VR
44
45 is definitely better than organized classroom settings (to answer Lantolf). Empirical studies do
46
47 indicate that, other things being equal, adult learners are more willing to generate oral output and
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 interpersonal interactions in VR comparing to organized classroom settings, especially
4
5 concerning pragmatic skills (e.g. Lan, 2014, 2020; Liaw, 2019).
6

7 **Learner characteristics and individual differences**

8
9
10 It goes without saying that every learner is unique and different from others. How DLL
11 takes into consideration different learner characteristics and leverages technological affordances
12 for personalized learning is a topic of research with great future promises. Although the
13
14 technological advances in AI and big data are important as discussed in our KA (section 5),
15
16 whether and how DLL tools can lead to effective personalized learning will depend largely on
17
18 the degree to which we understand learners and their individual differences. As Godwin-Jones
19
20 (2021) correctly points out, without considering individual learner trajectories (e.g., proficiency,
21
22 learning style), generalizations about learning effectiveness can be dangerous.
23
24
25
26
27

28
29 With respect to individual differences we singled out cognitive abilities in working
30 memory and executive function in our KA discussion, given the prominent role that these
31 components have been implicated in L2 learning and representation in the literature (see Li,
32
33 2015; Wen et al, 2017). Further, not all students will benefit equally from the same technology or
34
35 even the same feature of a given technology, because different students may select, organize, and
36
37 integrate available information differently during learning. Our own studies showed that it is the
38
39 struggling learners rather than the successful learners who benefit more from VR platforms for
40
41 L2 learning (Legault et al., 2019), suggesting that technology-enhanced multimodal information
42
43 may differentially affect learners with different aptitude and capacity. In this regard, Ma and Yan
44
45 (2021) also call for better design of DLL tools and platforms for more advanced in addition to
46
47 beginning or novice learners. They further highlight the importance of teacher training and
48
49 education on adopting DLL technologies in their pedagogies and curricula.
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Other important learner factors with regard to the four dimensions outlined in our KA
4 could include the learner's age, gender, and cultural background and predispositions toward
5 technology. Puebla et al. (2021) showed that because of the cognitive and physical changes (e.g.,
6 declines in memory and vision), older adults are more resistant to the use of DLL tools,
7 especially mobile applications. Puebla and Garcia (2021) further comment on the need of tech
8 companies as well as instructional designers to develop DLL products that accommodate older
9 learners' abilities, attitudes, needs, preferences, expectations, and learning practices. We agree
10 completely with this call for attention to an increasingly large and important population,
11 especially given the rapid pace of aging in our societies (e.g., by United Nations' estimate, the
12 population aged 65 or older will grow to over 300 million by 2040 in China). To design DLL
13 tools that target older adults' learning experiences and demands will not only expand the student-
14 centered learning approach, but also help to realize the great potential of DLL for lifelong
15 learning for all.
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 Finally, although not between technology and the learner (a central focus of this article),
34 the dynamic interaction between the learner's L1 and the target L2 should also be taken into
35 consideration in designing DLL tools. As Spector (2021) points out, linguistic differences (e.g.,
36 tonality) that are specific to the L2 but not the L1 (or vice versa) should be carefully examined so
37 that DLL can be made adaptive to learners from different L1 backgrounds. A large amount of
38 psycholinguistic and neurolinguistic work has already examined how the overlapping L1 and L2
39 systems interact with each other in a dynamic system, especially with regard to the cascading
40 effects of L1 on L2 as a function of age, time, and linguistic overlap (Li, 2009, 2015; Tsao, Liu,
41 & Li, 2020; Yu et al., 2019), and the effects of transfer of learning from L1 to L2, both positively
42 and negatively (e.g., Kato, 2018; Yang et al., 2017). There have also been several influential
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 theoretical frameworks on how L2 speech learning may be impacted by L1 features, such as the
4 Speech Learning theory (Flege, 1995) and the Native Language Magnet theory (Kuhl, 2004).
5
6
7 DLL tools and platforms should aim at incorporating these theories and practices into their future
8
9 designs.

10
11
12 In conclusion, we acknowledge and appreciate the excellent points that the eleven
13
14 commentators have provided regarding the current and future promises of DLL (and the pitfalls),
15
16 and embrace their perspectives and proposed methods for fully realizing the DLL's potential. We
17
18 believe that the following statement from our KA article most accurately summarizes our main
19
20 point of view in this article: "We need a greater synergy between technology and human
21
22 characteristics – nowhere more than in education – and we must make our technologies be
23
24 adaptive to individuals' cognitive, social, affective, and linguistic abilities and profiles."
25
26
27
28
29

30 **References**

- 31
32 Caldwell-Harris, C (2021) The larger picture of engaged learning. *Bilingualism: Language and*
33
34 *Cognition*. (Commentary; this issue)
35
36
37 Chan, TW, Roschelle, J, Hsi, S, Kinshuk, Sharples, M, Brown, T, Patton, C, Cherniavsky, J, Pea,
38
39 R, Norris, C, Soloway, E, Balacheff, N, Scardamalia, M, Dillenbourg, P, Looi, CK, Milrad,
40
41 M, & Hoppe, U (2006) One-to-one technology-enhanced learning: An opportunity for global
42
43 research collaboration. *Research and Practice in Technology Enhanced Learning* 1, 3–29.
44
45
46 Chen, NS (2021) The theory, pedagogy, technology and design issue in Digital Language
47
48 Learning (DLL). *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*. (Commentary; this issue)
49
50
51 Cheng, YW, Wang, Y, Yang, YF, Yang, ZK, & Chen, NS (2021) Designing an authoring system
52
53 of robots and IoT-based toys for EFL teaching and learning. *Computer Assisted Language*
54
55 *Learning* 34(1-2), 6–34.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Chien, TC, Hung, HC, Ku, YM, Wu, D, & Chan, TW (2021) Some thoughts on extending digital
4 language learning research. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*. (Commentary; this
5 issue)
6
7
8
9
10 Chik, A, & Ho, J (2017) Learn a language for free: Recreational learning among adults. *System*
11
12 69, 162–171.
13
14 Flege, JE (1995) Second language speech learning: Theory, findings, and problems. In W
15 Strange (ed.), *Speech perception and linguistic experience: Issues in cross-language*
16
17 *research*. Baltimore, MD: York Press, pp. 233–277.
18
19
20
21 Godwin-Jones, R (2021) Expanding and contextualizing digital language learning. *Bilingualism:*
22
23 *Language and Cognition*. (Commentary; this issue)
24
25
26 Han, Z (2021) Digital language learning and SLA. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*.
27
28 (Commentary; this issue)
29
30
31 Hsu, CT, Clariana, R, Schloss, B, & Li, P (2019) Neurocognitive Signatures of Naturalistic
32
33 Reading of Scientific Texts: A Fixation-Related fMRI Study. *Scientific Reports* 9(1), 10678.
34
35
36 Hernandez, A, Li, P, & MacWhinney, B (2005) The emergence of competing modules in
37
38 bilingualism. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 9, 220–225.
39
40 Jeong, H, Li, P, Suzuki, W, Kawashima, R, & Sugiura, M (2021) Neural mechanisms of
41
42 language learning from social contexts. *Brain and Language* 212, 104874.
43
44
45 Kato, M (2018) Exploring the transfer relationship of summarizing skills in L1 and L2. *English*
46
47 *Language Teaching* 11(10), 75–87.
48
49
50 Kriegeskorte, N, & Douglas, P (2018) Cognitive computational neuroscience. *Nature*
51
52 *Neuroscience* 21, 1148–1160.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Kuhl, PK (2004) Early language acquisition: Cracking the speech code. *Nature Reviews*
4
5 *Neuroscience* 5, 831–843.
6
7
8 Kuhl, PK (2007) Is speech learning ‘gated’ by the social brain? *Developmental Science* 10, 110–
9
10 120.
11
12 Lan, YJ (2014) Does Second Life improve Mandarin learning by overseas Chinese
13
14 students? *Language Learning & Technology* 18(2), 36–56.
15
16
17 Lan, YJ (2020) Immersion, interaction and experience-oriented learning: Bringing virtual reality
18
19 into FL learning. *Language Learning & Technology* 24(1), 1–15.
20
21
22 Lan, YJ, Fang, SY, Legault, J, & Li, P (2015) Second language acquisition of Mandarin Chinese
23
24 vocabulary: Context of learning effects. *Educational Technology Research & Development*
25
26 63(5), 671–690.
27
28
29 Lan, YJ, Hsiao, IYT, & Shih, MF (2018) Effective learning design of game-based 3D virtual
30
31 language learning environments for special education students. *Educational Technology &*
32
33 *Society* 21, 213–227.
34
35
36 Lan, YJ, Kan, YH, Hsiao, IYT, Yang, SJH, & Chang, KE (2013) Designing interaction tasks in
37
38 Second Life for Chinese as a foreign language learners: A preliminary
39
40 exploration. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology* 29, 184–202.
41
42
43 Lantolf, J (2021) A cultural-historical perspective on digital language learning. *Bilingualism:*
44
45 *Language and Cognition*. (Commentary; this issue)
46
47
48 Legault, J, Zhao, J, Chi, YA, Chen, W, Klippel, A, & Li, P (2019) Immersive virtual reality as an
49
50 effective tool for second language vocabulary learning. *Languages* 4(1), 13.
51
52
53 Li, P (2009) Lexical organization and competition in first and second languages: Computational
54
55 and neural mechanisms. *Cognitive Science* 33, 629–664.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Li, P (2015) Bilingualism as a dynamic process. In B MacWhinney & W O'Grady (eds.),
4
5 *Handbook of language emergence*. Malden, MA: John Wiley & Sons, pp. 511–536.
6
7
8 Li, P, & Jeong, H (2020) The social brain of language: Grounding second language learning in
9
10 social interaction. *npj Science of Learning*, 1–9.
11
12 Li, P, Legault, J, Klippel, A, & Zhao, J (2020) Virtual reality for student learning:
13
14 Understanding individual differences. *Human Behaviour and Brain* 1, 28–36.
15
16
17 Li, P, Zhang, F, Yu, A, & Zhao, X (2019) Language History Questionnaire (LHQ3): An
18
19 enhanced tool for assessing multilingual experience. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*
20
21 23, 938–944.
22
23
24 Liaw, ML (2019) EFL Learners' Intercultural Communication in an Open Social Virtual
25
26 Environment. *Educational Technology & Society* 22 (2), 38–55.
27
28
29 Liu, H, Tsao, F, & Li, P (eds.) (2020) *Speech perception, production and acquisition:*
30
31 *Multidisciplinary approaches in Chinese languages*. Singapore: Springer Nature.
32
33
34 Loewen, S, & Sata, M (2017) Instructed second language acquisition (ISLA): An overview. In S
35
36 Loewen & M Sato (eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Instructed Second Language*
37
38 *Acquisition*. Routledge, pp. 1–12.
39
40
41 Luan, H, Geczy, P, Lai, H, Gobert, J, Yang, S, Ogata, H, Baltes, J, Guerra, R, Li, P, & Tsai, C
42
43 (2020) Challenges and future directions of big data and artificial intelligence in education.
44
45 *Frontiers in Psychology* 11, 580820.
46
47
48 Ma, Q, & Yan, J (2021) How to empirically and theoretically incorporate digital technologies
49
50 into language learning and teaching. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*. (Commentary;
51
52 this issue)
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 MacWhinney, B (2012) The logic of the unified model. In S Gass & A Mackey (eds.), *The*
4
5 *Routledge handbook of second language acquisition*. New York: Routledge, pp. 211–227.
6
7
8 MacWhinney, B (2017) A shared platform for studying second language acquisition. *Language*
9
10 *Learning* 67, 254-275.
11
12 MacWhinney, B (2021) The future of DLL. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*.
13
14 (Commentary; this issue)
15
16
17 Mayer, RE (2021) Instructional media and instructional methods in digital language learning:
18
19 Are we asking the right questions? *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*. (Commentary;
20
21 this issue)
22
23
24 Presson, N, Davy, C, & MacWhinney, B (2013) Experimentalized CALL for adult second
25
26 language learners. In JW, Schwieter (ed.), *Innovative research and practices in second*
27
28 *language acquisition and bilingualism*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 139–164.
29
30
31 Puebla, C, Fievet, T, Tsopanidi, M, & Clahsen, H (2021) Digital language learning in older
32
33 adults: Chances and challenges. *ReCALL* (in press).
34
35
36 Puebla, C, & Garcia, J (2021) Advocating the inclusion of old adults in digital language learning
37
38 technology and research: Some considerations. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*.
39
40 (Commentary; this issue)
41
42
43 Sha, L, Schunn, C, Bathgate, M, & Ben-Eliyahu, A (2016) Families support their children’s
44
45 success in science learning by influencing interest and self-efficacy. *Journal of Research in*
46
47 *Science Teaching* 53, 450-472.
48
49
50 Spector, J (2021) Remarks on Digital Language Learning: Insights from Behavior, Cognition,
51
52 and the Brain. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*. (Commentary; this issue)
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Sykes, J (2017) Technologies for teaching and learning intercultural competence and
4
5 interlanguage pragmatics. In CA Chapelle & S Sauro (eds.), *Technology and second*
6
7 *language teaching and learning*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, pp. 118–133.
8
9
10 Wen, Z, Biedrn, A, & Skehan, P (2017) Foreign language aptitude theory: Yesterday, today and
11
12 tomorrow. *Language Teaching* 50, 1–31.
13
14 World Health Organization and the US National Institute on Aging (2011) *Global health and*
15
16 *aging*. Retrieved from https://www.who.int/ageing/publications/global_health.pdf.
17
18
19 Yang, M, Cooc, N, & Sheng, L (2017) An investigation of cross-linguistic transfer between
20
21 Chinese and English: A meta-analysis. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign*
22
23 *Language Education* 2, 15.
24
25
26 Yu, K, Li, L, Chen, Y, Wang, R, Zhang, Y, & Li, P (2019) Effects of native language experience
27
28 on Mandarin lexical tone processing in proficient second language learners.
29
30
31 *Psychophysiology* 56, e13448.
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60