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Abstract

This thesis investigates the use of short videos as pedagogical tools in lower secondary school in Norway. The thesis raises research questions regarding teachers’ use of short video in EFL, teacher and student attitudes to video teaching, and student responses to being taught contemporary race issues through short video.

Data in this study were obtained through mixed method research. Firstly, quantitative data were gathered through an online teacher questionnaire in which 39 lower secondary EFL teachers in the Stavanger area participated. Secondly, a small-scale case study in a tenth grade class measured students’ attitudes to videos and their reaction to being taught contemporary race issues through qualitative methods such as teacher intervention and focus group interviews. The case study involved the researcher teaching three consecutive lessons about race using two types of short videos: two news broadcasts and one documentary.

This study has found that the main intentions that the teachers have when using short videos in EFL teaching are to differentiate their teaching, motivate students, and vary lessons. Content wise, teachers use videos to promote cultural insight and to expose students to authentic language, with communicative competence, listening comprehension and vocabulary learning as desired learning outcomes.

Among the positive impacts of short videos, teachers have experienced their students being motivated, engaged and remembering content better than through traditional textbook teaching. In addition, teachers report that students who struggle with comprehension benefit from the visual element in a video, thus reinforcing Paivio’s notion that visual stimuli reinforces verbal understanding (Paivio et al. 1980). The most prominent challenges accounted for were the demanding and sometimes inappropriate language of authentic videos found on the Internet, as well as technological issues such as unreliable video presentation tools.

What has come to light in this study is that videos are being used mostly as supplements or illustrations to the textbook with the intention of filling the gap between what the curriculum demands and the textbook offers. This use of videos gives the impression that teachers do not incorporate short videos as texts into the subject syllabus and assessment, thus indicating that many teachers do not regard videos as being of equal educational value as written texts in English teaching.
This study has found that students being familiar with YouTube through home usage brings both benefits and challenges into the EFL classroom. On the one hand, this can lead to higher intrinsic motivation because being able to understand what they are viewing is transferrable to their personal lives. On the other hand, students will often associate YouTube and video viewing in general with entertainment and relaxation, making it challenging for teachers to clearly distinguish educational and recreational use of the resource in their teaching.

The students in this study were mostly positive towards learning with short videos, and believed that they learn more, focus better, and remember content longer by viewing video as opposed to reading written texts in English lessons. The students also indicated that a haphazard use and over- or misuse of video in the classroom results in the teaching tool losing its appeal to them.

The students reported that being taught race through the news and documentary in the case study provided them with new perspectives on race issues. The student responses indicated that a combination of representing race from the perspective of the past and present, as well as incorporating several viewpoints, first-hand experiences, and relating issues to their own lives are effective approaches to teaching race.

In view of the results of this research, videos have promising potential for teaching race that goes beyond the English subject as the combination of communicative competence obtained from viewing authentic video and the cultural competence gained through learning about race stretches far in meeting the Core Curriculum’s ideals of democratic involvement and co-citizenship. This study has contributed to create an awareness of the need for more teacher training in new forms of literacy and raised some interesting questions about the implications of teaching contemporary race issues in Norway.
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1. Introduction

1.1. Aims

The aims of this thesis are twofold. Firstly, it aims to investigate the use of short videos as pedagogical tools in English language teaching (ELT) by mapping out the situation in lower secondary schools in the Stavanger area. Secondly, a case study in a tenth grade class English as a foreign language (EFL) class sets out to examine students’ attitudes towards video teaching and how they respond to being taught about race by means of videos from the video-sharing site YouTube.

The research aims are thus formulated as follows:

- How are short videos currently used in lower secondary EFL classrooms in the Stavanger area?

- What are lower secondary teachers’ attitudes towards short videos and what educational challenges and benefits have they experienced when using short videos in their English teaching?

- What are lower secondary students’ attitudes towards video teaching in EFL?

- How do Norwegian lower secondary students respond to being taught race using short videos from YouTube?

1.2. Background

In this thesis, a short video is defined as a video lasting less than 35 minutes. In her study of the use of video in Norwegian lower secondary English teaching, Lialikhova (2014) found that even though the teachers in her study used feature films most often, lessons containing video segments
of up to 35 minutes seemed most effective. Expanding on her findings, this thesis will examine the effects of videos lasting less than 35 minutes, and in the case study move more specifically towards their use when teaching about contemporary race issues.

Video is not a new invention, nor is it a new form of classroom material. What is constantly evolving, however, is how we access it, the amount of video material that is available, and the way it is increasingly being used for different purposes in education and other areas of society. Marc Prensky (2012: 139) claims that much of what we now do through written text will be replaced by short video in the future, and that it is therefore important to use video as widely as written text in education. Thus, Prensky (2012: 69) believes that one of the greatest challenges in education today is bridging the gap between “digital native” students who have grown up immersing themselves in digital technology, and their “digital immigrant” teachers who have to varying degrees acquired digital knowledge at a later stage in life (Prensky 2012: 69).

In her 2003 book *Using Authentic Video in the Language Classroom*, Sherman states that “video is today’s medium.” (Sherman 2003: 2) Even though this is a good foundational source on the use of video in language teaching, tremendous changes have occurred since 2003 in the way we use and access video, with one of the most distinct developments being the role of the video-sharing website YouTube. Since its creation in 2005, YouTube has developed into the largest video-sharing platform in the world, being accessible to 95% of the world’s Internet population and having over one billion users (YouTube 2016a, 2016c). Videos from YouTube are now a part of most young peoples’ “heavy media diet” (Kavoori 2011: 7).

Today, 97% of Norwegian households have Internet connection, and more young people are using phones as opposed to computers to connect to the Internet (Statistisk Sentralbyrå 2015). This shows that young people are accustomed to having an unlimited amount of information at their hands anywhere and at all times. Therefore, it is important that educators adhere to this development and are able to integrate various digital media into classroom practice by using what is familiar to the students, and at the same time teaching them how to critically evaluate the unlimited array of information they encounter through them.

Viewing a video involves reading and interpreting visual text. Videos are defined as multimodal texts, which means that material is presented in both verbal and pictorial form (Mayer 2005: 2). The *LK06* English subject curriculum takes the growth of information technology and the expanded definition of text into consideration in the *Purpose* section. This section states that,
“learning occurs while encountering a diversity of texts, where the concept of text is used in the broadest sense of the word.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 2) Furthermore, as part of the LK06 curriculum, The Framework for Basic Skills (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2012) outlines reading as one of the five basic skills that should be integrated in every subject: writing, reading, numeracy, and oral and digital skills. Texts, according to the Framework, “include everything that can be read in different media, including illustrations, graphs, symbols or other modes of expression.” (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2012: 8) This broad understanding of text gives both justification and support for the use of videos as multimodal texts in the classroom.

Several approaches to language learning have influenced the work of educators over the past decades. Up until the 1960s the grammar-translation method was the most common method for teaching English in Norway and in Europe. This approach stressed the importance of accuracy and consisted of learning the rules of the language and translating texts into the native language (Drew and Sørheim 2009: 23). During the 1950s and 60s, a new approach known as the audio-lingual method was introduced. This method was based on principles of behaviorism and had a structuralist view of language. The main focus of this method was listening and speaking through imitation and practice, often giving learners’ own production of language less priority (Drew and Sørheim 2009: 25-26).

In the 1970s a communicative approach to language learning emerged. This approach is based on the assumption that students need meaning-based language content that resembles real language use. Advocates for communicative language teaching believe that the ability to communicate with language is more important than correctness. One of the main theorists behind this approach was Dell Hymes, who coined the term “communicative competence.” He stated that a language contains “[…] rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless” (Brumfit and Johnson 1979: 15). Therefore, having communicative competence involves being able to take socio-cultural factors into consideration and use language appropriately in various situations.

As communicative methods of English teaching gained momentum in Norwegian classrooms, new textbooks with more communicative content were introduced with the aim of developing students’ communicative competence (Drew and Sørheim 2009: 26). The Norwegian government initiative to strengthen language learning in schools, Språk Åpner Dører (Language Opens Doors), claims that English language teaching in Norway should be as practical as possible
and should enable students to put the language into use from the first lesson. The publication claims that knowing how to use the language is more important than having knowledge about it (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2007: 8).

Communicative tasks aim to mirror authentic real-life communication situations, where the content of the communication is more important than a particular language form. Communicative activities should have a clear purpose and the students should have a desire to communicate something (Harmer 2007: 69 -70). By working with short authentic videos, teachers can develop students’ communicative competence by exposing them to varied language in its everyday use, and facilitating the use of language to discuss topics of importance in the target-culture.

Communicative language teaching aims to use authentic material. This is present in the LK06 English subject curriculum as it states that digital skills as part of the basic skills involves using digital resources “[…] to experience English texts in authentic situations, meaning natural and unadapted situations.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 5) According to Sherman (2003: 3), authentic target-language encounters cannot be experienced through a textbook, but she considers video a viable substitute for interaction with the English-speaking world. The LK06 English curriculum states that the main objectives of the English subject in Norway are to create communicative language skills and cultural competence, and that this combination will “promote the general education perspective and strengthen democratic involvement and co-citizenship.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 2) Thus, the value put on communicative competence in Norway makes teaching English with authentic video all the more relevant.

Racial literacy skills can contribute to the achievement the ideal of cultural competence and co-citizenship for Norwegian students. This involves being able to discuss, identify, respond to and resist racism (Nakagawa and Arzubiaga 2014: 107). The traces of the concept of racial literacy are present in several curricular documents and on different levels of the LK06 curriculum. Firstly, the general part of the LK06 curriculum states that, “Education should counteract prejudice and discrimination, and foster mutual respect and tolerance between groups with differing modes of life” and “[…] develop resolve to assert one’s rights and those of others, and to stand up against their violations.” (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2006: 10) Racial literacy is also featured in specific competence aims of the English subject curriculum when it states that
students should be able to “demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups.” (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2006)

According to DiAngelo (2012: 4), most of people who believe they are “white” are racially illiterate, and the reason for this is that they have not been given direct and elaborate information about race, and therefore are not able to consciously recognize and understand it. It is therefore interesting to investigate how Norwegian lower secondary students, most of whom are not racially literate in DiAngelo’s terms, respond to being taught race. Moreover, it is interesting to examine how the features of short videos and information technology can either facilitate or hinder students’ road to racial literacy.

1.3. Materials and methodology

The research data in this thesis were collected through a mixed method approach: quantitative research was carried out through a teacher questionnaire, while qualitative data was collected through a case study involving student focus group interviews.

The questionnaire was an electronic survey sent to a number of lower secondary school English teachers in the Stavanger area. This was done in order to map out how the teachers used short videos in their teaching and to get insights into their experiences and attitudes towards it.

In addition to the teacher survey, a case study was carried out in a tenth grade EFL class. The main focus of the lessons was to teach students about contemporary race issues in the USA through the use of short video. This involved the researcher teaching three consecutive 60-minute lessons using two types of videos of different lengths: 30 minutes of the documentary White People, and two different news broadcast videos from NBC and Fox News, lasting roughly two minutes each. Activities such as discussions and worksheets were used as pre-, while- and post-viewing activities. All of the three videos were retrieved from the video-sharing site YouTube, which contains both user-created content and mainstream media contents. This thesis will focus mostly on the latter.

After the lessons, focus group interviews were carried out in groups of 3-4 students where students were asked about their prior experience with short videos and YouTube in and outside the classroom, their attitudes towards using video in ELT, as well as questions directly related to their thoughts about the lessons conducted by the researcher.
1.4. Thesis Outline

The thesis is divided into six chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 gives an overview of existing theory on the use of video as a pedagogical tool, and how video can help students develop skills in different forms of literacy such as critical media literacy, visual literacy and racial literacy. Chapter 3 provides a description and discussion of the methods and materials used in the study, in addition to outlining ethical considerations such as confidentiality and anonymity and the limitations of the research. A presentation of the findings obtained from the teacher questionnaire and focus group interviews is done in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 discusses the findings by comparing and contrasting the results obtained by the student interviews and the teacher questionnaire, also relating this to concepts described in the theory chapter. Chapter 6 sums up the thesis, draws conclusions on the findings and makes suggestions for further research.
2. Theory

2.1. Introduction

This thesis will focus on the use of authentic short videos in the EFL classroom, and specifically their use in teaching about race in Norwegian lower secondary school. Short videos are in this thesis understood to be different types of videos that are not feature length videos. The video categories that will be examined in more depth are news segments and documentaries lasting up to 35 minutes. This time frame is based on the findings of Lialikhova (2014: 3), that stated that the most effective use of video happened with segments up to 35 minutes. The study will further concentrate on YouTube as a resource for acquiring and presenting short videos in the ELT classroom. YouTube contains a mix of mainstream media and user created content. This thesis will focus mostly on the mainstream media that can be found on YouTube.

This chapter will begin with a discussion of the current curriculum and the document *Fremtidens Skole*. Then, the various types of literacy related to race and teaching with videos are explored. Since this thesis will focus on the use of video for teaching contemporary race issues, a section is devoted to concepts related to culture and race in language learning, and will relate this to digital media and YouTube. Lastly, the chapter examines various aspects of using authentic videos in language learning, and provides an overview of a selection of literature on the benefits and challenges of using short videos.

2.2. The present and the future: the LK06 Curriculum and *Fremtidens Skole*

The current Norwegian curriculum is a part of the educational reform of 2006, *The National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion in Primary and Secondary Education and Training (LK06)*. The LK06 curriculum contains *The Core Curriculum, The Quality Framework, Subject Curricula, Distribution of Teaching Hours per subject, and Individual Assessment*. Integrated in and adapted to all subjects in the curriculum are the five basic skills: reading, writing, numeracy,
oral skills and digital skills, which are outlined in the *Framework for Basic Skills*. The English subject curriculum contains four main subject areas that should overlap and be considered together: *Language learning, Oral communication, Written communication, and Culture, society and literature*.

This subsection aims to place the topic of the thesis into the Norwegian context by reviewing the *LK06* curriculum and the document *Fremtidens Skole* (2015) in relation to the teaching of English with short videos in general, as well as how these documents position themselves in terms of teaching race. Within the *LK06*, the focus will be mostly on *The Core Curriculum, Framework for Basic Skills* and *The English Subject Curriculum*, where the competence aims for the English subject after year 10 will be given the most attention.

Viewing a video involves reading a visual text. The importance of being literate in a wide variety of texts is illustrated in several sections of the *LK06* curriculum. Firstly, *The Framework for Basic Skills* terms reading a basic skill, stating that: “to read involves engaging with texts” and defining text as “everything that can be read in different media, including illustrations, graphs, symbols or other modes of expression.” (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2012: 8) This broad understanding of “text” gives both justification and support for the use of videos as multimodal texts in the classroom.

Moreover, the ability to interpret and use a variety of texts is mentioned several times in the English subject curriculum. As in the *Framework for Basic Skills*, the English subject curriculum also considers “text” in a broad sense and calls for the use of “oral and written representations in different combinations and a range of oral and written texts from digital media” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 2) in the English subject. In addition, as part to the subject area *Oral communication*, the English subject aims students to be able to understand different types of oral texts and understand English in authentic situations (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 9). Not only does this suggest that videos are an important part of language learning, it also indicates that using videos containing native language usage is beneficial for students’ oral communication skills.

The *LK06* curriculum deals with teaching race both directly and indirectly throughout its sections. Firstly, the *Core Curriculum* addresses the role that schools have in teaching racial tolerance across all subjects: “Education should counteract prejudice and discrimination, and foster mutual respect and tolerance between groups with differing modes of life.” It expands this
statement by claiming that it is also the educational institutions’ responsibility to teach students how to react to instances of prejudice and discrimination by “develop[ing] resolve to assert one’s rights and those of others, and to stand up against their violation.” These principles are some of the main components of racial literacy. Secondly, the Purpose section of the English subject curriculum states that the combination of communicative language skills and cultural competence strengthens democratic involvement and co-citizenship (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 2).

In terms of teaching race, the learning objectives in the subject area Culture, society and literature in the LK06 English subject curriculum for lower secondary aim to “[...] develop knowledge about, understanding of and respect for the lives and cultures of other people.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 4) One of the competence aims states that students should learn about the history and geography in Great Britain and USA, while another aim states that students should “describe and reflect on the situation of indigenous peoples in English-speaking countries.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 9) As the histories of many English-speaking countries are undisputedly ones of racial oppression, teaching about indigenous peoples’ history in lower secondary English will inevitably deal with race to some extent. In addition to the objectives on historical knowledge, the subject area also calls for dealing with contemporary topics (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 10).

Under the subject area Oral communication, teaching race is represented through a language-centered objective, namely that the students should be able to “demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups.” This objective is relevant in terms of teaching race as the knowledge of derogatory terms can inform students of the vocabulary of race and how certain words contribute to a negative classification of specific individuals and groups.

Being racially literate involves thinking critically about race. Critical thinking skills are featured in several of the curricular documents. In the subject area Culture, society and literature in the English subject curriculum for lower secondary school, phrases such as “discuss and elaborate” and “describe and reflect” express that the students should not only have concrete factual knowledge about English speaking cultures, but also be able to look at issues from different angles and express their own feelings and opinions on various issues. By focusing on these skills in tenth grade, the students will be better equipped when they start upper secondary school, where discussion skills are an even more prominent feature of the curricula. For instance,
under the subject area *Culture, society and literature* in the English subject curriculum for VG1 (VG2 vocational programs) 6 out of 7 competence aims include the verb “discuss” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 11).

The publication *Fremtidens Skole* (2015) sheds light on the Norwegian school system and how it needs to a larger extent prepare students for a society in constant change by providing students with competences for the future. This entails a renewal of subjects by creating a holistic approach to tackling developments such as cultural diversity by fostering democratic understanding, respect for difference and positive attitudes towards co-citizenship (NOU 2015: 21). According to the authoring commission, an evaluation of the *LK06* curriculum shows that the concept of basic skills has been approached in narrower terms than first intended. They argue that replacing the term “basic skills” with the concept of “competences” will result in a more comprehensive approach to what the students across all subjects (NOU 2015: 35).

The main challenges that the document deals with are the various societal changes that occur as results of globalization. The ability to communicate and cooperate across cultural borders is an important competence for individuals in societies characterized by a diversity of religions, beliefs and values (NOU 2015: 29). *Fremtidens Skole* recognizes the benefits of bilingualism and cultural diversity, but states that this cultural complexity has shown to create tension in the Norwegian society (NOU 2015: 19). The report therefore views competences that make students equipped to combat cultural conflict as a necessity in Norwegian schools.

Another competence area that *Fremtidens Skole* deals with is critical thinking skills. In a globalized society this involves being able to view matters from different perspectives and be able to recognize and reflect on the existence of differing opinions (NOU 2015: 30). This area also involves the importance of critically evaluating information encountered when using information technology.

Both the current curriculum and *Fremtidens Skole* make the case for teaching race both historically and from a current point of view, and open up for a stronger focus on new forms of literacy. Despite the intentions of the current curriculum on these areas, the authoring commission of *Fremtidens Skole* expresses the need for a more comprehensive and interconnecting approach to educating students for the future.
2.3. New literacies

When dealing with the use of short videos in the classroom, we are simultaneously dealing with different types of literacy. Traditionally, the concept of literacy is often thought of as learning the mechanics of reading and writing. In the words of Kellner and Share (2005: 369), literacy “comprises gaining competences involved in effectively learning and using socially constructed forms of communication and representation.” The concept of literacy has been widely expanded and can, according to Seppänen, Ahonen, and Clarke (2006: 4), refer to “any skill whatsoever.” Especially with the technology advancements of the 21st century, the concept of literacy has increased its scope to cover various skills needed to understand and use a wide range of written and oral communication. This thesis will focus on some of the “literacies” that can be associated with using short videos, and more specifically using short videos to teach race. The main focus will be on visual literacy, critical media literacy, and racial literacy. These concepts are closely related and are often used in combination.

2.3.1. Visual literacy

Traditionally, schools have had print literacy as the main focus, but because of new communication modes there is a need to “rethink what reading is and how it works in the rich mixtures of words and images, sounds and animations, graphics and letters that constitute the environments of twenty-first-century literacies.” (Hayles 2010: 78) Semali (2003: 271) has a broad understanding of the concept of “text”, and defines it as “any communication or expression produced by artists, writers, or those in the media industries.” He further suggests that education should broaden its canon to include visual technologies such as television, film and video (Semali 2003: 275). Likewise, yet more adamantly, Prensky (2012: 139) believes that the visual medium of video could be replacing much of what we today do through texts.

The visual element of the video medium demands visual literacy skills. Being visually literate involves “the ability to understand, produce and use culturally significant images, objects, and visible actions.” (Felten 2008: 60) Furthermore, Seppänen, Ahonen, and Clarke (2006: 130) states that visual literacy has only been achieved when “the viewer begins to ponder the meanings of representations and visual orders and becomes aware of the forces, structures and power
relations connected to them.” This is closely related to film literacy. According to Monaco and Lindroth (2009: 175), “film is not a language, but it is like language” and therefore one can apply some of the methods used to study language to study film. In the opinion of Vetrie (2004), teaching film as literature can increase literacy skills. He found that using film was more effective than literature as facilitation for critical thinking skills as well as reading and writing skills for his “at-risk” students (Vetrie 2004: 42).

Knowing the language of film gives viewers the ability to create several interpretations and meanings of the moving image (Monaco and Lindroth 2009: 170). Eken (2002) found that teaching students how to read and interpret film helped them improve their critical literacy and higher order thinking skills. As a response to being taught film literacy, the participants in the study by Eken (2002: 229) reported that the skills they gained provided them with a “third eye” and that this “helped them see what others might not see.”

2.3.2. Critical literacy and media literacy

One of the fundamental skills in being visually literate is being able to critically analyze visual representations. Critical thinking includes skills such as being able to distinguish between facts and claims, detecting bias and determining credibility of a source (Slavin 2012: 243). The verbs used in the competence aims of the Norwegian English subject curriculum (LK06) reflect the level of critical thinking that is expected at the different grade levels. At the lower grade levels verb phrases such as “identify”, “recognize” and “give examples” dominate. The demand for critical thinking increases with grade levels and competence aims for English in secondary school include verbs such as “evaluate,” “discuss” and “justify.” Reaching these objectives will require students to view topics from different perspectives, declare their own standpoints, and be able to give reasons for their views. The progression of the curriculum follows a similar pattern to Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives. This is an ordering of learning objectives on different levels of understanding. The initial stages include recalling and understanding information, and develops through six stages where the final levels involve analysis and evaluation (Slavin 2012: 405-406). According to Holland (2014: 271), tactical and purposeful integration of video clips in the classroom can be used to foster critical thinking “in an effort to move more students through the stages of Bloom’s taxonomy.”
Critical literacy is closely linked to media literacy, and the two terms are often combined and referred to as critical media literacy. According to Elizabeth Thoman, one of the leaders of the media literacy movement in the United States, media literacy does not entail merely knowing facts or statistics about the media. Rather, it requires us to question what we are watching, reading or listening to. Also, it requires us “to be conscious about what is going on around us – and not be passive and vulnerable.” (Thoman 1999: 50) In Thoman’s opinion, censorship of media will never work. Therefore, she believes that it is important to teach students how to critically evaluate and control their own interpretation of the vast amount of information they receive daily from various media (Thoman 1999: 50).

Thoman (2003) describes five core concepts of media literacy that have been drawn out by the Center of Media Literacy: “(1) All media messages are constructed, (2) Media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own rules, (3) Different people experience the same media message differently, (4) Media have embedded values and points of view, (5) Media are organized and gain profit and/or power.” (Thoman 2003: 278) These concepts come alongside questions that the students should ask themselves and are meant to provide a framework for decoding and understanding media messages. Thoman suggests that teachers should be familiar with the five concepts in order facilitate media literacy learning at different age and ability levels. Working with the core principles as a springboard, teachers can integrate media literacy into most subjects (Thoman 2003: 279).

Kellner and Share (2005) expand on the five core concepts of media literacy and how they can be attended to by teachers in order to facilitate media literacy learning for their students. The first concept of media literacy, “all media messages are constructed,” deals with the origin and creation of a media message. Kellner and Share (2005: 374) regard this as “the foundation of media literacy.” This area of media literacy emphasizes the notion that media do not always present reality like transparent windows, because media messages have been constructed through a process where decisions have been made on what to include and what to exclude (Kellner and Share 2005: 374). Critical inquiry about the construction process of a media message is, according to Kellner and Share (2005: 374), an important starting point for media literacy. The second concept, “media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own use,” concerns how the different media use their own language in order to achieve a desired effect upon the audience. This concept deals with how the media use connotations (associative and culturally
constructed meaning) and denotations (literal meanings) as one in the same. This influences much of how representations of class, gender and race are perceived. Being able to analyze these codes is an important part of critical media literacy (Kellner and Share 2005: 375).

Further, Kellner and Share (2005) discuss another aspect of media literacy: being aware that people experience the same media messages differently. Interpreting media messages from different standpoints can contribute to multicultural education and can enrich one’s comprehension of media messages (Kellner and Share 2005: 376). The last two concepts focus on the media’s embedded messages and its focus on gaining profits. Ideologies and monetary incentives influence the way in which different media outlets operate; it determines who and what are represented. Kellner and Share (2005) note that many students do not recognize that the media’s role is not merely to entertain and inform. They bring forth Rupert Murdoch’s Fox Television as an example of a media agent that pursues a political agenda, namely right-wing, in the interest of the corporate leadership (Kellner and Share 2005: 377). The roles of the economic and ideological power structures of media outlets are therefore important factors to call attention to as part of critical media literacy.

As stated by Thoman (2003), critical media literacy can be incorporated into any school subject. Arnie Cooper (2002) writes specifically about the benefits of teaching media literacy in the ESL classroom. From the context of the USA, she states that: “nothing offers a clearer window into our culture than the media.” (Cooper 2002) She mentions news reports, movies and TV documentaries as valuable authentic materials that give students a deeper understanding of the US lifestyle. She believes that using media literacy approaches will create better learners and speakers of English. Making media programming in a foreign or second language understandable for students can be a difficult task. Cooper suggests that even though explicit media literacy instruction is most suitable for advances learners, lower level learners will benefit from a more indirect approach where teachers incorporate certain aspects of the media literacy framework (Cooper 2002).

Having the skills to critically evaluate the numerous messages they are exposed to every day is an important task for today’s students. Nelmes (2012) exemplifies this by highlighting the need for looking at YouTube comments with a critical eye. She remarks that the large amount of comments that can be generated from a YouTube video can considerably alter the perception of the video (Nelmes 2012: 62). Since YouTube is used both for entertainment and educational
purposes, most students will at some point have to interpret its content, and therefore the need to critically evaluate it arises.

2.3.3. Racial literacy

Sociologist France Winddance Twine developed the term “racial literacy” during an ethnographic study of interracial families in Britain to explain how white birthparents provided their transracial children with the conceptual tools needed for identifying and responding to racism and racial hierarchies. One of Twine’s discoveries was that many parents trained their children to discuss and critically evaluate representations of black people in texts and media (Twine 2004: 884). This involves being able to recognize various racial representations in different settings. One of the participants in the study reported that her mother had taught her the right skills to identify and analyze symbolic and systematic racism and British colonialism in texts and visual representations she had encountered at school (Twine 2004: 887).

The concept of racial literacy can be adopted into the classroom, as students will need the right tools and vocabulary to be able to recognize and discuss the often-controversial issues involving race. Smith (2014: 66) affirms that using racial literacy as a pedagogical framework can give “teachers and students the means to engage in deeper racial understanding and problem solving.” Racial literacy is strongly related to critical literacy as it enables one to “challenge pre-conceived notions about race and racism” (Smith 2014: 68), with the goal of learning “how to respond to and resist racism.” (Nakagawa and Arzubiaga 2014: 107) Guinier (2004) expands on the concept of racial literacy, saying that it involves recognizing the connection between race and other sociocultural factors. He explains that racial literacy does not solely focus on race, but it “emphasizes the relationship between race and power” and “interrogates the dynamic relationship among race, class, geography, gender and other explanatory variables.” (Guinier 2004: 115)

Racial literacy involves thinking critically about race; it is therefore useful to look at some theories of race and whiteness. According to Dyer, “whiteness” has been perceived as the norm, or “the ordinary way of being human.” (Dyer 1988: 457) Whiteness, according to Dyer (1988: 458), “disappears behind and is subsumed into other identities.” Dyer also claims that white people living in the western world do not recognize their whiteness as an identity marker and many do not necessarily recognize that they are “systematically privileged in the Western
society” and “set standards of humanity by which they are bound to succeed and others bound to fail.” (Dyer 1997: 9) DiAngelo (2012: 4) also believes that the majority of white people are racially illiterate and that many of them position racial separation as non-existent. She explains that this inability to recognize racial disparities has come as a result of the wider society’s denial of it and the fact that most people have been deprived of complex information about racism (DiAngelo 2012: 4). It is therefore important to employ an approach of “white racial socialization” where emphasis is put on identifying “current manifestations of racism” by creating a framework for understanding racism as a system of structural inequality, rather than isolated instances of prejudice (DiAngelo 2012: 4-5).

Mcintosh (1988) has drawn out a checklist of different privileges that she has due to her white skin color, and that she notes that her acquaintances of other colors do not possess. Examples from this list include: “I can turn on the television or open the front page of the paper and see people of my race widely and positively represented” and “I can be sure that if I need legal or medical help, my race will not work against me.” (Mcintosh 1988: 5-9) White privilege is a highly debated topic within race discussions, and should therefore be made known to the students as part of their critical thinking skills and racial literacy.

Being racially literate is becoming increasingly important for Norwegian students. This involves being aware of and being able to identify instances of white privilege in their society. This is not only a significant part of learning about English-speaking cultures as a component of the English language subject, but is also relevant for today’s students in their everyday lives in terms of understanding and reacting to the ongoing refugee situation. Even though Norway has been characterized as a multicultural society for quite some time, the current influx of refugees, alongside other immigrants from non-western countries, will inevitably cause both Norwegian schools and the Norwegian society as a whole to deal with race and cultural differences at a larger scale than before. When discussing the pedagogy of teaching race, Bowman, Merriweather, and Closson (2014: 79) claim that “our classrooms are microcosms of the greater society; therefore, issues confronted in society must also be contended with in the classroom.” Norwegian schools will therefore play an important role in easing this transition by giving their students the right skills to be able to talk about race and culture in a constructive way. As discussed in section 2.2, various parts of the LK06 curriculum and Fremtidens Skole emphasize the importance of students
being aware of racial and cultural differences in the current society, and having the right skills and competences to combat discrimination in the future.

2.4. Teaching culture and race

In addition to language study aiming to develop linguistic skills, most language courses incorporate to various degrees and by different means content about target cultures. Claire Kramsch has distinguished between two concepts of culture in language teaching: humanistic and sociolinguistic. The humanistic concept of culture is made up of the history, institutions and literature of a target culture, and is referred to by Kramsch as “big C.” Even though the prestige of this understanding of culture has remained, the emergence of the communicative approach to language teaching gave way to a more pragmatic concept of culture. This sociolinguistic concept of culture includes how native speakers interact in social contexts, including their behavior, speech, food, customs, values and beliefs. This perspective makes out what is referred to as “little c.” (Kramsch 2006: 13)

According to Språk Åpner Dører, language studies are also culture studies that can give an insight into non-linguistic conditions and promote intercultural understanding (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2007: 15). This is visible in the Norwegian English subject curriculum where “Culture, Society and Literature” is a separate subject area with the aim of developing “knowledge about, understanding of and respect for the lives and cultures of other people” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 4). This area combines aspects of both “big C” and “little c” as it deals with “social issues, literature and other cultural expressions.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 4) These aspects can be seen in the specific curriculum objectives. For example, after year 10 Norwegian students should have studied the way people live and socialize in English speaking countries, the history and geography in Great Britain and the USA, the situation for indigenous peoples and conversed about different contemporary topics. In addition, they should have discussed and elaborated on different types of literature from English-speaking countries (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 9). It is up to teachers and school leaders to decide the specifics of how these objectives are carried out in the classroom.
2.4.1. Teaching race

When covering objectives such as those that deal with history and social issues in English-speaking cultures, race issues, both as historic and present-day instances, become unavoidable. Many English-speaking countries have a history of structural race oppression, and many of the issues still linger in the current societies. Race is therefore a significant component of the English subject in Norway and is important for understanding both the current culture and the history of English-speaking countries.

Even though issues about race and ethnicity are present in the media and other parts of the society, many teachers are uncomfortable with teaching race and racism and many regard it as inappropriate for young students. This unease may be caused by a lack of knowledge about race and racism, as well as teacher education programs not properly preparing teachers for dealing with controversial topics in the classroom (Brown and Brown 2011: 10). However, Brown and Brown (2011: 10) note that “students benefit from a classroom curriculum that critically engages race and racism” and mention several scholars who have found that teaching young children about racism can in fact be “a practical means of improving attitudes about race in the U.S.” Smith (2014: 69) also points out that educators who foster racial literacy contribute to students’ development as “informed and active civic participants.”

A central aim of teaching race is racial literacy. This involves “having the tools with which to converse about race, deconstruct and challenge instances of racism” (Nakagawa and Arzubiaga 2014: 105-06). One of the components of racial literacy involves being able to think critically about race and race issues. One scholar who stresses the importance of avoiding a one-sided view of race in educational settings is William L. Smith (2014). He centers his arguments on the teaching of the firstness of the presidency of Barack Obama, and how it could lead to “misleading narratives of racial progress.” (Smith 2014: 66) Smith (2014: 67) claims that teachers tend to glorify racial structures in the USA, leaving the students with an incomplete picture of both the past and the present day racial inequalities. By giving students a more nuanced image of Barack Obama and the American society that he leads, Smith (2014: 70) believes that teachers can give students the “opportunity to see the complexity of contemporary race politics.” It is especially important to make Norwegian students aware of this, as most of them will not have any firsthand experiences with racial tension in the USA specifically.
Incorporating critical race thinking into the classroom involves giving students the opportunity to acknowledge, discover and discuss the various layers and perspectives of race and how they are reflected through various media outlets. Brown and Brown (2011: 10) point out that many textbooks do not position racism and racial violence, and suggest using contemporary texts as “a starting point for students to critically discuss race.” They further encourage teachers to connect their teaching about race to the students’ own life experiences. Issues on race and racism can be made relevant for students by discussing how contemporary acts of racial violence are responded to and resisted, and doing so by using various media as “a catalyst to help students critically consider the nature and impact of race in the US.” (Brown and Brown 2011: 11)

In her research on racial literacy practices in two secondary schools in USA and Canada, Skerrett (2011: 318) identified three different approaches to teaching racial literacy: apprehensive and authorized, incidental and ill-informed, and sustained and strategic. The approach of apprehensive racial literacy teaching involves teachers who are hesitant to addressing race in their classrooms. Authorized racial literacy teaching occurs when teachers are able to select or required to use texts on the official curriculum that contains racial content. The category of incidental racial literacy teaching occurs when teachers sporadically teach race, in Skerrett’s study this usually happened when the teacher or students brought up racialized events that had happened in the community (Skerrett 2011: 318). Skerrett also recognized that many teachers are ill-informed and have problematic or insufficient knowledge about how to deal with race in the classroom (Skerrett 2011: 318). Teachers with a sustained and strategic approach to racial literacy instruction adopt it as a systematic component of their teaching where race serves as a “diagnostic tool” that guides their teaching principles and practices (Skerrett 2011: 324).

2.4.2. Using short video to teach race

As several scholars (Sherman 2003; Berk 2009; Lebedko 1999) have argued, video can be a valuable tool in teaching culture in the language classroom. Lebedko (1999: 4) claims that: “the integration of videos into the curriculum enlarges students’ awareness and understanding of American culture.” This section will look specifically at using short videos to teach race. Nakagawa and Arzubiaga (2014) combine the concepts of racial literacy and critical media literacy when they write about using social media sites such as YouTube to teach about race.
They suggest that social media sites such as YouTube could be used as forums for students to develop their racial literacy skills. They recommend using Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) when using social media in the classroom. CDA is a methodological tool for critical analysis of discourse and aims to call attention to the connections between power, ideology and language (Byrne 2008: 24). Nakagawa and Arzubiaga (2014) present several specific CDA techniques that can direct students towards identifying and responding to issues of race and racism in social media, focusing specifically on YouTube. Firstly, they suggest analyzing the context of social media messages and connecting the underlying messages to broader social issues in order to evaluate whether the content contains features of racism. Another important part of CDA is being able to understand the medium of video and who created the content. In the words of Nakagawa and Arzubiaga (2014), “YouTube is a useful context where students may take a meta view of both producer and consumer and consider how the message and the messenger are received and positioned differently based on gender, race and other markers.” (Nakagawa and Arzubiaga 2014: 107)

Another component of CDA to foster racial literacy through YouTube involves analyzing the structural features of YouTube. This includes examining the effect of features such as anonymous commenting on the way the content can be perceived and how the anonymity itself can promote negative and racist comments (Nakagawa and Arzubiaga 2014: 107). Finally, analyzing the language of YouTube videos help foster racial literacy in students (Nakagawa and Arzubiaga 2014: 107). By interrogating word usage in videos, students can understand how language and rhetoric, directly or indirectly, can affect the portrayal of different groups of people and enforce stereotypes.

CDA can be adopted when using news and documentaries about race. The strategies allow students to critically evaluate these types of videos and recognize their underlying messages. For example, several mainstream news outlets have been criticized for what many believe as misrepresentation of black people, especially following events such as the shooting of black teenager Michael Brown by a police officer Darren Wilson in 2014. Bonilla and Rosa (2015) write about how social media has become a site for activism against the mainstream media’s representation of black people. Bonilla and Rosa (2015: 8) refer to an online campaign in which young people used the hashtag #IfTheyGunnedMeDown with two contrasting photos of themselves to ask which photo would be used by the media if they were shot by the police. In this
way, young people themselves are illustrating and taking a stand against what they believe is inaccurate and biased news reporting following police shootings.

2.5. Short videos in EFL teaching

2.5.1. The effects of video on the brain

There are several cognitive and emotional implications to using short videos in the classroom, and Berk (2009), a strong advocate for using short videos in the classroom, outlines various aspects of the brain and explains several processes it goes through in order to enable learning when viewing videos. Firstly, he describes the role of Gardner’s concept of multiple intelligences on the learning outcome of video usage in the classroom. This theory states that human intelligence cannot be limited to one measurable entity, but it is made up of several competences or “intelligences” (Gardner 1985: 9). Gardner’s core intelligences consist of linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, naturalistic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and existential competences. In educational settings, a multiple intelligences perspective typically culminates in the use of a wide variety of learning strategies and methods in order to cater to the varying interest, strengths and weaknesses of a specific student group. Berk (2009: 3) brings forth three of the intelligences that are the most central to teaching with video: verbal/linguistic, visual/spatial and musical/rhythmic. Individuals with strong linguistic competences are able to understand the use of spoken and written communication, while individuals with prominent visual/spatial intelligence have the ability to orient and manipulate three-dimensional space. Rapp (2009: 5) found that visual/spatial learners need to visualize information as icons, photographs or videos in order to internalize it. Individuals with musical/rhythmic intelligence are able to understand and use concepts such as rhythm, pitch melody and harmony (Moran, Kornhaber, and Gardner 2006: 25). According to Berk, the music in a video can alone “elicit emotional reactions of liking or disliking and excitement or arousal.” (Berk 2009: 3)

In addition, Berk believes that video can tap into the viewers’ emotional intelligence and promote a deeper level of understanding. This is related to Gardner’s interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. These intelligences include being able to understand one’s thoughts, feelings and interests, as well as being able to interact well with other people (Moran, Kornhaber,
and Gardner 2006: 25). Further, Berk explains how various structural features of the brain facilitate learning when viewing videos. When viewing videos, both hemispheres of the brain are activated, thus using both the verbal and nonverbal parts of the brain. The right hemisphere is the nonverbal, creative and intuitive side, while the left hemisphere is the verbal, logical and analytical side (Berk 2009: 3). In addition, viewing videos will activate specific brain wave frequencies. According to Berk (2009: 4), action-filled video clips foster Beta waves in the brain that will gain the students attention and facilitate the “multitasking mode for the Net Generation of students.” Viewing reflective and thought-provoking video clips, on the other hand, stimulates alpha waves. These waves relax the brain and are helpful for reviewing content and enable it to enter the long-term memory (Berk 2009: 4).

Paivio’s dual coding theory can be used to build on Berk’s account of videos and their effect on the brain. The theory is based on the notion that information is stored in the brain in two systems: the image system and the verbal system, where activity in one system can initiate activity in the other (Paivio et al. 1980). Therefore, information that is demonstrated through both verbal and visual stimuli “increase memory, comprehension, understanding and deeper learning than either stimulus by itself.” (Berk 2009: 5) Paivio, Rogers, and Smythe (1968: 138), found that learning with pictures has a superior role over learning solely through verbal means, as pictures are more effectively stored in and retrieved from both the long-term and short-term memories. Because of its multiple formats of presenting information, the use of video in the classroom is supported by the dual coding theory.

2.5.2. Short videos as authentic material in ELT

Sherman (2003: 2) claims that video is “today’s medium,” and stands alongside many researchers who promote the use of digital advancements to enhance learning. Marc Prenksy (2012) described the effects of digital advancement when he coined the terms “Digital Natives” and “Digital Immigrants.” Digital natives belong to the generation that has grown up using digital technology, thus speaking the native language of it. On the other hand, digital immigrants are the people who were not born into the digital world, but have to varying degrees acquired and adopted many of the aspects of it later in life. Prensky states that all of today’s students are digital natives, while most of their teachers are digital immigrants. He explains that because digital
natives have fundamentally different thought processes than their digital immigrant instructors, teachers are struggling to teach a population that speaks an entirely new language. This situation is in Prensky’s opinion, “the single biggest problem facing education today.” (Prensky 2012: 69) Prensky asserts that digital natives will not go backwards, and that digital immigrants need to reconsider both their methodology and content in order to keep up with their students. Prensky claims that video-based learning is preferred by most students and believes that one way of bridging the gap between digital immigrants and digital natives is by using video as frequently as we use texts in teaching (Prensky 2012: 139).

As today’s students have been born into a digital and screen-based world, the importance of incorporating this into the classroom has been a frequent topic in educational research. Being able to decode visual representations and being critical to it are becoming increasingly important skills as advancements in how we communicate and receive information are evolving. Prensky (2012: 70) accuses digital immigrant teachers of assuming that the methods that worked for the teachers when they were students are still applicable for today’s students. As Rackaway (2012: 199) observed, many teachers chose to avoid multimedia supplements in their teaching due to their commitment to traditional textbook pedagogy.

Ragnhild (Lund 2007) examines the strong position of textbooks in English teaching in Norway. She points out that the most useful function of the textbook in English teaching is the role it can have as a map; it can give teachers and students a shared understanding of the goals and the content of a course (Lund 2007: 46). However, she argues that “language learning is such a complex undertaking that it does not seem feasible to expect a textbook to guide and cater for the whole process.” (Lund 2007: 45) She then suggests that teachers should be aware of the possible functions and especially limitations of the textbook and use it as a starting-point rather than “an unquestionable authority” that undermines their training and skills as language teachers (Lund 2007: 47).

Since the arrival of communicative language teaching, there has been an interest in the effects of using meaningful material in ELT. Communicative language teaching calls for authentic language use and therefore also the use of authentic materials. This study will look specifically at authentic videos and their effects in the classroom. Authentic videos are different types of videos that are not necessarily created with the intention of being used for educational purposes. Authentic material contains real, or at least realistic, language that has not been altered.
for non-native speakers. Authentic materials have long been used by teachers as a way of linking the language classroom with the outside world (Joy 2011: 8). Authentic videos can provide students with target language samples as well as giving insight into cultural topics. Authentic videos contain native language samples and often include useful information about the target-culture. Examples of authentic videos include commercials, feature films, documentaries, and different types of TV programs (Sherman 2003: 6). This thesis will elaborate on the use of news broadcasts and documentaries as authentic videos for classroom use.

2.5.3. Authentic video and motivation

It is often assumed that using authentic videos in the classroom is motivating and engaging for students (Berk 2009; Prensky 2012; Holland 2014; Sherman 2003). As motivation is considered one of the most important factors for success in a second language (Drew and Sørheim 2009: 21), it is useful to look at implications for motivation and how they relate to the use of videos in language teaching.

Harmer (2007: 98) defines motivation as an “internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something.” He further distinguishes between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, which for language learners is related to what the learner considers as the purpose of learning the language. Extrinsic motivation is caused by outside factors such as the need to pass an exam or the pursuit of a job, while intrinsic motivation comes from within the individual caused by a genuine interest for the target language or the learning process (Harmer 2007: 98). Students may be motivated by both outside and inside factors, but students with intrinsic motivation produce better results than students who only have extrinsic motivation (Harmer 2007: 98). Slavin (2012) states that “the intrinsic motivation to learn something is enhanced by the use of interesting materials, as well as by variety in the mode of presentation,” and here he states video as an example. Further, he claims that materials are made interesting and motivating through the use of emotional content and concrete examples (Slavin 2012: 304). Berk (2009: 4) also claims that much of the motivational impact of video is owed to its ability to tap into the students’ emotions and interests.

Melvin and Stout (1987) also explain several ways in which authentic material can be used as a means for motivating language learners. They state that “fully exploited, authentic texts
give students direct access to the culture and help them use the new language authentically themselves” (Melvin and Stout 1987: 44). Melvin and Stout further claim that even though some considerations must be made about the complexity and length of materials, the difficulty level of the tasks that accompany an authentic text is more relevant than the difficulty level of the actual text (Melvin and Stout 1987: 50). They therefore imply that the effectiveness of using authentic material relies heavily on the teachers making appropriate tasks to fit the level of their learners.

Another scholar who has investigated the use of authentic material is Matthew Peacock. He studied two beginner-level EFL classes and found that authentic materials increased the learners overall motivation as well as their level of on-task behavior, concentration and involvement in activities more than artificial materials did (Peacock 1997: 152). According to Jeremy Harmer (2007), students work the hardest to understand authentic language that is slightly above their level of independent production. He stresses that it is vital for students to practice dealing with spoken and written language in which they do not understand every word, but extract the general meaning. This will prepare students for real encounters with target-language speakers (Harmer 2007: 273).

By choosing appropriate videos, teachers can cater to the goals of language learners with both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Sherman (2003) elaborates on how authentic video can spark motivation in students. She claims that “authenticity itself is an inducement – there is a special thrill in being able to understand the real thing.” (Sherman 2003: 2)

2.5.4. Working with videos

There is a general agreement that the effects of short videos are best exploited when accompanied by some form of meaningful activity (Harmer 2007; Berk 2009; Sherman 2003). This usually involves pre-, while- and/or post watching activities. Common types of activities include role-playing, discussions, written assignments, and vocabulary or grammar activities.

Harmer (2007: 308) states that: “because students are used to watching film at home – and may therefore associate it with relaxation – we need to be sure that we provide them with good viewing and listening tasks so that they give their full attention to what they are hearing and seeing.” Sherman (2003) is hesitant about video teaching with no preparation before viewing and no processing after viewing, which she describes as the “Friday afternoon” approach to using
video. She argues that applying an approach where the video is not integrated into the teaching plan “does a disservice both to the programme and the resource.” (Sherman 2003: 7) Rackaway (2012: 191) argues that teachers tend to regard multimedia supplement as “sideshows” that become “a convenient entertainment or distraction rather than a legitimate learning tool” without being integrated into assessment of student learning. On the other hand, Berk (2009: 13) defends using short videos that do not necessarily have an educational objective on occasion as “commercial breaks” during lessons in order to recharge students and regain their attention.

Lebedko presents three types of exercises to use alongside videos when teaching culture in the EFL classroom: Topic Focus (TF), Language Focus (LF) and Culture Focus (CF) (Lebedko 1999: 2). These types of activities focus on the stages of previewing, viewing and post viewing. TF exercises are part of the previewing stage and aim to raise the students’ interest about the topic though general and personalized questions. Further, Lebedko explains that LF exercises can be used to eliminate potential language difficulties that the students encounter when watching a video. These exercises include vocabulary tasks, sentence translation, word games, and finding dictionary definitions. Language activities may also serve a purpose as indirect culture learning by, for example, studying cultural-specific vocabulary (Lebedko 1999: 2). The last focus Lebedko addresses is the culture focus (CF). Using CF exercises when viewing videos in the EFL classroom aims to draw attention to cultural issues by observing culture patterns, identifying and comparing cultures, commenting on customs, traditions and behavior, as well as developing cultural competence through activities such as role play and discussions (Lebedko 1999: 2-3).

2.5.5. Benefits of using short videos

As this chapter has outlined, short authentic videos can benefit English language students by enhancing memory, developing communicative competence, cultural competence, increasing motivation, and catering to different learning styles. In addition, they can be a means of developing students’ skills in film literacy, critical media literacy and racial literacy. The following section will elaborate further on various research and theory on the benefits of using videos in the classroom.

One scholar who has seen the value of using authentic video is Jane Sherman. In her book *Using Authentic Video in the Language Classroom* (2003), Sherman discusses the multiple
possibilities of authentic video in language teaching. Sherman (2003) states accessibility and motivation as the main reasons for using authentic videos in the classroom. As the Internet has made a wide variety of high quality, cheap and updated authentic videos readily accessible, Sherman insists that this is a resource that neither teachers nor students can ignore (Sherman 2003: 1). Internet sites such as YouTube give teachers an almost unlimited array of authentic material containing target-language samples as well as topic-specific information. The ability to understand authentic material combined with the experiencing the powerful effects of video is, according to Sherman, very motivating for students (Sherman 2003: 2). She describes authentic video as “an essential element of learning languages today,” (Sherman 2003: 1) and argues that it can be a substitute for the experiences that a learner gains from living in an English speaking country (Sherman 2003: 3).

Sherman (2003: 2) outlines several potential uses of authentic video in language teaching. Firstly, she makes a case for using authentic video “for its own sake.” She points out that being able to access and understand English-language media is often a goal for English language learners, and that being exposed to audio-visual genres in the classroom will help students achieve this. Secondly, viewing authentic videos can assist language comprehension and listening skills as it combines language with a visual dimension. In addition, it can function as a language model and a resource for hearing accents, vocabulary and syntax in its natural use. As well as the direct language purposes of authentic videos, Sherman claims that authentic videos are valuable for teaching culture and that “a small amount of showing is worth hours of telling from a teacher or a coursebook.” (Sherman 2003: 2-3) Moreover, authentic videos can be used as springboards for discussions, assignments and projects, and the “film of the book” is useful when studying literature (Sherman 2003: 3).

Outside the context of language learning, Ronald Berk (2009) has also drawn up a number of approaches and benefits to using short video clips in the classroom. Among these approaches are using videos to provide students with alternative viewpoints, to illustrate concepts, to apply content to the real world, and simply as a way of grabbing students’ attention (Berk 2009: 10-14). He provides an extensive list of what he believes to be possible learning outcomes of using video clips. Berk’s potential outcomes of video clips include increasing memory and understanding, stimulating the flow of ideas, generating interest in the classroom, inspiring and motivating students, and decreasing anxiety and tension from difficult topics (Berk 2009: 2).
Rackaway (2012) makes the case for using videos as supplements to the textbook to enhance student learning. Rackaway conducted a study to investigate the effects of using videos in a college level political science classroom. He found that the “the immediacy and currency of a multimedia supplement combines with the learning style accommodation to provide a learning experience that students both enjoy and benefit from.” (Rackaway 2012: 199) The study showed that the students who initially struggled in the course benefitted from the use of multimedia supplements in the form of higher engagement and subsequently higher scores on written assessment (Rackaway 2012: 199). While not recommending video as a replacement for textbooks, Rackaway’s study suggests that the coexistence of multimedia tools and the textbook improves student learning.

In her study of English subject textbooks in Norwegian lower secondary school, Ragnhild Lund found that even though textbooks are central in Norwegian classrooms, there have been unclear links between the topics and texts in the textbooks and curriculum objectives (L97) about culture and context (Lund 2007: 323). She claims that the content of the textbooks do not aid the students’ development of intercultural awareness, and there seems to be a “haphazard selection of texts and topics,” which leads to an unclear idea of the purpose of the cultural material (Lund 2007: 324). She further points out that several texts seem to be selected only for their entertainment value, thus undermining the value of other cultural material (Lund 2007: 324). This study might then support the arguments of Rackaway (2012) by suggesting that teachers use additional sources to the textbook when covering curriculum objectives on culture.

Several scholars have studied the video-sharing website YouTube specifically as a source for educational material. In his article “The Longer View: Why YouTube Matters,” Marc Prensky (2012) boasts about both the quality and the quantity of videos on YouTube. In his opinion, “it would be foolish to ignore the medium of a video as a powerful learning tools for today’s youth.” (Prensky 2012: 149) Prensky (2012) believes that students can profit from the use of video in several ways. He expresses the value of video to enable students to “see, hear, and learn from top experts in any field” and “view the huge and growing number of primary-source, historical videos available.” (Prensky 2012: 149)

Alongside Prensky, Jones and Cuthrell (2011: 76) have analyzed YouTube as an educational tool, and claim it can be used as “a tool to inform and display and as a forum for critical analysis and commentary.” They state that the convenience of quickly pulling up a video
from YouTube saves time as teachers will not have to reserve videos from anywhere and it gives more room for spontaneity during lessons (Jones and Cuthrell 2011: 79). Jones and Cuthrell also bring up the commenting feature of YouTube as a useful resource for English language students. By commenting on video content on YouTube, English language students can practice their writing precision and accuracy while communicating with native speakers (Jones and Cuthrell 2011: 78). The ability to create a personal account and comment on videos makes YouTube more than a virtual video library – it becomes a social medium with two-way communication.

YouTube is a part of what is often termed as Web 2.0 technologies, which refer to a wide variety of social networking sites with collaborative content – commonly referred to as “participatory culture.” (Bloom and Johnston 2010: 113) Bloom and Johnston argue that even though there are several video sites that are specifically designed for classroom usage (for example TeacherTube), these sites might deprive students of YouTube’s “teachable moments,” where they can identify and interpret the quality and credibility of the content they encounter (Bloom and Johnston 2010: 115).

2.5.6 Selecting videos for classroom use

One of the keys for the successful use of short videos is the ability to select the appropriate material. Berk (2009: 7) outlines three sets of criteria that he believes are necessary to consider when selecting videos: “(a) the students’ characteristics, (b) the offensiveness of the video, and (c) the video structure.” The first set of criteria should be very carefully evaluated when selecting video material, and considers aspects such as gender, grade level, ethnicity and language. These factors are important both in regards to the content and difficulty level of the video. The second set of criteria concern themselves with the nature of the content and language of the video. As Berk (2009) points out, teachers should try to avoid using videos with derogatory content or language in the classroom. Videos involving issues on race or other sensitive subjects may often include language and content that is offensive to the students. This contrasts with Thoman’s (1999) view on censorship, as she believes that as long as the students are able to critically assess the content of the information they receive, they need not necessarily be shielded from potentially offensive content. However, Berk believes that exceptions can be made if the offensiveness of the video is a part of the message or purpose of using the video. In this case, students should be
prepared for this beforehand and be made aware that the offensive content has an educational purpose (Berk 2009: 7). Lastly, the structure of the video must fit the desired purpose and educational objective. Under these criteria, Berk insists that the video should be just long enough to illustrate the point; any action or character that is not directly relevant to the purpose should be omitted to avoid confusion. In terms of context, Berk believes that authentic, everyday language is favorable unless the language is part of the purpose (Berk 2009).

Jones and Cuthrell (2011) look specifically at YouTube as a source for selecting video material and how the teacher has a responsibility for ensuring the credibility of the materials they use. While regarding YouTube as a useful resource for educators, they argue that it can also be “a vast wasteland of garbage and social parody that add nothing to the learning process.” (Jones and Cuthrell 2011: 81) Therefore, they stress the importance of critically selecting videos by evaluating the credibility of the creator of the video, and they urge educators to consider how comprehensive and complete the information in a video is before showing it to their students (Jones and Cuthrell 2011: 82).

This thesis will continue to investigate the effects on teaching with two different types of video material: news and documentaries. The Norwegian English subject curriculum states that students should be able to “understand the main content and details of different types of oral texts on different topics.” (LK06) News broadcasts and documentaries are highly oral televisual texts and may therefore be useful materials in reaching this objective. These genres are non-fiction and aim to present real-life events and issues, and can be used in the language classroom as a way of integrating and illustrating aspects of the target-culture. Non-fiction videos address the viewer directly and provide the viewer with the images and language of everyday context. Non-fiction material such as news and documentaries “appeals to our knowledge of the world, which in turn helps us understand it […] and fuels debate on current issues.” (Sherman 2003: 60)

2.5.7. News in the EFL classroom

News videos are multimodal texts that combine oral and written language with graphic representations. Characteristics of news broadcasts may be utilized to serve a number of educational objectives in the English language classroom. It can be used in a wide variety of ways and for many different purposes in the language classroom as “the pedagogical and informative
aspects […] may intersect” (Bell 2003). English language news is an easily accessible resource for English teachers, as news outlets continuously post updated material on video sharing sites such as YouTube. News videos can be used both for topical interest and language work as it “provides opportunities for non-reciprocal listening […]” and are “a vital and immediate alternative source of information.” (Bell 2003) Using individual news item clips can reinforce themes of the textbook, stimulate discussions and be used as essay prompts in language learning (Sherman 2003: 70). In addition, news in the foreign language classroom can give an insight into the target culture as it “provides an illuminating view of the stereotypical categories and preoccupations of a particular culture.” (Bell 2003) Sherman (2003: 69) describes the news as an “open window on the world and on the country of the language” and considers it “a discourse which can’t justifiably be neglected in a language syllabus.”

Bell (2003) outlines three broad categories for selecting TV news items for the EFL/ESL classroom: content schemata, formal schemata and linguistic difficulty. Firstly, he discusses the effects of prior knowledge of content for comprehension when using the news with second language learners. He distinguishes between “exogenous” contexts, where either specialized or universal prior knowledge is required, and “endogenous” contexts in which no prior knowledge is required to understand the content. Bell mentions Iraq and Northern Ireland as examples of specialized exogenous contexts, and emphasizes that they require considerable schemata building to facilitate full understanding of a news item. Therefore, Bell concludes that universal exogenous contexts and endogenous contexts are more accessible to language students than specialized exogenous contexts. However, news items may be made up of varying degrees of exogenous and endogenous contexts, where an important factor is that students can empathize with items though their own experiences. For example, a news item following the Ferguson protests in 2014 and 2015 may require some background knowledge of the events leading up to it, yet the feeling of being unfairly treated may resonate with the students regardless of their starting point. Bell (2003) suggests that if the students are able to respond to at least four questions about the topic before viewing the news item, it will likely be a success.

The second category Bell (2003) sets for the selection of news stories is the formal schemata, or the formal features of TV news. Making students aware of these features can benefit students both in terms of understanding specific content as well as developing their media literacy skills. He mentions several aspects of the structure that characterize American TV news and how
they aid second language students’ listening comprehension. What he describes as the “dumbing down” of the news in the USA is one of the main reasons why Bell (2003) regards it as a sound pedagogical tool in the EFL/ESL classroom. American news tends to be highly varied and visual, and usually has a narrative structure. This approach of treating the news as “infotainment,” according to Bell, draws the attention of viewers by increasing their emotional involvement thus causing them to think more deeply about the content. In addition, the perspectival nature of many American news outlets helps foreign language learners’ comprehension because it makes explicit the way it is intended to be interpreted and often draws conclusions on the behalf the viewers (Bell 2003). Bell also discusses how the relationship between images and words in TV impacts the foreign language students’ understanding. He concludes that TV items that have a clear parallel between spoken text and visual text are more manageable for foreign and second language students because it gives the learners an opportunity to pick up clues from both the visual and auditory information. This coheres with Paivio’s dual coding theory, which states that information is better remembered and retrieved when presented both visually and verbally (Paivio et al. 1980; Paivio, Rogers, and Smythe 1968).

The final condition that Bell (2003) sets for selecting news items is linguistic difficulty. Bell (2003) draws attention to the value of the conversational nature of American TV news. The standardized American accents and highly prepared discourse of news anchors offer clarity and facilitate understanding for EFL/ESL students. Consequently, news anchors become a good source of commonly used idioms (Bell 2003). In addition, Bell mentions the common practice of redundancy of content words in news as beneficial for second and foreign language learners in understanding content and developing vocabulary, especially with lower level learners (Bell 2003).

To sum up, news can be used both for its language and content. The effectiveness of using news in the EFL and ESL classroom depends on factors such as how much background knowledge learners have, the formal structure of the news broadcasts, and the language difficulty.

2.5.8. Documentaries in the EFL classroom

The documentary is a form of authentic video material that “tells stories, makes assertions or observations about the real historical world […] and provides audio-visual evidence to back up
such assertions.” (Nelmes 2012: 211) Similarly to news, documentaries consist of moving images, graphics, commentary, interviews, music and sound effects and include a wide range of both planned and spontaneous speech (Sherman 2003: 62-63). The aim of documentaries is to examine the connection between humans and their environments, and is often structured around the way in which people are affected by the systems, processes, and political events of the societies they are a part of (Hart 1992: 5). This makes the documentary a mode through which foreign language students can gain insight into issues of target-language societies.

Even though documentaries aim to tell stories from the real historical world, “it is still told from the filmmaker’s perspective and in the filmmaker’s voice.” (Nichols 2010: 12) Through a wide variety of techniques the documentary commonly reflects some degree of personal ideologies and biases. When facts and documents are presented, they are always interpreted by the filmmaker (Nichols 2010: 147). Documentaries often deal with controversial topics, challenge beliefs and offer alternate perspectives on various issues. These aspects can be exploited in order to develop critical media literacy skills. Simpson (2008: 106) examined the effects of using documentaries to teach the psychology of persuasion, and found that using video clips from documentaries “gives students an excellent chance to examine their preconceived notions about persuasive media” and how it is “influencing group behavior.”

Koh (2014) studied YouTube with the aim of examining the use of YouTube videos alongside their comments as platforms for discussion and debate on moral issues. She found that the factual nature of documentaries on YouTube seemed to elicit the most relevant comments reflecting moral reasoning (Koh 2014: 631). However, as documentaries are often centered on conflicting issues, comments can potentially influence how the viewer perceives the documentary (Nelmes 2012: 62). For example, the documentary White People by MTV became quite controversial following its release in 2015. This documentary examines race relations in the USA from the viewpoint of young white Americans and deals with several taboo subjects such as white privilege and reverse racism. This generated quite a lot of negative responses and heated discussions in the comment section below the video on YouTube. The controversial nature of the documentary and the discussion it generated can be used to cover several educational objectives. Examining the alternative viewpoints expressed, can foster constructive discussions and facilitate critical thinking.
2.5.9. Challenges of using short videos in ELT

While the many benefits and learning outcomes of using short authentic videos from YouTube have been explained, there are also a number of challenges that must be addressed. This section will present both the pedagogical and practical challenges of teaching with short videos in general as well as those connected to news and documentaries specifically.

While there are several benefits to using videos of an authentic nature, there is some controversy about their effect in the foreign language classroom. Some scholars believe that authentic material is an essential part of language learning, while others regard it as too ambitious for certain language learners (Joy 2011: 7). Day and Bamford (1998: 54) explain how communicative language teaching has brought with it a “cult of authenticity” that has given authentic material superior status over simplified texts in language teaching. They argue that simplified materials are often considered the opposite of authentic material, and are thus labeled as “stilted, unnatural, unreal, bland, and a pedagogical dead end” (Day and Bamford 1998: 56). Day and Bamford insist that second language learners need material that is written specifically for them, yet “simplified materials are rarely considered for what they are – a positive contribution to reading instruction and language learning” (Day and Bamford 1998: 57). In addition, Guariento and Morley (2001: 348) claim that authentic materials that are not adjusted or simplified can lead to frustration, confusion and demotivation, especially for lower level learners. According to Sherman (2003: 1), many language teachers regard authentic videos as a “fun extra,” but usually too difficult for their students. However, she also states that “the visual element [of a video] provides its own layer of comprehension,” which assists students in grasping demanding language (Sherman 2003: 118).

The Council of Europe considers the ability to understand authentic material such as TV programs and film as important in the progression of language learning. This thesis is based on Norwegian English language learners at year ten. At this grade, the average student is expected to be at a B1 or moving towards a B2 level on the Common Reference Levels (ranging from A1 to C2) of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001) (Helness 2012: 146). To be at these levels students should be able to “understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs topics” and “understand the majority of films in standard dialect” (Council of Europe Council for Cultural Co-operation 2001: 26-27).
Looking specifically at news and documentaries as authentic video materials, challenges may arise with their use in the foreign language classroom. Some learners might find the content too fact-oriented and might be intimidated or overwhelmed by the frequent use of statistics (Bell 2003). Even though news and documentaries intend to capture real life events, they are constructed and designed with a certain target in mind and the audience does not see what is ignored or rejected (Thoman 1999; Nelmes 2012). Sherman (2003) also warns educators about some of the pitfalls with using these types of videos in the language classroom. She presents the problem of falsification in non-fiction videos. Because we are more likely to believe what we presented through non-fiction genres is true, it is important to make the students aware of this.

The challenges that arise when using news broadcast videos in the classroom are highly connected to the level of the learners. The research of Bahrani and Sim (2012) has examined the effectiveness of exposure to news on improving language proficiency in lower level learners. While not undermining its value with intermediate and advanced level learners, they found that beginner level learners did not particularly profit from audiovisual news (Bahrani and Sim 2012: 63). News segments contain highly specialized language in quick dialogue that may be difficult to understand in a foreign language. Bell (2003) describes the fast pace and heavy amount of information in news programs as a possible distracting factor as there are “three competing sources of information: the image, the caption and the spoken text.” Also, the news often contains references to situations and people that may be unknown to the viewer and some teachers therefore struggle with linking it to other classroom work (Sherman 2003: 69).

Biased news coverage is another challenge that must be considered by educators who choose to use the news in their teaching. One American news outlet that has been criticized for this is Fox News. The channel has been accused of projecting news from a conservative and right wing perspective. The bias political nature of Fox News came as a response to what its creator deemed as left-wing bias of the news network CNN (Monaco and Lindroth 2009: 558). According to Monaco and Lindroth (2009: 558) “no organization – political or journalistic – has done more to divide us into Reds [republicans] and Blues [democrats].” The problem with this type of news coverage is that it can influence students in their perception of issues in the target-language culture. Even though the one-sidedness of some news coverage may pose some problems in the foreign language classroom, it can be exploited as a means of teaching critical media literacy.
In spite of the many advantages of using documentaries in the foreign language classroom, educators will have to be aware of the potential limitations of this type of audiovisual material. Hart (1992: 1) claims that authentic video such as documentaries are often difficult to use in class because “the language is colloquial, dense and rapidly paced” and are often “unsuitable length for classroom study.” Even though documentaries are shorter than feature films, usually at 30-60 minutes, they still take up a considerable amount of classroom time (Sherman 2003: 64). Furthermore, the documentary genre is not necessarily as appealing to young people as popular movies (Simpson 2008: 107) and it is often though of a “too in depth” for foreign language learners (Sherman 2003: 64); the sentences are longer and there is less emotional excitement and narrative curiosity. Therefore, documentaries are often “heavy on the attention” (Sherman 2003: 64), making it important to involve students and find topics that interest them in order to facilitate comprehension and maintain their concentration.

Even though using short videos as opposed to feature length videos reduces the actual viewing time, set-up time and time spent finding suitable videos are some of the concerns that are the most prevalent challenges accounted for in various literature about video-based teaching. A general pattern seems to be that some teachers regard the use of video as more of a nuisance than an aid in their teaching. It is a time-consuming task to find videos as teachers have a responsibility for ensuring that the videos they use are appropriate in the classroom context. Rackaway (2012) observed that many of his colleagues were unwilling or unable to devote time to collecting video materials.

Another practical issue involves the availability of the necessary technological equipment needed for viewing videos in the classroom. Sherman (2003: 4) remarks that using short video sequences requires having the equipment readily accessible in the classroom and not hidden in a darkened room. Not having the right tools available at the right time makes the effort of viewing videos strenuous as set-up time might end up taking longer than the actual viewing. Relying on an online source such as YouTube can occasionally create problems if Internet access is unstable. In addition, several schools create firewalls that deliberately block YouTube and other social networking sites to avoid harmful content (Jones and Cuthrell 2011: 82). However, Jones and Cuthrell (2011) offer a solution to this problem by suggesting that teachers download and save YouTube videos prior to showing them in their classrooms.
In terms of content, there are several issues to consider when using YouTube in the classroom. A vital part of using YouTube is being able to distinguish between what is worthwhile and what should be avoided. Since YouTube will allow anyone to upload videos, foul language and inappropriate content is prevalent. This is one of the major issues with YouTube, according to Pensky (2012), as there is not yet an effective way of evaluating and filtering videos in terms of harmful and offensive language and content (Prensky 2012: 148).

The communication aspect of YouTube comments may give rise to a few challenges in the language classroom. When examining comments on YouTube videos, Koh (2014: 631) discovered that a large portion of the comments were derogative, manipulative or simply emotive. While still seeing the value of using YouTube and its comments as a tool for increasing awareness for moral behavior, she believes that teachers should exploit this resource with careful consideration. She claims that the option of anonymity when commenting on YouTube videos may cause the comments to be antagonistic (Koh 2014: 623).

As this chapter has shown, there are several layers to the discussion of underlying theories and assumptions about the use of video to teach about race in the English language classroom. The chapter has discussed how video affects the brains and motivation of students and how the use of video to teach race can facilitate the learning of skills in visual literacy, critical literacy, media literacy and racial literacy. In addition, various literature on the benefits and challenges of using short video, and YouTube specifically, in the language classroom has been examined. The theory discussed in this chapter has laid the foundation for the research that this thesis will carry out.
3. Materials and Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to describe the materials and methods used to investigate the following research questions:

- How are short videos currently used in lower secondary EFL classrooms in the Stavanger area?

- What are lower secondary teachers’ attitudes towards short videos and what educational challenges and benefits have they experienced when using short videos in their English teaching?

- What are lower secondary students’ attitudes towards video teaching in EFL?

- How do Norwegian lower secondary students respond to being taught race using short videos from YouTube?

The research in this thesis was conducted using a mixed method approach that combined qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. The chapter will begin by defining quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approaches. Next, a description the data collection process and the specific methods and materials used in the research is provided. Finally, a section is devoted to discussing the ethical issues and limitations of the research.
3.2. Quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approaches

Quantitative data was collected through a teacher questionnaire. Quantitative data differs from qualitative data in its numerical and statistical nature. Quantitative research sets out to answer questions such as “how much?” or “how many?” (Hesse-Biber and Leavy 2011: 279), and quantitative research generates data that are either numbers or elements that can be arranged in terms of magnitude (Check and Schutt 2012: 10). Common quantitative methods in educational research include surveys and experiments that result in numerical data (Check and Schutt 2012: 10).

Qualitative research aims to study people or issues in detail and often aims to answer questions such as “how” and “why.” The focus in qualitative research is on peoples’ experiences and behavior, and how this is shaped by social, economical and cultural factors (Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey 2011: 26). Examples of qualitative research methods include in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, observation and content analysis (Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey 2011: 9). The qualitative data in this thesis was collected using a case study approach where the students in a tenth grade class were interviewed about their experiences after being taught contemporary race issues in the USA through the use of different types of short videos.

Mixing methods in the same research may be done in two different ways: intermethod mixing and intramethod mixing. Intermethod mixing is a term used to refer to the use of several methods in the same research project, while intramethod mixing is when there are both qualitative and quantitative elements in a single method (Check and Schutt 2012: 243). This thesis will include both intermethod and intramethod mixing. Intermethod mixing takes place as data has been collected through the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, namely questionnaires and interviews. Intramethod mixing occurs in the teacher questionnaire since it includes both closed-ended and open-ended questions.

Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011: 279) claim that combining several methods “can create a synergistic research project in which one method enables the other to be more effective.” Both the qualitative and quantitative methods aim to answer more than one of the research questions in this study. The use of multiple methods to study the same research question in called triangulation, and can enable the researcher to get a more complete view of the educational situation by viewing it for different perspectives (Check and Schutt 2012: 11). In this thesis, a
mixed approach was used in order to look at the same topic from the viewpoint of two different groups of participants: teachers and students. Focus group interviews aimed to capture the students’ attitudes and experiences with the use of short videos, while questionnaire surveys were intended to reflect the frequency and nature of teachers’ short video usage, and what they believe to be benefits and challenges connected to it.

3.3. Teacher questionnaire

Check and Schutt (2012: 160) define survey research as “the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions.” A common survey method is the questionnaire, which is “a survey instrument containing the questions in a self-administered survey.” (Check and Schutt 2012: 161)

A link to a voluntary questionnaire was sent to 97 English teachers at 15 different lower secondary schools in the Stavanger area. 39 teachers decided to take part in the questionnaire, making the percentage of participation 40%. The questionnaire was a digital survey delivered to the participants via their work e-mails, which were obtained by contacting the administrations of the individual schools. The questionnaire was a digital survey designed using www.surveymonkey.com, which is an online survey-making tool that enables both companies and private agents to share and collect responses to self-created questionnaires. Depending on the type of subscription, Survey Monkey also provides various data analysis services. Testing of questionnaires can also be done in Survey Monkey before launching them. In this study, testing the questions beforehand estimated that the questionnaire would take approximately 5 minutes for the teachers to complete. Survey Monkey also enables users to select several different question types. The questionnaire in this study had ten questions and used different question types: multiple choice, Likert scales, semantic differential scales and open-ended questions. Some of the multiple-choice questions also enabled the respondents to select several options and other questions gave the respondents the opportunity provide additional options that were not listed. Lastly, Survey Monkey includes a feature that made it possible to anonymize the responses, which prevented the researcher from identifying the respondents through the IP addresses of their computers.
Data collection through a web-based survey was chosen because of its benefits in terms of time, effort and financial resources. Dörnyei (2007: 121) mentions several benefits of using web-based surveys. Firstly, the cost of setting up an internet-based survey is low as most universities and research institutes have necessary equipment. Secondly, the convenience of the self-running administration is a benefit; this saves time, as the researcher will not have to hand out the questionnaires in person. This also opens up for larger samples as a survey can be administered to anywhere in the world where there is Internet connection, as well as making it easier to access smaller and more specialized populations. A third benefit is the level of anonymity that an Internet-based questionnaire can entail. Internet-based survey platforms such as Survey Monkey usually give the option of anonymizing responses before the questionnaire is sent out. Check and Schutt (2012: 176) argue that Internet surveys are beneficial in the data analysis process. As answers are collected directly in the researcher’s database, the chance of data entry error is little. In addition, most Internet-based survey tools provide automatically formatted quantitative data, making presentation of data less demanding and requiring very little mathematical competence on the researcher’s part.

3.3.1. Participants

The participants for the teacher questionnaire were selected through purposive sampling. This involves selecting participants who have a unique position or particular knowledge about a topic or issue that is relevant to the research (Check and Schutt 2012: 104). In this research, respondents were selected because of their positions as lower secondary EFL teachers in the Stavanger area. Information about the participants’ age, gender and amount of teaching experience was not known to the researcher. The population of the study becomes lower secondary teachers in the Stavanger area, and the sample is the teachers who were sent the questionnaire. Non-respondents refer to the entities or people of the sample who decided not to respond to the questionnaire.
3.3.2. Question items

The purpose of the questionnaire in this research was to examine the research question about how short videos are currently used in lower secondary EFL classrooms in the Stavanger area, and to obtain more information on teachers’ points of view regarding the benefits and challenges connected to it.

The teacher questionnaire included two of the broad question types that Dörnyei (2007: 102) refers to: behavioral questions and attitudinal questions. Behavioral questions aim to find out “what the responders are doing or have done in the past, focusing on actions, life-styles, habits, and personal history.” (Dörnyei 2007: 102) In this questionnaire, this involved questions about how often and in what ways the respondents used videos in their EFL classrooms. Attitudinal questions are used to “find out what people think, covering attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests and values.” (Dörnyei 2007: 102) This question type was represented by open-ended questions about what the teachers believed to be benefits and challenges of using short videos in their English teaching, as well as questions where the responders were asked to consider to what extent they agreed or disagreed on a number of statements about the use of short videos in the EFL classroom.

The questionnaire contained ten questions where eight questions were closed-ended questions and two questions were open-ended questions. Closed-ended questions have explicit response categories, while open-ended questions require respondents to provide answers in their own words. The closed-ended questions were used in order to answer the research question about how short videos are currently used in lower secondary EFL classrooms in Rogaland. Having explicit response options makes it easier for respondents to answer the question and makes sure that the respondents answers the questions that the researcher really wants them to answer (Check and Schutt 2012: 75). In addition, closed-ended questions are manageable in terms of clear data presentation. Open-ended questions were used as a way of opening up for individual thought on the topic. This was useful for investigating the research questions about the teachers’ experience of benefits and challenges of using short videos, since this question requires a highly subjective response.

The close-ended questions varied in type: multiple choice, Likert scales and semantic differential scales. The multiple-choice questions included both questions where the respondent
could only check one option and questions that allowed them to check several options (this was stated in the question text). In addition, some of the questions included an “other” option, where the respondents could include a reply that was not provided as an option in the question.

A Likert scale item requires the respondent to indicate to which extent they “agree” or “disagree” with a statement (Dörnyei 2007: 105). In this questionnaire, a section required the respondents to range four statements on a five-point scale from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” The option of “neither agree/disagree” was also provided. This attitudinal question aimed to determine what the respondents’ thoughts are on different statements about the use of short videos in their English teaching. Moreover, a semantic differential scale aimed to find out the frequency of various occurrences in the classroom when short videos are used. A semantic differential scale requires respondents to reply by marking their answer on a provided continuum (Dörnyei 2007: 105). In this case, a scale from “never” to “always” was provided.

The questions were sequenced from general to specific, and from closed-ended to open-ended. Dörnyei (2007: 112) claims that open-ended questions should be placed towards the end of a questionnaire in order to avoid the potential negative consequences of the open-ended question affecting the other items. Also, many respondents find it more acceptable to put in more effort with the open-ended question if they have already spent time answering the questionnaire and know that it is the last question.

The quantitative data from the questionnaire is presented using descriptive figures and tables in Appendix 1. Since the questionnaire also contained open-ended questions, qualitative analysis will also be necessary (Dörnyei 2007: 101). However, open-ended questions in a questionnaire will most likely not result in answers as rich and detailed as when using qualitative methods such as interviews (Dörnyei 2007: 105).

The questionnaire was piloted on two teachers-in-training and one elementary school English teacher. This was done in order to ensure the clarity and relevance of the questions, as well as a way of indicating the amount of time needed to complete the survey. In that way, participants could be informed about the approximate time it would take them to complete the questionnaire.
3.4. Case study

In order to obtain data from the students’ perspective, a case-study approach was used. A case study is “a setting or a group that the analyst treats as an integrated social unit that must be studied holistically and in its particularity.” (Check and Schutt 2012: 387) As a qualitative research approach, the case study aims to give a “thick description” of the setting being studied (Check and Schutt 2012: 190). According to Dörnyei (2007: 155), case studies are ideally suited for being combined with other research approaches in a mixed method research. This particular case study can be classified as an “instrumental case study” as it is intended to give an insight into a wider issue: the effect of using short videos in lower secondary EFL teaching (Dörnyei 2007: 152).

As a part of this thesis, a case study on the use of short videos in lower secondary school was carried out in a tenth grade class in a relatively small rural school. The class consisted of thirteen students at the age of 15-16. This case study was done as an intervention study consisting of a classroom project of three consecutive 60-minute lessons followed by focus group interviews. The researcher conducted both the lessons and interviews. The three lessons were taught in the same day, and the interviews were held two days later.

3.4.1. Participants

Thirteen students, five boys and seven girls, were present during the classroom project, and 11 of them agreed to be interviewed. One of the students who attended the interviews was not present during the lessons, but contributed during the general questions about the use of short videos and YouTube. Even though six of the students had other ethnic backgrounds than Norwegian, they all spoke Norwegian fluently and can be categorized generally as white Europeans.

The classroom was selected by convenience as the researcher was employed at the school in question, but the researcher did not have previous experience teaching this particular student group. Sampling on the basis of convenience is a common practice in post-graduate research due to constraints in time and resources. Convenience sampling can often result in a rich data set because participants who are familiar with the researcher tend to be more willing to get engaged in a study (Dörnyei 2007: 129). Since qualitative studies seek to describe and understand human
experience, they are not usually concerned with the representativeness of the sample. Instead, the main goal is to find a sample that can provide the research with useful insights about the phenomenon under study (Dörnyei 2007: 126)

Convenience samples are rarely completely convenience-based; participants will usually have key characteristics that are purposeful in the study (Dörnyei 2007: 99). In this study the target population is lower secondary school EFL learners in Norway. The chosen sample therefore has characteristics in common with the target population: they are lower secondary students who study English as a foreign language. Furthermore, the class follows the same national curriculum as the target population and will therefore have the same prerequisites and guidelines for the subject as any other Norwegian tenth grade class.

3.4.2 The classroom study

The topic for the three case study lessons was race issues in contemporary American society. Norwegian lower secondary school students are required to learn about the societies and cultures of English speaking countries. As the English subject curriculum states, the students should be able to “discuss and elaborate on the way people live and how they socialise in Great Britain, USA, and other English-speaking countries and Norway.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 9) Race is still an ongoing and significant issue in the current US society, but to fully understand its substance, some background information is essential. The research class had studied race in America from a historical perspective in the weeks preceding the classroom study, which gave them a basis for understanding the contemporary situation. In addition, one of the competence aims states that the students should be able to “demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 9) This was an important part of this classroom study as the students were examining videos and looking for clues as to how race was spoken about or dealt with. One of the main purposes of using the topic of race was that practicing critical thinking was one of the main aims of the lessons. The controversial nature of race and the role it continues to play in the US society made it useful and interesting as a springboard for critical discussion. Also, as mentioned in Chapter 2, Brown and Brown (2011) claim that many textbooks do not deal properly with race
and racial violence and they therefore recommend using additional texts and various media when teaching this.

The lessons were conducted with the following learning aim drawn out by the researcher: “be able to discuss race relations from different viewpoints, and become aware of how the media can influence people’s views on race issues.” The purpose of the lessons was to evaluate the effect of using short videos to reach this learning aim by giving students the tools to develop media literacy skills and extend their critical thinking abilities while covering various curriculum objectives. In order to reach these aims, it is necessary to work towards developing skills in several types of literacy: racial literacy, media literacy, critical literacy and visual literacy.

Two categories of authentic video materials were used in order to reach the aim: documentaries and news broadcasts. The purpose of using these types of videos was that they were non-fiction videos with authentic language. Both documentaries and news aim to represent reality, and express in one way or another topics that are important in a society. Furthermore, both the documentary and news videos were used with the intention of students discovering how these genres, even though they appear to describe reality, can contain elements of persuasion and bias.

The news videos that were shown in the lessons were both news segments following the Ferguson shooting and protests. This incident involved Darren Wilson, a white policeman, shooting the unarmed black teenager Michael Brown in Ferguson, Missouri in August 2014. This resulted in massive protests and riots in the city, where protesters demonstrated against what they believed was a racially motivated act by the policeman, as well as systematic police discrimination against people of color.

All three of the videos were found on YouTube. This site was chosen as a source for the videos because it is the world’s largest video sharing site containing a wide variety of videos for different purposes. This makes videos on virtually any topic easily accessible for classroom use. With over a billions users (YouTube 2016c), YouTube has become part of young people’s “heavy media diet” (Kavoori 2011: 7); therefore the students in the research class would already be acquainted with the site.

YouTube contains both user created content and mainstream media content. Most news and entertainment outlets have their own verified YouTube channels, making their video
materials reliable and accessible. The case study lessons used three videos from three different mainstream media outlets: MTV, NBC News and Fox News.

Kavoori (2011: 8) claims that “watching YouTube is fundamentally different from watching television or film: *You make time to watch television or film, you watch YouTube when you have little time.*” The easy access and often compressed and short videos on YouTube can make it an effective classroom tool. Because of time constraints in the classroom, feature length videos will not always be appropriate as educational material. According to the aims of the case study lessons in this research, short news clips and a 30-minute documentary from YouTube were suitable video materials in order to get an insight into the topic.

Kavoori (2011: 5) describes YouTube as a specific kind of web text with three components – the dominating primary video, the visual side bar of supplementary videos, and the comments beneath. The commenting feature makes YouTube more than a video library; this provides a participatory element that can be utilized in the classroom. In the case-study lessons, a selection of comments found under the documentary *White People* was discussed. This was a way of practicing critical literacy in a context that the students are often in, aiming to give them skills they could also use outside the classroom.

At the beginning of the lessons, two different news broadcast videos from two different American news channels were shown to the students. The videos both lasted between two and three minutes. The two videos were chosen in order to illustrate how American news can often contain biased reporting. The aim was for the students to detect and evaluate the effect of the means by which the two news reports differed in their treatment of the same issue. The two news channels NBC News and Fox News were chosen because of their sometimes-conflicting values and political objectives. Fox News has previously been criticized for bias news covering, tending to lean towards right-wing Republican values. NBC News has also on occasion been condemned for one-sided news reporting, for example when the channel was accused of altering a 911 call made by George Zimmerman, a neighborhood watchman who fatally shot black unarmed teenager Trayvon Martin in 2012 (Martinez 2012). This alteration made the shooting seem more racially motivated than the original conversation indicated.

The news clips that were shown in the lessons include two rather contrasting narratives about Michael Brown and the protesters. The Fox News segment contains Bill O’Reilly and Bernie Goldberg discussing the riots, claiming that Michael Brown was at fault for his own death
and that the demonstrators wrongfully celebrated him as a Civil Rights martyr. The NBC news clip reports directly from Ferguson, talking to an eyewitness and featuring Brown’s crying mother. The images used to illustrate Michael Brown and the demonstrators differ greatly in the two videos. The NBC News clip includes three different photos of Michael Brown as a backdrop when pointing out that he had recently graduated from high school and was soon to begin college. These photos contrast with the one photo of Brown that Fox News presents as they speak about him stealing from a store, which is visibly darker than the images used in the NBC clip. Images of protestors also give contrasting messages in the two clips: Fox News features three photos of people looting a store at night, while NBC News shows a daytime peaceful protest where demonstrators are holding their hands above their heads. In addition, the language used by the respective news outlets ranged from describing protestors as expressing “outrage” in NBC’s report to “running wild” in the Fox News segment (“Michael Brown Shot To Death By Police | NBC news [videoclip]” 2014; “Fox News Mike Brown [videoclip]” 2015).

These very different portrayals of Michael Brown and the protestors made good starting points for critical discussion about race and the media. What was pointed out to the students, however, was that the NBC report aired soon after the shooting happened, while the Fox News video aired some time after when more information about the shooting had been made public.

When designing the classroom project, Lebedko’s three categories of EFL video activities were considered and used: Topic Focus (TF), Language Focus (LF) and Culture Focus (CF) (Lebedko 1999: 2). Before viewing the videos, it was necessary to explain the events and to raise the students’ interest in the topic, thus engaging in a topic focus (TF) activity. At this stage language focus (LF) activities were also carried out as new key vocabulary items needed to be addresses in order to facilitate understanding of the news broadcasts. With the aim of increasing the students’ cultural competence, the discussions and worksheets involved identifying and observing the cultural conditions, thus having the students engage in culture focus (CF) activities.

After viewing the videos, the students were asked to discuss the purpose of watching the two videos and discussions were carried out in groups with the key critical media literacy questions by Thoman (2003) as a basis (see chapter 2). This was used in order for the students to evaluate media messages based on who created the message and why, what techniques were used, what values and points of view were represented, and how people may experience media messages differently (Thoman 2003: 278). This was a culture focus exercise as it aimed to
discuss the cultural issues of police brutality and media representation, while it also fostered critical thinking.

During the second section of the lessons the documentary *White People* (MTV 2015) was shown and discussed. This documentary is a part of MTV’s campaign “Look Different” which is aimed at young people and addresses hidden race and gender biases in the American society. The campaign addresses young people with the following aim: “We’ll help you unlearn biases, open up conversations with family & friends and always give you specific things you can do to make things better.” (MTV 2014) *White People* attempts to explain race relations in America from the viewpoint of young white Americans, and deals with many taboo subjects such as “white privilege” and “reverse racism,” and challenges several assumptions of what role race plays in the life of different groups of people. When MTV’s publication was released in 2015, the response to the documentary was mixed and generated quite a lot of negative comments both from Americans and other nationalities on YouTube. Much of the discussion was rooted in whether the documentary was racist towards white people by pointing out white privilege.

This particular documentary was chosen both for its form and content. As mentioned above, the topic of race corresponded with various national curriculum aims and the progression of the English subject for the particular research class, thus making contemporary race issues a suitable topic. The documentary includes a section on Native Americans today, and therefore also covers the following curriculum aim: “describe and reflect on the situation of indigenous peoples in English-speaking countries.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013) Also, the accessibility and length of the video made it suitable in a classroom context. Since the classroom had Internet access and the documentary was available on MTV’s YouTube channel, it could easily be obtained and presented on the projector in the classroom. The documentary is 41 minutes long, but its structure of multiple themes and storylines enables one to select and view shorter sections according to the educational purpose. In the case study lessons, the last ten minutes of the documentary were omitted with the purpose of only including what was directly relevant to the focus of the lessons. The age of the students was also a factor when choosing *White People*. The students fit the target audience of the documentary – young teenagers.

In order to prepare for watching *White People*, the students were asked to respond to a pre-watching activity with a number of statements from a “White Privilege Checklist” (Appendix 8). This list was adapted by the researcher from Peggy McIntosh’s list from 1988, which includes
several societal privileges that McIntosh believes white people have due to their skin color. McIntosh (1988) drew out this list in order to illustrate and emphasize the daily conditions and benefits that she believes she has not earned, but came to believe were granted to her because of her white skin. The conditions on the list in her words “attach somewhat more to skin-color privilege than to class, religion, ethnic status or geographical location.” (Mcintosh 1988: 5) Her list includes examples such as “I can be sure that if I need legal or medical help, my race will not work against me.” (Mcintosh 1988: 5-9)

The list that was given to the students was adapted by the researcher, and included some of the points from McIntosh’s list that the students could relate to their own lives. Brown and Brown (2011), recommends connecting the teaching of race to students’ own experiences. Therefore, students were asked to check off the statements on the list that applied to them in order to internalize the concept of “white privilege” and give it personal relevance to them.

In order to ensure comprehension, and at the advice of the teacher of the class, the video was stopped at certain points in order to recap and discuss content and vocabulary. After finishing the documentary, the students were shown several YouTube comments that had come as a reaction to the documentary. In this Culture Focus activity, the students were asked to discuss the content of the different comments to see how the documentary can be interpreted in a number of ways from various perspectives. Lastly, the students were given a worksheet to be completed individually as a post viewing and culture focus activity (Appendix 7).

3.4.3. Focus group interviews

Following the lessons, eleven of the students agreed to be interviewed and were divided into groups of three to four. As a way of mapping out the situation with video usage at the particular school, the first part of the interviews contained questions about the students’ experience with the use of short videos in the classroom and YouTube in general. In the second section of the interviews, questions were asked in order to examine how the students responded to being taught race using short videos during the classroom study lessons. This was done through focus group interviews, which involve multiple participants being interviewed simultaneously in a group setting. Focus group interviews are “designed to elicit perceptions, information, attitudes and ideas from a group in which each participant possesses experience with the phenomenon under
study.” (Kelly 2003: 50) In this case, the students who were interviewed all possessed experience with using short videos in class, since they had attended the lessons taught by the researcher. This method was therefore appropriate as the purpose of this part of the study was to evaluate the effect of and attitude towards the use of short videos in learning about race issues in an EFL classroom.

According to Kelly (2003: 55), focus group interviews are more time efficient and may generate richer data than individual interviews. Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011: 167) argue that the unique source of data that the “group effect” provides in a focus group interview is not equivalent to the data collected by the same amount of participants in individual interviews. Useful data can be retrieved through the interaction between the participants. Participants in a group interview can interact through agreement or disagreement, or by challenging each other’s views. In this research, focus group interviews were also chosen in order to create a comfortable and relaxed interview situation where the students were able to engage in discussions with their peers. Even though the group size (three or four students) is a smaller number than the recommended six to ten participants in a focus group session, smaller groups might create more opportunity for every person to participate, thus generating more in-depth responses (Liamputtong 2011).

Focus group interviews may vary in their degree of structure, but a semi-structured variant is common as it may include both open-ended and closed-ended questions and open for unplanned follow-up questions (Dörnyei 2007: 144). For the purpose of this study, the interviews were semi-structured including both specific and general questions. In preparation for the interviews, the questions were sent to the research class’ teacher in order to ensure that the questions were at a comprehensible level. In addition, the interview was piloted with one of the researcher’s peers.

During focus group interviews, the researcher acts as a “moderator.” The role of the moderator goes beyond merely asking questions; this includes leading and facilitating the conversation in a way that balances the participation of interviewees and opens up for critical discussion (Dörnyei 2007: 145). An interview guide (Appendix 3) was used as an instrument to assist the researcher during the interviews. At the beginning of the interview, the students were encouraged to give their true opinion and avoid saying what they believed the researcher wanted to hear.
The questions in the interview guide were divided into two sections. One set of questions was about the use of YouTube and short videos in general and the other set of questions was about the classroom project. The function of an interview guide is to guide, but not govern a focus group interview. Therefore, additional follow-up questions were asked at certain points in the interview.

The interviews were held in a small meeting room at the research school. The interviewer and the interviewees were sitting around a round table, which created an inclusive and collaborative atmosphere where all the participants had equal opportunities to answer. The interviewer had only the interview guide on paper on the table during the interviews in order to avoid a barrier that a computer might cause between the interviewer and the interviewees. Furthermore, the interviews were held in Norwegian in order to ensure that language inhibition did not impede the participants’ willingness to answer the questions and engage in the discussions. The interviews were recorded using a voice-recording device in order to retrieve, transcribe and analyze the data at a later stage in the research. The interviews were transcribed in full, and can be found in Appendix 10.

3.5. Ethical issues and limitations

3.5.1. Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are quality criteria and should be taken into consideration in any research (Dörnyei 2007). Validity concerns itself with the plausibility and meaningfulness of a research project, and the extent to which the study measures what it intends to measure and whether the findings can be generalized beyond the research project (Dörnyei 2007: 52). Reliability deals with the extent to which the research approaches are trustworthy and give consistent results (Dörnyei 2007: 57).

Using mixed methods to examine the research questions in a complementary way can serve as a “validity check” of the research data (Hesse-Biber and Leavy 2011: 281). In this thesis, both qualitative and quantitative measures are used to examine the effects of, the attitudes towards and the use of short videos in the lower secondary EFL classroom in the Stavanger area.
Corresponding findings in a mixed method approach can increase the generalizability of the results (Dörnyei 2007: 46).

Generalizability in research is the extent to which the research conclusions can be used to make assumptions about people or conditions that were not directly involved in the study (Check and Schutt 2012: 38). A distinction can be made between “internal generalizability” and “external generalizability,” where internal generalizability involves generalizing within the institution or community that that is being studied, while external generalizability deals with generalization to other institutions or communities. Quantitative and qualitative methods deal with generalizability differently: external generalizability is most important in quantitative research, while qualitative research is typically interested in internal generalizability (Dörnyei 2007: 58-59). The quantitative part of this research involved teacher questionnaires where they were asked about their use of short videos in their EFL teaching. Even though the sample for the questionnaire was restricted to Rogaland, there is no reason to believe that the teachers in this study do not resemble lower secondary teachers from other parts of Norway, thus making external generalization possible from the findings. Even though the qualitative findings from the case study in this research give interesting insight into the effects of using short videos to teach about race in a particular tenth grade class, it should be noted that as every classroom is unique, and that the findings might not be applicable to all situations. Since the class only contained thirteen students, it was smaller than an average Norwegian school class. The class does, however, follow the same national curriculum and have the same prerequisites in the English subject as other tenth grade students in Norway.

Both the interviews and the questionnaire were piloted before being conducted with the research subjects in order to check if the questions were understandable and measure what they intend to measure – the use of short videos in lower secondary EFL classes in the Stavanger area in the teacher questionnaire and effects of using short videos to teach race in a lower secondary EFL class in the case study.

By conducting all of the interviews with the same interview guide and under the same conditions, the reliability of the study is strengthened. Furthermore, checking for consistency across the focus group interviews and analyzing the results under the same criteria adds reliability.
3.5.2 Informed consent

Before data could be collected, Norsk Samfunnsvitenskapelige Datatjeneste (NSD) was informed about the nature and content of the data collection process. The project satisfied the requirements of the Norwegian Personal Data Act (Personopplysningsloven).

Since the students in the study had all turned 15 years old, NSD guidelines did not require parental consent. The students themselves signed a consent form (Appendix 6) where they agreed to participate. The consent form provided written information about the aims of the project, the interview procedure, and the application of anonymity and confidentiality in the study.

Written information about the project and the teacher questionnaire was also provided to the teachers (Appendix 5). This was a part of the e-mail sent out with the questionnaire link. The information included the practices of anonymity and confidentiality connected to the questionnaire. Also, information about the approximate amount of time required to complete the questionnaire was provided.

3.5.3 Confidentiality and anonymity

Confidentiality and anonymity in a research setting are means of protecting the research subjects by preventing identifying information from being available to other people than the researcher. In this research, confidentiality and anonymity were ensured in a number of ways. In the case study, the name of the research school is hidden from the thesis and the subjects are referred to in pseudonyms. Since the researcher was employed at the school in question, a confidentiality agreement had been signed at the school. All data collected from the interviews were accessed only by the researcher and were securely stored on the researcher’s computer protected by a password.

Anonymity in the questionnaire was ensured before it was sent out by checking off an option in Survey Monkey that made the IP addresses of the participants unavailable to the researcher. The only identifying information the available to the researcher was the name of the schools to which the questionnaires were sent, and this information is not revealed in the thesis. In addition, the results from the questionnaire were available only to the researcher and were secured in a personal Survey Monkey account protected by a username and password. Survey
Monkey’s privacy policy states that they treat survey data as private information and do not sell it to any third parties without consent (Survey Monkey 2015).

3.5.4 Limitations

One major limitation of voluntary electronic questionnaires sent via e-mail is the risk of non-response. This may result in low participation rates and gives the researcher less control over the sample size. Moreover, individuals who decide to participate may differ systematically from those who decide not to take part (Check and Schutt 2012: 97). For instance, in this case volunteers may be different from non-volunteers in their motivation and willingness to use short videos in their English teaching. Teachers who were not interested in this aspect in their English teaching might have declined the invitation to answer, making the results reflect more the use and attitudes of those who actively use short videos in their EFL teaching rather than those who do not. Because of the scope of the research and a considerable amount of non-response, the number of participants in the questionnaire was relatively small (39 participants). However, the homogeneity of the sample, namely lower secondary EFL teachers in the Stavanger area, allows for a smaller sample size (Check and Schutt 2012: 110). As time is often a deciding factor for participation, the questionnaire was made more appealing by restricting the number of questions and time of completion to five minutes or less, thus making it more manageable and less time-consuming for the teachers to answer. Despite this, several respondents decided not to answer the open-ended questions at the end of the questionnaire.

Since the classroom study was conducted as an intervention in the teaching, one limiting factor to consider is that the students could possibly have behaved differently than they would do in their normal day-to-day English lessons. Since the class’s English teacher was not present during the lessons, it is difficult to conclude if this was the case and whether it had any impact on the results. Furthermore, the size of the research class in the case study is smaller than a typical class. This will, as mentioned above, impact the extent to which it can be generalized.

In focus group interviews, “groupthink” might somewhat hinder the data collection process (Dörnyei 2007: 145). Depending on the group dynamic and individual attributes of the participants, dominant individuals can control the conversation. This can cause introverted participants to refrain from answering questions or simply nod in agreement even though they do
not necessarily agree. Another factor that is difficult to measure is “social desirability bias” (Dörnyei 2007: 54). This takes into account whether the students try to meet expectations that they believe are connected to the study by over-reporting desirable attitudes and underreporting negative attitudes. In the case of this study, this could involve the students not fully expressing their potentially negative thoughts about the use of short videos in the case study lessons.
4. Results

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the digital teacher questionnaire and case study about the use of short videos in lower secondary EFL teaching. As mentioned in the previous chapter, a mixed method approach was used to collect data in this study. Quantitative data was obtained through a teacher questionnaire, while interviews provided the research with qualitative material. In section 4.2 the results from the teacher questionnaires are presented, while section 4.3 reports the findings from the focus group interviews with students after a classroom project.

4.2. Teacher questionnaire

This section presents the results from the teacher questionnaire. The questionnaire was voluntary and a link containing the questionnaire was sent via e-mail to 97 English teachers at 15 different lower secondary schools in the Stavanger area. 39 teachers decided to partake in the questionnaire, making the response rate 40%.

The questionnaire contained both closed-ended and open-ended questions, where some of the closed-ended questions included an “other” option where the participants could provide additional responses. The results of the closed-ended questions are described in section 4.2.1 and the answers to the open-ended questions are presented in sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3. Charts and tables showing the results are provided in Appendix 1. Transcriptions of the focus group interviews with the students are provided in Appendix 10 and an outline of the most central findings from the interviews is presented at the end of this chapter (section 4.3).
4.2.1. The use of short videos in EFL teaching

The initial questions in the questionnaire asked the teachers to choose an option about approximately how often they used feature-length films and YouTube in their EFL teaching. A comparison of the answers is provided in Figure 1 (see Appendix 1). All of the teachers who answered the questionnaire responded that they had used YouTube in their English teaching, and most of them reported using it one or two times per month, while 18% entered that they used YouTube as often as every week. Respondents also reported that they use YouTube more frequently in their EFL teaching than full-length videos. Full-length videos are used one or two times a year among most respondents. A small portion of the respondents said they have never used a full-length video in their EFL teaching, while 8% said they used full-length videos as often as every week in their teaching.

The respondents were also asked what types of short videos they used in their EFL classrooms. The results of this question in presented in Figure 2 and show that YouTube is used for a wide range of video types, including: historical videos, documentaries, animations/educational videos, music videos and news broadcasts. “Humour” and “interviews” were also mentioned when respondents were given the option to state “other” categories. One teacher reported using BBC news, while another teacher used “potentially all of the above if relevant.” (Appendix 1)

When asked to check off what was important when selecting short videos for classroom use, the most prominent response was that the content related to the curriculum (Figure 3). Additionally, the respondents regarded authentic language, student interest in the topic and whether the content related to units in the textbook as important factors when selecting videos. Some respondents supplemented by adding other reasons for selecting videos. The answers included reasons such as “That content and language is not too demanding according to what pupils can be expected to understand,” that the videos contain “Updated, relevant content as a basis for conversation,” and that the videos have “Entertainment value.”
The survey also sought out to determine what skills the teachers wanted their students to achieve when watching short videos, and the teachers were provided with a list of options to check off (Figure 4, Appendix 1). Results show that the teachers are usually aiming for the students to gain several different skills simultaneously when using short videos, with cultural insight and listening comprehension skills as the dominant skills, and grammar knowledge as the aim of the fewest teachers. Additional aims that the teachers mentioned under “other” included “learning history,” giving the students “different perspectives of a story we have read,” an “interest in current events” and to “expand their horizon.”

The questionnaire also required the respondents to choose an option on a scale from “never” to “always” as a response to three different statements about their use of short videos in their English teaching (Table 1a-c, Appendix 1). In the first statement the teachers were asked how often they used short videos as a reward for good behavior. As the Table 1a shows, most of the teachers say that they never use short videos as a reward for good behavior, while 35% say that this is sometimes the case. None of the teachers claim that they do this “often” or “always.” Furthermore, the majority of respondents said that their students are “often” or “always” engaged in lessons where video clips are used (Table 1b, Appendix 1). Moreover, Table 1c suggests that all of the participating teachers have used activities alongside short videos at one point. More than half of the respondents claimed to use activities often in relation to short videos, while 18% replied that they always used activities.

The responses to which types of activities that the respondents use alongside short videos in their teaching are presented in Figure 5. As can be seen in the figure, different variations of discussions and worksheets seem to be the most common activities used with short videos in the respondents’ classrooms. Under the “other” option, one teacher also reported using short videos as “writing prompts” while another teacher used “drama, text writing and presentations.” Another teacher, however, stated: “if the video is linked to a text we have read, tasks are usually linked more to the text.”

After being asked about types of activities, the teachers were presented with a five-point Likert scale item ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” about their opinion on four different statements regarding the use of short videos and YouTube in their EFL teaching. The results from this item are shown in Table 2. According to the table, upwards of 80% either agreed or strongly agreed that it is important to have clear learning aims when using short videos, while
5% did not believe that this was important. Responses to the statement about whether students learn more from short videos than textbooks, showed varied results. Almost 60% of the teachers answered that they neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement. 25% agreed that videos do teach their students more than a textbook, while 13% did not. The majority of teachers disagree with the statement that YouTube videos tend to contain language that is too difficult for their students to understand, while about one fifth of the teachers believe that the language is in fact too difficult for their students.

4.2.2. Benefits of using short videos in EFL

The following two sections will give an account of the teachers’ responses to the two open-ended questions where they were instructed to specify what educational benefits and challenges they had experienced using short videos in their English teaching. There was some variety in the length and amount of detail in the responses to these questions (from one word to four sentences). Six respondents decided to skip the question about benefits, and seven skipped the question about challenges. Full transcriptions of the replies can be found in Appendix 2.

The first open-ended question required the teachers to report the educational benefits that they had experienced with using short videos in their EFL teaching. There were several benefits that reoccurred throughout the responses. One of the main benefits was the variation that short videos can provide in the EFL classroom. Eight of the teachers used the words “variation” or “variety” in their response, while others touch on variation by saying the use of short videos is “different from every-day teaching” and “a break in ordinary education.” Some of the responses suggested that this variation meant moving away from textbook teaching: “the students tend to like stepping away from the textbooks.” Several of the teachers also accounted for the consequences that this variation led to; one teacher claimed: “the students like the variation so they pay greater attention” and another teacher says that the use of short videos is “contributing to their [the students’] engagement.”

One other main category of the teacher responses on this question was the cognitive and affective benefits of using short videos: motivation, learning strategies, memory and emotional involvement. Approximately one fifth of teachers mentioned the motivational impact of short videos on their lower secondary students, and one teacher elaborated by saying that the use of
videos resulted in “motivated and happier students.” Many of the responses linked student motivation to engagement, attention and interest. For example, one teacher stated that the use of short videos could be “inspiring,” while other teachers say it helps “grab their [the students’] attention” and create a “change of students’s [sic] focus.” One teacher also commented on the benefits of the length of short videos on the students’ focus: “the time aspect is better suited students who are generally used to switching rapidly between different kinds of media in their daily life (attention span).”

Many of the teachers who wrote about variation connected this with the notion of multiple intelligences and catering to students with different learning strategies and learning disabilities. One teacher said that using short videos enabled “more differentiation” in the classroom. One of the respondents further stated that “many students are more capable of remembering content visually, than from written material (specially [sic] students who have dyslexia or other related learning disabilities).” In addition, several teachers regard the multimodality of videos as beneficial for their students’ long-term memory and understanding. Teachers report the “use of more senses (audio, visual intelligences stimulated)” as one of the advantages of using short videos, and claimed that “students have finally understood a point I have been trying to make when they see it animated and with sound.” Teachers also report that: “students remember it better because they have both seen it and heard it” and “pupils tend to remember the content long after the video was shown.” One teacher also added that short videos get his/her students more emotionally engaged during lessons: “Students develop stronger feelings/opinions about the theme in question,” while another teacher mentioned engagement by saying short videos resulted in “more fruitful discussions when talking about relevant topics.”

A number of the respondents expressed the value that short videos can have in terms of content. Using short videos as a supplement to the textbook seems to be common among the teachers who answered the questionnaire. The teachers argued that videos gave their students “another point of view of the topic than what is presented in the reading material” and provided “different perspectives on texts we read.” Also, participating teachers believed that using short videos was “a good way of starting the lesson” or a way to “kick-off to certain topics,” as well as a way of “helping students summarize a theme.”

Furthermore, teachers indicated that videos were good sources for teaching cultural and historical topics, and one teacher reported using it “to show how life is really like in the
UK/USA.” Literature is also brought up as a content area where video is used. For instance, one teacher described the impact short videos had on his/her students when depicting characters: “students are able to describe a character more easily after watching a video where the person is presented.”

While many of the teachers say they use short videos as supplements to the textbook, one teacher admitted: “I hardly ever use textbooks in my teaching, thus I have to use other sources. Short videos are therefore a source which I often use.” The advantage of “up to date topics” found in short videos seemed to appeal to some teachers who believed that “the textbook/reading material may be outdated.” Many of the teachers also seemed to believe that this updated material is easy to access. One respondent commented, “You can find anything you need on the web from tidal waves to Faraday Cages. You will not find anything you need in the school library ;).” In addition to short videos being accessible for the teachers to show in the classroom, one respondent mentioned the benefit of students retrieving and watching the videos again at home.

Many of the participating teachers regarded short videos as good sources for language input. The main advantage that teachers mentioned in relation to language input was authentic language from native speakers; six teachers explicitly mentioned this as a benefit. A number of other respondents referred to listening comprehension in more general terms. Another language benefit that was mentioned was “pupils becoming aware of phrasal verbs.”

4.2.3. Challenges of using short videos

The second open-ended question concerned the challenges that can occur when using short videos in the EFL classroom. The main challenge accounted for in the questionnaire, and that half of the respondents who answered the question mentioned, was difficult and fast-paced language. This diverges from the teachers’ responses to the question about whether YouTube contained language that was too difficult for their students to understand (Table 2). Here, almost 70% said that they disagreed that the language was too difficult.

While many respondents also mentioned authentic language as a benefit, a number of them also listed this as a challenge for certain students. Many respondents seemed to relate this to the level of the learners, for instance: “The language is sometimes hard for some children. When you have a class that varies in level, not all children benefit as much from the clips.” Another
teacher, however, mentioned how the video medium could help some students decode language they find hard to understand: “Some words will be difficult to some of the students, but most of them will understand through the use of sounds and pictures.” In addition to difficult language, a few of the respondents specified another language issue: inappropriate language for classroom use. According to some respondents short videos from the Internet often contained “unwanted language (swearing)” and “language [sic] you might not want your students to hear in school.”

After language difficulties, various practical and technological issues were prominent responses to the question about challenges when using short videos. A number of the teachers communicated the need for a more stable Internet connection and better equipment in the classroom in order to make video-viewing more reliable. Most of the responses in this category refer to technological difficulties in general, while other specified by giving examples such as “bad connection”, “bad sound” and “computer not working!!!” One teacher commented on the result of these types of problems: “technical challenges that leads to loss of time.” Some teachers also mention the drawback of inappropriate and intrusive advertisements that often precede a short video on video sharing sites such as YouTube.

Poor video quality is also one of the challenges that the teachers reported, referring both to quality of the visual format of videos as well as the quality of content. Problems like “heavy pixilation” and “bad sound” are examples that teachers bring up in relation to the visual format. In addition, a number of teachers reply that finding short videos with quality content can be difficult, with one teacher stating that: “the videos are not always quite to the point.” Also, the process of finding videos of a certain standard that meet the desired learning outcome and that are suitable for classroom use is an issue that several teachers mention. It is, in one teacher’s view, “time consuming to navigate on the internet [sic] trying to find a suitable video according to the classroom topic.” One teacher mentions the challenging process of finding suitable video material by saying that “it is required [sic] some IT-knowledge for me as a teacher [sic] to find a good video,” while another respondent brings up the issue of having to spend time evaluating the quality and reliability of the information in short videos before showing it to students.

Another set of challenges that reoccurs in the teachers’ responses is the videos’ effect on the students’ attention and focus in the classroom. According to the experience of one respondent, “The students insist on keep watching [sic] more videos and clips instead of focusing on the desired learning outcome.” Similarly, one teacher said that “Pupils often want to choose videos
themselves, which can, in a worst case scenario, be disruptive.” Furthermore, one teacher had observed that the students’ attention spans had shortened after viewing videos, and therefore recommended using them at the end of a lesson. One teacher also stated that “You can’t use it [short videos] too often; pupils are easily spoiled.” This idea is corroborated by another respondent: “There are always some who think it is only for their Entertainment [sic].”

4.3. Focus group interviews with tenth-grade students

Three focus group interviews were held with the students as part of the case study on short videos in lower secondary EFL teaching. The interviews were held three days after the lessons where the researcher taught a three-hour unit on contemporary race issues in the USA using short videos. Eleven students were split into three groups: two groups consisting of four students each, and one group with three students. Even though an interview guide was used during the interviews, it should be noted that the course of the interviews at times deviated from the guide. Group 1 had a student who did not attend the lessons, but who contributed on more general questions about the use of videos. The interviews were both carried out and transcribed in Norwegian, and the answers that are quoted in the following section have been translated into English by the researcher. The focus groups are referred to as Group 1, Group 2 and Group 3, and the individual students are distinguished using the group they were in and a letter, for example student 1a, 2b etc. Full transcriptions of the interviews can be found in Appendix 10.

In the first part of the interviews, the students were asked general questions about their attitudes and experiences with the use of short videos in English instruction. All of the three interviews started with a question about whether their teachers used short videos in their English lessons. The students in Group 1 and Group 3 unanimously answered that their teacher occasionally used short videos during English lessons. Group 2, however, claimed that the teacher uses them “quite rarely,” but later on in the interview one of them realized: “she doesn’t use it that seldom actually, every other lesson she connects the computer to show us videos, those short clips.” They also added that video has been used in other subjects such as Science and Norwegian.

When discussing what type of videos their teacher uses, Group 1 agreed that their teacher mostly shows documentaries lasting less than an hour. One of the students in this group also
pointed out that they had been taught about English dialects by means of short videos. Group 2 said that the videos used by the teacher are mostly factual and one student gave timelines as an example of video material they had been presented with in their English lessons. Another student in this group said, “For example on the topic we are having now, fantasy, she shows some small clips about what happens in fantasy movies.” Group 3 added that they have often been shown video summaries, for example when learning about the Civil War in the USA. Referring back to the lessons held by the researcher where news clips were shown, one student in Group 3 remarked that news videos had never been used in their English lessons.

All of the students confirmed that they used YouTube at home, and some of them confessed to using it “daily” or “too often.” When replying to the question about what they use it for at home, most of them stated that they used it for various entertainment purposes. One student said she used it to watch news channels, while another student used it to watch interviews. When asked whether they use YouTube at home for schoolwork, one student said that that she had used it while doing homework: “sometimes if there is a difficult math problem, YouTube explains it well.” Another student recalls that they had been given YouTube videos as part of a homework assignment before, while one student expresses the need for teacher instruction on how YouTube could be used for schoolwork at home.

When Group 1 was asked whether they believed that short videos from YouTube helped them learn about culture in English speaking cultures, student 1a said that it helped her to listen to other people speaking English outside the classroom and that it helped her to learn and understand different varieties of English. One student in Group 2 said that he understands culture more easily by watching a video rather than listening to the teacher, because “we see what they do.” The students in Group 3 said that short videos could help them learn about English speaking cultures, but did not specify how, but rather commented on how it was easier to follow short videos than longer ones.

Several of the students in all three interview groups said that they preferred short videos to long feature-length videos, but some point out that it depends on the topic and type of video. Student 1b said that she had no preferences in terms of time of videos, but asserted that she benefited most from the videos that explained the topic in the best possible way. Furthermore, student 1a commented on what she believed to be a drawback of long documentaries: “I like the short [videos] best, because if it is a long documentary, for example, that is supposed to explain
something, it can quickly become boring to listen to if you have already found the answer.” Student 1b agreed: “Yes, if you forget something in the beginning.” On this topic, Group 2 agreed that feature-length videos worked well if it was good enough, and that the quality of the video was more important than the length. The students, however, did not comment on what they believed to be the criteria of a “good” video. Also in Group 3 there was general agreement that the topic and type of video determined the usefulness of it. One student in this group preferred shorter videos because “they are much easier to watch, it is so tiring to watch 40-minute videos on different topics.”

The students were asked to comment on what they believed to be the benefits of using short videos in English instruction. Both Group 1 and Group 3 said that the combination of information and pictures is a positive aspect of short videos. In the opinion of student 3a, short videos “makes it easier to learn […] than to listen to the teacher talking.” When asked to elaborate on why this was, he said that it was because “you have something to watch, you have a video to look at.” In addition, students across the three groups seemed to somewhat agree with the ideas that student 1b expresses: “sometimes YouTube can explain better than the teacher does and maybe it is more fun.” Some of the students also mentioned that using videos could have language benefits, with student 3c pointing out that “we get to hear how they [native speakers] speak, their dialect and how they use sentences.” When Group 1 was asked this question, the students struggled somewhat with answering until the question was rephrased to ask them if they felt they learnt the most from reading about a topic or watching a video about it. Student 1a answered, “I understand more and remember more when I see or listen to YouTube than reading because suddenly I zone out and don’t know what I am reading at all.”

When asked about the challenges of using short videos in English lessons, it was in student 1d’s opinion that some short videos were too short, and therefore did not give sufficient information about certain topics. Also, student 1a brought up the issue of being assigned short videos for homework and some students not having sufficient Internet connection at home. On this question, Group 2 focused mostly on potential language difficulties: “if someone thinks the video is boring and difficult to understand, some might not be able to follow it at all.” In Group 3 one student says that it is a problem for her to stay awake at times when watching videos: “your eyes get tired, especially if it is first period.” Student 3a adds that watching videos can become a habit in the classroom and that this can be problematic. When discussing drawbacks, the
researcher reminded the students in all three focus groups of what had happened when commercials appeared on the screen prior to the videos that were shown during the case study lessons. Student 3c observed the result of the commercials: “we were all distracted” and student 2c commented that this caused the class to derail from the topic. Students in Group 1 agreed with student 1c when she said that the commercials were “irritating […] because there were commercials about things we don’t care about.” One student in Group 2 said that the students’ distraction when the commercials appeared was due to the fact that “it wasn’t something we had to pay attention to.”

The students were asked about what types of activities they preferred together with watching short videos. One common factor between Group 1 and Group 3 on this question was that most of them seemed to prefer the collaborative exercises; class discussions and discussions in pairs. Two of the students in Group 3, however, preferred doing written work. Group 2 did not answer this question by giving specific activities they preferred, but at a later stage in the interview they pointed out that they thought it was useful to be asked questions about the documentary and whether they had understood it after watching it. Student 2b said that this forced them to reflect on the content of the video.

The second part of the interview revolved more specifically around the classroom project that the researcher had completed prior to the interviews. After being told that the conversation was to be directed towards their experiences with the lessons, the students were asked to provide their thoughts about being taught race through the use of news videos. Most of the students indicated that this was a positive experience. One student in Group 1 said, “it shows how they have it there and how different people have different opinions.” Another student weighed in by saying that it was interesting to see how the two news agencies presented the issue differently. A discussion then started about which news video they felt was more believable, where they commented on how Michael Brown was portrayed in the two news segments. Student 1c said she trusted NBC News’ segment the most because “you see where it happened and more people explain it.” Student 1d then agreed by saying that the Fox News segment “only showed people talking about it.” The two students then agreed that Fox News had portrayed Michael Brown as a criminal. Group 2 also thought it was “interesting to see the difference between the two reporters” and had a conversation about how news can be manipulated. Student 2a then said that using the news made him look at race from a different perspective: “for the most part we have only learnt
about how whites looked at other races, but now we got to know more about how the other races look at white people.” When asked about this in Group 3, the students said it was “ok”, without exuding very much enthusiasm. After further reflection, one student in this group said that it was good to receive updated information through the news, while two students pointed out that the videos were difficult to follow because of fast-paced language.

In terms of using the documentary *White People* to learn about contemporary race issues, many of the students said that it caused them to view race issues differently. For example, several students admitted to not having given much thought to the concept of “reverse racism” before watching the documentary. This was dealt with in the documentary by featuring a white high school graduate who believed that she had been discriminated against because of her race when applying for college scholarships. Both Group 2 and Group 3 talked about how it was useful to look at race issues from the perspective of several different ethnic groups and that *White People* gave them an insight into “different ways racism is represented.” The students in Group 3 all nodded in agreement when student 3d said, “it wasn’t just the black and the white, it was also Asians and Indians […] it wasn’t just one person, but many different people.” In addition, all of the groups commented on the value of examining the situation today after saying that they had mostly been taught about race from a historical perspective before. Student 3c explained that “we have really only talked about the history, we have never discussed how it is today and from both sides, we have only seen it from our side.” Student 2a also commented on a realization that he had while watching the documentary: “It wasn’t exactly the white people who were there [in the USA] first […] it is like for example if someone from Arabia would take over Norway […] that’s probably how the Native Americans feel.” Other students reported having realizations such as “you can see that there has been a change, but not much” and “we got to see that there is still racism” when watching the documentary.

While talking about *White People*, two of the groups also discussed the target audience of the documentary. Group 3 pointed out that the documentary was easy to follow because the young people featured in the video did not use overly complicated language. Furthermore, one student in Group 1 said that she could relate to the teenagers in the documentary: “Imagine if we were in that situation.” One student claimed that she had not thought about the age of the people in the video while watching it but that it might have had an impact on her understanding of the
content. Another student said that it did not matter what the age of the people in the documentary was.

Several students also had thoughts about the topic being presented through the genre of the documentary. One student claimed that the documentary form made the information “easier to believe” than if a teacher would have said the same. One student also pointed out that “we can learn a lot from documentaries, I still remember everything.” Receiving the information through video had its advantages, according to students in Group 1, who claimed it is easier to imagine how things are in other parts of the world when they can see it with their own eyes instead of being told about it.

When asked about whether the issues in the documentary could be applied to Norway, most of the students seemed to believe that Norway did not have the same problems in terms of race. However, student 1b pointed out that “[…] there are actually people who are like that” referring to people with racist ideologies in Norway. None of the students could clearly answer the question about what could be negative about using *White People* in English teaching.
5. Discussion

5.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the main findings of the research by comparing and contrasting them across the research methods of this study and existing literature on the use of short videos. The structure of this chapter follows the research questions. Thus, section 5.2 discusses the current use of short videos by lower secondary students in the Stavanger area, while section 5.3 provides an analysis of the teachers’ positive and negative experiences with video in the EFL classroom, as well as their attitudes towards it. Sections 5.4 and 5.5 views the use of video from the perspective of the tenth grade students in the case study, by discussing their attitudes to short video in general as well as their response to being taught contemporary race issues through the use of videos.

5.2. The current use of short videos in lower secondary school in the Stavanger area

The first research question concerned the current use of short videos in English teaching in lower secondary school in the Stavanger area, and was investigated through the teacher survey.

Despite using videos with good intentions, it seems as if most teachers do not regard videos as educational texts in their own right, but rather as illustrations or supplements to printed text. It is evident that this perception impacts the way videos are used in the classroom.

Most of the teachers in this study use short videos more often than full-length films in their English teaching. This also seemed to be the case with the teacher of the case-study class, as the students said that she mostly used videos lasting less than one hour. A short video in this thesis refers to a video lasting up to 35 minutes. Videos within this length might be appealing for teachers as they take up considerably less classroom time than a feature-length film. Furthermore, the fact that teachers use short videos 1-2 times per month indicates that this is not their main source of teaching material. The convenience and facilitation that a textbook can bring to both students and teachers is a potential cause of this (Lund 2007: 46)

Several teachers in this study use video in order to provide their lessons with variation as it provides “a break in ordinary education” and it is “different from every-day teaching.”
This variation is for many teachers an act of moving away from traditional textbook teaching. This is expressed as many teachers say that they use short videos as supplements to the textbook and over half of them say that the content relating to units in the textbook is an important factor when selecting short video for their EFL classes (Figure 2, Appendix 1).

In addition, a number of teachers use videos as a means of giving their students updated and relevant information. Looking at the teacher responses about variation in relation to the frequency in which the majority of the respondents use short videos (one to two times a month), one can assume that the textbook is often used as a starting point in the respondents’ English lessons and that videos are used as illustrations of the content in the textbooks. An additional support to this assumption comes in a teacher response where the respondent states that if the video is linked to a text in the textbook, activities are usually linked more to the text than the video.

While many teachers use videos as illustrations of what is in the textbook, it is interesting to look into why teachers feel the need to supplement the textbook. One possible reason is that these teachers believe that the textbooks are not sufficient or up to date enough to fully reach the curriculum aims. This supports Lund’s (2007) view that a single textbook is not sufficient as the only material to guide and cater to such a complicated process as language learning. Even though many teachers select videos with the textbook units in mind, even more teachers said they selected videos on the basis that they related to the curriculum. This might indicate that videos are often used to fill the gap between what the textbook can provide and what the curriculum demands. For instance, almost all of the teachers selected “cultural insight” as an aim they wish their students to gain when watching short videos, while other teachers mentioned “expand their horizons” and “different perspectives on a story we have read.” (Appendix 1) This suggests that many teachers feel the need to look outside the textbook in order to find information about contemporary topics on culture and society in English speaking countries (curriculum aim in LK06).

Moreover, both the questionnaire and the student interviews reveal that the most used types of videos are documentaries and historical videos. According to the current curriculum, students should be able to explain features of history in the USA and Great Britain, and be able to “communicate and converse about contemporary and academic topics.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013) Historical videos can help students visualize past events in English speaking countries,
while documentaries often deal with contemporary issues in a society or culture that can foster discussions on different topics. Therefore, these two types of videos seemingly facilitate the implementation of these curriculum aims in EFL classrooms.

Besides cultural insight, listening comprehension was another major skill that many teachers want their students to gain through watching short videos. Even though listening comprehension activities are often made possible by textbooks that include appropriately paced auditory versions of texts on a CD-ROM, this does not necessarily expand the listening material beyond the text, nor does it feature language in its authentic use. The video adds a visual layer where the students take a more active part in the cultural phenomena. For example, videos helped one of the interviewees understand English-speaking cultures because “we see what they do.” In the words of Sherman (2003: 3), “authentic video […] brings the English-language world to the learner.”

Instruction that aims to use language that is as close to real communication as possible stems from the communicative approach. This sets out to use meaning-based language content that resembles real language use. Working with authentic, target language samples is therefore a central component of communicative language teaching. Even though Norwegian textbooks have come to include more communicative content over the last decades (Drew and Sørheim 2009), the result from the research in this thesis suggests that teachers still move away from the textbook to find authentic material for their EFL classrooms. And as the results show, many teachers use short videos as a way to do so. It seems as if YouTube and other video platforms serve as resources for the non-scripted every-day speech that the textbook cannot provide.

Another interesting finding from the questionnaire was that only 18% of the teachers said that they always use activities with short videos. Using videos with no form for meaningful activity contradicts much of the recommendation from literature on the use of videos in language teaching (Berk 2009; Harmer 2007; Sherman 2003). Using videos without processing or examining them further also points towards the notion that videos are not being treated with the same agency as written text in EFL classrooms.

On a more encouraging note, over 80% of the teachers believed that it was important to have clear learning aims when viewing short videos in the EFL classroom, and most of them claim that they “never” or only “sometimes” use short videos as a reward for good behavior. Showing videos as a result of good behavior might not necessarily mean that the video is without
educational value or intent, but can convey a message to students that a video is no more than an entertaining addition to the more valuable written classroom materials.

Students in the case study commented that it was useful to be asked questions after viewing *White People* so that they were able to process and recall what they had just seen. This shows the importance of processing videos and ensuring that as many students as possible are able to comprehend the material, especially if the content or language is difficult for certain students. This supports Sherman’s (2003: 7) attitude towards the “Friday afternoon” approach to using videos, which involves using videos as gap fillers with no real educational aim or purpose, and in Sherman’s words does “a disservice to the programme and the resource.” On the other hand, Berk (2009) talks about his success with the use of short videos as “commercials breaks” to grab his college students’ attention and create a shift in focus. The result of using videos in this manner would, naturally, depend on the length of the video. A short video clip lasting just a few minutes would not as drastically cut into classroom time as a longer video. However, using videos in this way might make it difficult for some students to distinguish between this type of use and more demanding and academic use of short videos, resulting in the latter being unfavorable to the students.

As a majority of the teachers used discussions, with some also reporting using drama and presentations, it is evident that oral practice is often used alongside short videos in the respondents’ English lessons. As mentioned above, listening comprehension was one of the main skills that teachers aimed for their students to gain when using short videos. In the curriculum, listening comprehension is featured in the *Oral Communication* section, indicating that oral communication is comprised of both understanding and being able to use the spoken form of the language. Thus, speaking activities might be used often because listening comprehension transfers well into speech.

The oral activity of discussion can be seen in relation to reflection and critical thinking as the nature of the discussion questions enables deeper thought about an issue. One teacher respondent had experienced that short videos brought about “more fruitful discussions when talking about relevant topics.” The cultural focus that many teachers in this study have when showing videos will often include topics with debatable issues that are well suited for critical discussion. Critical thinking skills were selected by a number of teachers as a goal when using short videos in the English classroom. One teacher claimed that videos resulted in students
developing stronger feelings and opinions about a topic or issue. This is in compliance with the experiences of Berk (2009), who asserts that videos can tap into the viewers’ emotional intelligence and foster a deeper level of understanding. In addition, several aims in the English subject curriculum for lower secondary school identify the need for in-depth discussion and critical thinking by including words such as “evaluate,” “discuss” and “justify.” It would, then, be the job of the teacher to encourage dynamic discussions by asking the right questions that encourage students to move upwards on the stages of Bloom’s Taxonomy and thus engage in higher order thinking and reflection.

The fact that all of the students in this study said that they used YouTube regularly, and most of them daily, illustrates that they are familiar with this medium. This might contribute to students’ sense of purpose of using short videos. The students said that they used it mostly for entertainment purposes in their free-time, which can be seen in relation to a statement that one teacher made about the students thinking that short videos from YouTube are used in the classroom solely for their entertainment without any educational purpose. One possible way to avoid this situation is to make a habit of always using activities alongside short videos. Not using meaningful activities or having clear aims might perhaps be the cause of students losing focus or not recognizing the learning objective of a video. For example, introducing discussion questions or other material before viewing the video can contribute to students’ sense of purpose with watching the video, as they will know more specifically what to focus their attention on.

Even though several teachers use videos relatively frequently in the classroom, the teachers’ use of short videos does not imply that many of them are integrating short videos as part of the reading material for student assessment. This might be the reason why teachers are unsure about whether students learn more from videos than from the textbook – they will not have measured whether this is the case. The “stamp of authority” given to textbooks in English teaching may be one of the causes of this, and might serve to undermine the full educational worth of other approaches or types of material such as videos (Lund 2007: 45).

As the above section discusses, the use of short videos in lower secondary might be compatible with Rackaway (2012: 191) and his observations that multimedia supplements such as short videos are mostly viewed as “a convenient entertainment or distraction rather than a legitimate learning tool.” That being the case, one might consider how teachers are being trained in the use of digital media during their education. The researcher’s impression, having completed
a teacher-training program (PPU) at a university in Norway, is that video teaching is not given much attention as a tool for teaching English. Many teachers will therefore very often be left to their own devices when it comes to teaching with video. Thus, many teachers will not be instructed on how to exploit the full potential of video as a pedagogical tool, leading to students being deprived of the many ways it can enhance their learning of English.

5.3. Teachers’ attitudes and experiences with short videos in ELT

The second research question aimed to shed light on teachers’ attitudes and their various positive and negative experiences with short videos in their English teaching. As discussed above, it is evident that the way in which video teaching is carried out in the classroom stems from the attitudes and convictions that the teachers hold towards the use of short videos in English teaching. The teachers in this study were generally positive to the use of short videos in their English teaching, while also expressing some challenges connected to it.

The teachers’ attitudes and experiences with authentic language and understanding were perhaps the most ambiguous findings derived from the teacher survey. On the one hand, almost 70% of the respondents disagreed to a statement about short videos from YouTube containing language that is too difficult for their students to understand (Table 2, Appendix 1). One the other hand, approximately 50% of the teachers mentioned the difficulty of authentic language as a challenge that they had encountered when using short videos in their English teaching. This inconsistency might be an expression of the difficulty that educators face with finding material of any kind to serve all proficiency levels of students in a language class.

In the view of Sherman (2003: 1), many teachers consider authentic video as “[…] a fun extra, but generally too difficult for most students.” She explains that appropriate activities and scaffolding can do much for students’ understanding of a video. Some scholars, however, have argued that authentic language that is too difficult can be discouraging to the students and that simplified materials on the learners level are more useful in language teaching (Guariento and Morley 2001; Day and Bamford 1998).

One teacher claimed that: “some words will be difficult to some of the students, but most of them will understand through the use of sounds and pictures.” (Appendix 2) Thus, this teacher believed that the visual layer of a video helps students grasp demanding language through context
and therefore comprehend more than they would if the information was only delivered in auditory format. A statement from a teacher response supported this: “pupils tend to remember the content long after the video was shown.” (Appendix 1) These responses verify Paivio’s dual coding theory, which states that information that is received both verbally and visually is more easily stored in the long-term memory than information received through only one of the formats (Paivio, Rogers, and Smythe 1968).

Both students and teachers in this study commented on how the multimodality of videos is beneficial in the language classroom. Teachers used video as a means of differentiation in the classroom and associated multimodality with increased comprehension for students who struggled with the language or had various learning disabilities. Vetrie (2004: 42) also discovered that video helped “at-risk students” develop their writing, as well as critical thinking skills.

The teachers seemed to recognize the implications video can have in terms of stimulating several intelligences and enabling differentiation in the classroom. As Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences states, individuals have several separate “intelligences” where some are stronger than others (Gardner 1985). In a classroom context, there is often a focus on how a variety of educational methods can facilitate learning for individuals with different intelligences. Viewing videos can stimulate what Gardner has defined as visual, verbal and musical intelligences.

Moreover, the ability to engage students is one factor that English teachers believe is a benefit of video in the classroom. Over 85% of the teachers claimed that their students were “often” or “always” very engaged in lessons where video clips are used (Table 1b, Appendix 1). This can be seen in connection to another element that was important to many teachers when selecting videos, namely student interest in the topic. According to the students that were interviewed, their active participation with a short video depended on their interest in the topic and whether they believed the video was useful to them. One student suggested a potential result of viewing videos that did not match the students’ interests and language level: “if someone thinks the video is boring and difficult to understand, some might not be able to follow it at all.” (Appendix 10)

Sherman (2003: 2) asserts that authentic videos give the students motivation because they are given the ability “to understand and enjoy the real thing.” Authentic language was one of the major criteria that the teachers considered significant when selecting videos for their EFL
classrooms. Students also saw the benefit of listening to language in use by native speakers. This helped one interviewee to “[…] hear how they [native speakers] speak, their dialect and how they use sentences.” (Appendix 10) Furthermore, most of the students in this study said that they used YouTube often or daily, which indicates that they use the English language often when it relates to their own personal interests (even though not all videos on YouTube are in English). This might result in a higher level of intrinsic motivation to learn English, because the ability to understand authentic language becomes transferable to their daily lives and is rewarding to them on a personal level.

The students’ frequent use of YouTube might also contribute to their sense of purpose with using short videos for educational purposes. The fact that students said that they used it mostly for entertainment in their free-time can be seen in relation to a statement that one teacher made about the students thinking that short videos from YouTube are used in the classroom solely for their entertainment without any educational objectives. One possible way to avoid this situation is to make a habit of always using activities alongside short videos. Not using meaningful activities or having clear aims is perhaps the cause of students losing focus or not recognizing the learning objective of a video. This is reinforced by Harmer (2007: 308) as he makes the point that students often associate videos with relaxation and that it is therefore important to employ meaningful activities with videos in order to maintain their attention. For example, introducing discussion questions or other material before viewing the video can contribute to students’ sense of purpose with watching the video, as they will know more specifically what to focus their attention on.

For some teachers it may be difficult to balance the use of videos that are interesting and engaging for students and videos as sources of entertainment. This may point towards the way YouTube is associated with what Kavoori (2011: 7) characterizes as “Digital Play,” causing teachers to shy away from potentially entertaining teaching material in fear of it being labeled as unsound or illegitimate in educational settings. One teacher argues that video should be used with caution in English lessons, as “[…] pupils are easily spoiled.” (Appendix 2) This act of “spoiling” the students might express a perception of videos as being merely a source of entertainment and a reward as opposed to valuable educational material. For instance, one would rarely hear a teacher saying that their students are overindulged in poems or short stories, even though these genres may also be used to entertain readers.
This perception was also evident in the students in this study. In correspondence with the view of some of the teachers, one student surprisingly claimed that short videos should not be used too frequently in the classroom. This indicates that some students also have a tendency to associate video with entertainment and therefore regard it as less worthwhile in the language classroom. This statement can also be an indication that a haphazard use or over-use of videos can potentially make the medium lose its appeal to the students.

The intention of using videos that are entertaining for the students is perhaps to gain and retain the students’ attention and focus throughout the video. With the respondent above, it may appear that the act of “spoiling” the students comes as a result of not having clear exercises or aims attached to the videos. This way of using short videos will inevitably create an attitude that videos are not as significant as other types of texts for learning purposes.

While not a major concern for the students, many teachers mentioned technological issues as drawbacks they had experienced with short videos in their EFL classrooms. Issues such as poor Internet connection and bad sound were among the reported challenges that teachers face when using short videos. Teachers claimed that these issues often led to a loss of time and resulted in the students losing focus. During the interviews in this study, students recalled what had occurred when advertisements appeared during the lessons, and the students agreed that this was “irritating” and admitted, “we were all distracted.” (Appendix 10) One possible practical solution to this in the future is for schools to subscribe to YouTube Red, which is a YouTube membership that disables advertisements and enables one to save videos in order to view them offline. This service is currently only available in the USA, but is in the process of expanding its locations (YouTube 2016b). Until then, one option is for teachers to prepare the video beforehand by playing through the advertisement before the lessons, or playing through it without sound while the students are occupied with another activity.

The accessibility of short videos on the Internet today is a major advantage for teachers. However, there are some issues that concern teachers when selecting useful videos for their EFL students. Using YouTube as a source for short videos has, according to Jones and Cuthrell (2011), some pitfalls in terms of quality control. Since YouTube is a site where anyone can upload videos, it does contain a large amount of videos that are irrelevant or unsuitable in educational settings. It is therefore the teacher’s responsibility to control whether the content of a video is appropriate for the classroom.
Most of the teachers do not believe that it is difficult to find suitable material for their EFL classes, but some mention the amount of time it often entails. Determining the credibility and usefulness of the wide array of videos available online demands the teachers to critically evaluate content, which can be quite time-consuming. The nature of the Internet might cause teachers to be flooded with video material without having the time to navigate and quality control it all. This is perhaps the reason why Rackaway (2012) found that many teachers seemed unwilling to put in the time needed to find video material, and therefore abandon it in favor of traditional textbook teaching. In this type of teaching, teachers will have their teaching material preselected for them, with an authoritative status as being of good value (Lund 2007: 45). Thus, the guesswork of finding suitable material will be eliminated and time will be saved.

Besides the content of a video on YouTube being unfitting in the classroom, teachers must also examine the appropriateness of the video’s language itself. According to some of the teachers, an issue with video material from the Internet is “unwanted language (swearing) and “language [sic] you might not want your students to hear in school.” (Appendix 2) This may apply to both the spoken and written language of YouTube; the spoken being the actual utterances of language in the videos, while the written language mostly applies to the comment section under a video. Koh (2014) found that YouTube comments often contained derogative and offensive language, thus encouraging teachers to be careful with what they make available for the students. If a video is simply shown to the students on a projector in the classroom, this will not necessarily be an issue, but it will be significant if the students are using YouTube independently either in school or at home.

Derogative language and content can however be exploited for educational gains. Bloom and Johnston (2010: 115) believe that avoiding YouTube because of these challenges will devoid students of potential “teachable moments” where students can get involved with the process of determining the reliability of a video through critical media literacy strategies (see chapter 2.3.2). This is especially relevant when working with non-fiction video genres such as news and documentaries as they may contain some level of bias and falsification.
5.4. Students’ attitudes to video-teaching in EFL

The third research question regards lower secondary school students’ attitudes towards video-based teaching in English lessons. Students were mostly positive to the use of videos in English lessons. Overall, they seemed to be more positive to videos than the teachers were and did not recognize the same limitations. This might of course be because the students are not the organizers of the classroom activities and therefore do not encounter the same obstacles that teachers potentially do in terms of selecting and displaying videos. The students did, however, have some insights into what were useful aspects and what were the limitations of videos for their own learning.

One major assumption associated with video teaching is that it is generally a preferred method of learning for students (Sherman 2003; Berk 2009; Holland 2014; Prensky 2012). The students confirmed this when they claimed that they learnt more from videos than printed text: “I understand more and remember more when I see or listen to YouTube than reading because suddenly I zone out and don’t know what I am reading at all.” (Appendix 10) This ability to concentrate their attention to videos is also the experience of one of the teachers in this study, who claims that the time aspect of short videos suits young people because they are used to switching between different media in their daily lives.

Most of students in this study said that the quality or usefulness of a video is more significant for their learning outcome than its length. Interestingly, the students, however, seemed more positive to short videos than longer ones. A general agreement among the students was that videos tended to be boring and that shorter videos are therefore easier to follow. The efficiency that videos provide in conveying information is an aspect that students recognize, as they claim that longer videos become boring if they have “[...] already found the answer.” (Appendix 10) This reinforces what Prensky (2012) claims when he says that today’s students are digital natives who have different thought processes than digital immigrants and that they therefore require educational materials that correspond with this. This might, however, level out and be less distinct with time as digital natives become future teachers themselves.

Students in this study believe that it is easier for them to follow a video than reading a printed text in English, thus increasing their learning outcome. This was, according to the
students, owed to the intermingling of moving images and information in a video, saying that this “makes it easier to learn [...]” because “you have something to watch, you have a video to look at.” (Appendix 10) This might suggest that several of the students in this class are visual learners, and that video therefore suits their style of learning. As most of the students are more accustomed to watching short videos than reading long pieces of text in their spare time, reading might be regarded as a chore, while video viewing is a more entertaining alternative.

Another interesting insight from the students was that viewing videos in the classroom was sometimes dull. This expresses a notion of video viewing being a passive classroom activity that does not require active participation, which again can stem from teachers not consistently giving them meaningful activities. Here, a connection can be made to the students’ response to commercials on YouTube. The students became unfocused when the commercials appeared, because “it wasn’t something we had to pay attention to.” (Appendix 10) Thus, students seem to need incentive or a sense of purpose in order to focus their attention in the classroom. By making video viewing in the classroom differ from the way they use videos at home, students will be able to distinguish the intention of using a video in school and using it for entertainment at home.

The students’ attitudes towards video and their evaluation of their own learning should incite teachers to use video more often with clearer intentions.

5.5. Students’ responses to being taught race with video

The aim of the final research question was to investigate how lower secondary students responded to being taught about contemporary race issues in the USA using short videos from YouTube. The videos were shown to the case study class and included one 30-minute documentary and two US news broadcast videos lasting a couple of minutes each.

It is arguable that a central aim in teaching issues involving race is for students to become racially literate. This involves having the right vocabulary to discuss race and to identify and respond to instances of racism. This ties up with some of the general aims of education in Norway presented in the Core Curriculum, such as the goal that “Education should counteract prejudice and discrimination, and foster mutual respect and tolerance between groups with differing modes of life.” (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2006: 10) In addition, one specific curriculum aim for lower secondary deals with the vocabulary aspect of racial literacy when it
states that students should be able to “demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 9)

In response to being taught race from the genres of news and documentaries, the students had several interesting insights. Firstly, the students said that using news to learn about race “shows how they have it there and how different people have different opinions.” (Appendix 10) This statement reinforces what Bell (2003) believes TV news can contribute to in learning about target-cultures in EFL and ESL classrooms: “The news […] provides a particularly illuminating view of the stereotypical categories and preoccupations of a particular culture.” In the case of the news videos, the preoccupation was the reactions of outrage that followed what was believed to be a racially motivated killing of unarmed teenager Michael Brown by a white police man in August 2014, which soon after fueled a series of protests against police brutality in the USA.

Watching and distinguishing the two news stories resulted in students reflecting on believability. The news videos showed two conflicting broadcasts in reaction to the killing of Michael Brown where the two new corporations NBC News and Fox News portray the victim rather contrastively. The students believed that the NBC News video was more believable because “you see where it happened and more people explain it,” while the other Fox News video “only showed people talking about it.” (Appendix 10) This demonstrates that the students made some critical reflections about the content and presentation of the news in the two videos.

Believability was also considered with White People, as one student said that the information was “easier to believe” than if the teacher spoke about the same topic or issue (Appendix 10). This view is perhaps held because students are brought further into the human experience as opposed to being instructed by a teacher who does not have the same first-hand experience as the individuals in the video. This suggests that the visual component gives credibility to a video as it presented “visual statements” of the information that is conveyed (Eken 2002: 228). The act of critically questioning what we are watching, reading or listening to in this is the core idea of media literacy.

The students informed the researcher that they had never used news videos in their English lessons prior to the case study, while the teacher questionnaire revealed that just shy of half the teachers in this study used news video in their English teaching. Sherman (2003: 69) deems news “[…] a discourse which can’t justifiably be neglected from a language syllabus.” If
news is as worthwhile in language teaching as Sherman claims, then why are not teachers using it more frequently? One possible explanation could be that news intended for native language speakers is considered too complicated for language learners at certain levels. Difficult and fast-paced language was expressed by a few of the students as drawbacks of the two news videos that were shown during the case-study lessons. However, showing news videos in this study did not have as the main aim for the students to understand every word, but to grasp the general idea of what the news segments were about and what ideas or beliefs they expressed. The student responses proved that even though students did not understand every word in a video, with enough background knowledge and processing they could still grasp the main ideas and beliefs presented in a video with difficult language.

As Norwegian students are progressing towards the end of lower secondary school, they are expected to be at level B1 and approaching B2 (Helness 2012: 146). According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, students should at this level be able to “understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs […]” (Council of Europe Council for Cultural Co-operation 2001: 26-27) Another possible reason that news videos are not as frequently used in the English classroom is that news is not explicitly mentioned in the aims of the Norwegian English subject curriculum (LK06) until upper secondary school. The curriculum for lower secondary does however state that students should “understand the main content and details of different types of oral texts on different topics,” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 11) which unquestionably justifies the use of news videos with students at this level.

One shared reaction that the students conveyed as a response to both the news videos and the documentary was that they gained new perspectives on race issues. The students reported gaining new perspectives of race in terms of time and different ethnic groups.

Several students said that they enjoyed the present-day focus of the videos because, “We have really only talked about the history, we have never discussed how it is today […]” (Appendix 10) This might be an expression of an interest from the students’ side to have current and updated educational material. However, history is naturally a focus area for English teachers at this level in Norway as one of the curriculum aims states that the English subject in lower secondary school should enable students to “explain features of history and geography in Great Britain and the USA.” (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013: 10) While the wording of the curriculum
will make teachers focus on the history of race, the fact that the students had not been taught contemporary race issues might also confirm the notion that many teachers are uncomfortable with teaching race and therefore avoid it (Brown and Brown 2011). A further assumption is that teachers might feel less uncomfortable teaching race as historical instances rather than current events because it gives concepts such as racism and discrimination less immediacy and a sense of the distance.

On the other hand, the curriculum also states that students should explore contemporary topics and a number of teachers in the questionnaire seem to be using short videos with the intention of providing their students with updated and relevant information as well as giving their students “another point of view of the topic than what is presented in the reading material.” (Appendix 2) While not incorporating the Norwegian context, Brown and Brown (2011) point out that textbooks in the USA often do not position racism and racial violence, and therefore suggest using contemporary texts for this purpose. Berk (2009: 2) believes that video can ease some of the tension of teaching difficult topics such as race.

The textbook used in the case-study class does not include anything about the current state of racial problems in the contemporary US society, and if it did, this would also be quite outdated as the textbook was published in 2008. This would unquestionably force any teacher who uses this textbook to find material on this topic elsewhere (Heger and Wroldsen 2008). Having said this, the background information the students had about minorities in the USA served as a good basis for understanding the situation today, which might indicate that teaching about current racial discrimination in the USA is most productive with at least some historical frame of reference.

In addition to gaining a new time perspective on racial issues, students commented on the usefulness of viewing racial discrimination from the perspective of different ethnic groups in White People: “it wasn’t just the black and the white, it was also Asians and Indians […].” (Appendix 10) As a result of this, the students got a wide look at the discrimination felt by various groups of people, which surprisingly to the students also included discrimination felt by white people. As one student voiced, “for the most part we have only learnt about how whites looked at other races, but now we got to know more about how the other races look at white people.” (Appendix 10) One example of the way other races look at white people is in the section of the documentary where young Native Americans talk about stereotypes. They present the word
“Wasichu,” which is a commonly used term to describe a white person in their native language, and translates to “he who takes the best meat.” The students will most likely have some prior knowledge of negatively loaded expressions towards minority group by having studied the history of racial discrimination in the USA. Here, however, a new perspective was presented as they gained knowledge about a negatively loaded expression against a dominant group: white people.

Seeing the different forms racism could take was one of the aspects that students mentioned as a learning outcome from White People. For example, some students said that they had not reflected much on the concept of “reverse racism” before watching White People. One student had also come to the realization during the lessons, “we got to see that there is still racism.” (Appendix 10) These statements reflect the notion that Smith (2014: 66) describes when he discusses how the teaching of race, and especially the firstness of Barack Obama’s presidency, often gives students “misleading narratives of racial progress.” Avoiding race from a current point of view in the classroom will not give students a complete picture of the development and state of racial discrimination as it deprives students’ knowledge of “racism’s modern manifestations.” (DiAngelo 2012: 1)

Teaching race using video proved to elicit various emotional reactions in students. The ability to tap into students’ emotions is a feature that Berk (2009) brings forth as a benefit of video-based teaching, and one teacher respondent had experienced that, “students develop stronger feelings/opinions about the theme in question” (Appendix 2) when viewing videos in English lessons. A confirmation of this emotional impact that videos can have came when one of the students uttered, “imagine if we were in that situation” in response to White People (Appendix 10). This indicates that the particular student related to and sympathized with the individuals in the documentary. In the researcher’s impression, the personal relevance and emotional connection that White People induced were good starting points for critical discussion on the topic.

It is reasonable to assume that the emotional engagement that students were able to experience with White People owed a great deal to the demographics of the people featured in the video. The documentary, which is produced by MTV, clearly targets young people by featuring teenagers who are experiencing racial discrimination in areas of their lives such as in college application. It can be assumed that the more the students can relate content to their own lives, the
more emotionally involved they become. Despite the students being able to understand and take in much of the experiences of the individuals in the documentary, the response seemed to be more sympathetic than empathetic. This was evident by the way some of the students referred to the individuals as “them” as opposed to “us.” One reason why the students had this perception might be the fact that they believed that the problems that the young people in the documentary faced were not featured as strongly in the Norwegian society. Another reason for this distanced view might be that the students in this class did not have personal experience with being discriminated against because of their race. This was made clear after the completion and discussion of the White Privilege checklist (Appendix 8). This was an attempt to make them aware of the different areas of life where race can be a hinder for certain people. Despite the students not having personal experiences of racial discrimination, the checklist activity had a beneficial effect on this student group as a pre-watching activity to the documentary. The reasons for this was that they were made aware that they had in fact never been discriminated against because of their race, yet they recognized that the statements on the checklist were actual obstacles that people of color often face, which were to some students quite surprising.

The demographics of the people featured in *White People* also had an impact on the language of the video. The students pointed out that the video was easy to follow because the young people used simple language that accorded with the level of the students. In comparison to the news videos about Michael Brown, the setting of *White People* was more relatable to the students because the high school environment featured in the documentary was more similar to their every-day surroundings than the streets of Ferguson, Missouri.

An experience of one of the students was that *White People* was an effective way to learn about race because he claimed to still remember everything when the interviews were held, which was a few days after viewing it. In this case it appears that the documentary has had an effect on the long-term memory of this student, which is one of the results that Berk (2009) has experienced though-provoking videos to have on students. The fact that the students could relate to the issues in *White People* at a relatively deep level without any major linguistic impediment might have been one of the major success factors of the documentary with this particular age group.

In summary, many teachers in this study used video with the purpose of variation from traditional textbook teaching. Videos seem to be used both as a way of illustrating topics from
textbook, but also as a means of creating distance from it. There seems to be a separation between written texts and videos in their perceived educational value, especially in terms of integrating them into student assessment. The students’ evaluation of their own learning outcomes by video learning indicates that teachers can, with no fear of over-entertaining the students, more thoroughly integrate short video into their every-day teaching. Moreover, it became apparent during the case study that using short videos to teach race can elicit strong emotions, create interest and foster critical thinking in lower-secondary students, justifying that more room should be made for dealing with current perspectives of race alongside its historical context in the EFL classroom.

All in all, the current use of short videos calls for more comprehensive teacher training on the use of the tool, and expresses the need for teachers and students to view videos as legitimate educational texts as opposed to undemanding texts that are crammed into a lesson in order to snap the attention of students who do not respond well to written texts.
6. Conclusion

This thesis has aimed at investigating the use of short videos as pedagogical tools in lower secondary school in Norway. The thesis raised research questions regarding teachers’ use of short video in EFL, teacher and student attitudes to video teaching, and student responses to being taught contemporary race issues through short video.

In this study data was obtained through mixed method research; quantitative data were gathered through an online teacher questionnaire and qualitative data were collected by means of a case-study approach including teacher intervention and focus group interviews. 39 lower secondary EFL teachers in the Stavanger area completed the teacher questionnaire. Students’ attitudes to videos and their reaction to being taught contemporary race issues through short videos were examined through a small-scale case study in a tenth grade class. This involved the researcher teaching three consecutive lessons about race using two types of video lasting less than 35 minutes: two news broadcasts and one documentary. The news videos that were shown were two contrasting broadcasts about the killing of Michael Brown in 2014 from Fox News and NBC News, respectively. The documentary White People by MTV was also shown. Following the lessons, focus group interviews were held with students to inquire into their attitudes about video teaching in the English subject as well as their reactions to being taught race with the documentary and news videos.

The main intentions that the teachers have when using short videos as pedagogical tools are to differentiate their teaching, motivate students, and vary lessons in their EFL teaching. The findings from the teacher questionnaire showed that most of the teachers use short videos one to two times per month in their English teaching, and that short videos are used more frequently than feature-length videos.

Content wise, teachers use videos to promote cultural insight and to expose students to authentic language, with historical videos, documentaries and animations/educational videos as the primary genres of video. The use of authentic video material including native language samples indicates that communicative competence is a desired outcome of short video usage in lower secondary school. In addition, skills such as listening comprehension and vocabulary
learning are skills that teachers associate with video teaching. In terms of activities, the teachers mostly use oral tasks such as discussion in relation to short videos. When selecting videos for classroom use, teachers consider videos relating to the curriculum as the most important criterion, while also keeping in mind units in the textbook, authentic language and student interest.

What has come to light in this study is that videos are being used mostly as supplements or illustrations of content in the textbook with the intention of filling the gap between what the curriculum demands and the textbook offers. This use of videos gives the impression that teachers do not incorporate short videos as texts into the subject syllabus and assessment, thus indicating that teachers do not regard videos as being of equal educational value as written texts in English teaching. This was also represented by the teachers’ use of activities, where the questionnaire reveals that the majority of teachers do not use activities each time they use short videos in their teaching. With this taken into consideration, Prenksy’s (2012:139) prediction of video replacing written texts will in all likelihood not happen any time soon in Norwegian lower secondary school.

The teachers’ attitudes to the use of video are mostly positive, but they have experienced some challenges with their use in the classroom. Among the educational benefits that teachers have experienced with short videos in their EFL teaching were student engagement and motivation. Positive effects that teachers have experienced are that students seemed to remember content well when presented in audio visual form and that students who would initially struggle with comprehension benefit from the visual element in a video, thus reinforcing Paivio’s notion that visual stimuli reinforces verbal understanding (Paivio et al. 1980).

Teachers face linguistic, practical and pedagogical challenges when using short videos in the classroom. The most prominent language challenges accounted for were the demanding and sometimes inappropriate language of authentic videos found on the Internet, while technological issues such as unreliable video presentation tools resulted in loss of classroom time.

The fact that students are familiar with YouTube and use it frequently at home brings both benefits and challenges into the EFL classroom. On the one hand, this can lead to higher intrinsic motivation and sense of purpose because being able to understand what they are viewing is transferrable to their personal lives. On the other hand, students will often associate YouTube and video viewing in general with entertainment and relaxation, making it a demanding job for teachers to clearly distinguish educational and recreational use of the resource in their teaching.
The students in this study were mostly positive towards learning with short videos, and recognized less challenges associated with it than the teachers did. In the students’ opinions, lessons with videos were beneficial for their language learning and generally an enjoyable classroom activity. Furthermore, students believed that they learn more, focus better, and remember content longer by viewing video as opposed to reading written texts in English lessons. Even so, the students place firm demands as to what video material engages them and what is tiresome, deeming long video with information that does not particularly interest them boring. Moreover, students indicate that a haphazard use and over- or misuse of video in the classroom results in the teaching tool losing its appeal to them.

The news videos and the documentary proved to be useful for raising students’ awareness on the racial climate in the USA today. The main response from the students in connection to being taught race through the news and documentary in the case study was that it provided them with new perspectives on race issues in terms of time and ethnic groups. The students appreciated the contemporary focus on race in both the news and the documentary, because they had only been taught race from a historical perspective earlier. However, it was evident that the prior knowledge that the students had about the history of minority groups in the USA served as a good basis for understanding the current situation.

The contrasting news clips, demonstrating two ends of a spectrum, resulted in students employing critical media literacy approaches by considering the rhetoric and intentions of the news reports and reflecting on which narrative was most believable. The students further reported that information about race issues in the USA were more believable when coming from a video than the teacher. This was perhaps due to the fact that the specific videos showed during the case study featured fist-hand accounts of the issues at hand, thus making the video medium a source of visual evidence of social conditions in the USA. This demonstrates that a combination of representing race from the perspective of the past and present, as well as incorporating several viewpoints, first-hand experiences, and relating issues to the students’ own lives are effective approaches to providing students with a nuanced framework for learning about race.

In view of the results in this research, videos have promising potential for teaching race that goes beyond the English subject as the combination of communicative competence obtained from viewing authentic video and the cultural competence gained through learning about race
stretches far in meeting the Core Curriculum ideals of democratic involvement and co-citizenship.

In the context of the Norwegian school system, little research has been conducted on short videos in English teaching, and especially little in combination with teaching race. This study has contributed to create an awareness of the need for more teacher training in new forms of literacy and raised some interesting questions about the implications of teaching contemporary race issues in Norway, thus establishing a need for further study in this field. As for future research it would be useful to investigate the use of short video using qualitative methods to collect data from teachers in order to gain a more detailed insight into their knowledge and intentions behind using video in their English teaching. Moreover, it would be purposeful to employ a larger sample of students at various grade levels in an effort to examine what approaches to video teaching best serve the different age groups and levels in EFL learning. Another interesting direction for further study would be whether there is a connection between years of teaching experience and the use of multimedia supplements in English teaching.
7. References


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8. Appendices

Appendix 1: Tables and Figures

Figure 1: The use of YouTube videos and full-length videos

Figure 2: Types of short videos in EFL teaching
Other:

- “Humour”
- “Potentially all of the above, if it's relevant”
- “Short story videos. Comedy videos.”
- “Interviews”

Figure 3: Criteria for selecting short videos in the EFL classroom

Other:

- “A different perspective on an issue, or to illustrate a point”
- “Entertainment value. Craftsmanship.”
- “Must not be too long unless it's a part of the annual plan”
- “That content and language is not too demanding according to what pupils can be expected to understand.”
- “Updated, relevant content as basis for conversation”
• “News”

Figure 4: Skills aimed to be reached using short videos

Other:

• “Variety”
• “Interest in current events. Expand their horizon.”
• “Different perspectives [sic] of a story we have read.”
• “Learning history”
Other:

- “I sometimes [sic] use the videos as writing prompts”
- “A wide variety of reasons. In every way it works or is appropriate or I feel there is a need. On Monday [sic] I even eulogized David Bowie and showed some music videos and other clips related to him.”
- “If the video is linked to a text we have read, tasks are usually linked more to the text.”
- “Drama, text writing, presentations”

Table 1a: Short videos as rewards for good behavior

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<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When I show short videos, it is a reward for good behavior</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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Table 1b: Student engagement with short videos

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<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students are very engaged in lessons where video clips are used</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
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Table 1c: The use of activities with short videos

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<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I use activities with the short videos I show</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Attitudes to teaching with short videos

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<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree/disagree</th>
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<td>It is important to have clear learning aims when showing short videos to my class</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>56%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students learn more from videos than textbooks</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>59%</td>
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<tr>
<td>It is difficult to find appropriate short videos for classroom use</td>
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<td>28%</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short videos from YouTube tend to contain language that is too difficult for students to understand</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 2: Replies to open-ended questions in questionnaire

Question 9: What educational benefits have you experienced with using short videos in the classroom?


- “The pupils get another point of view of the topic than what is presented in the reading material, they are able learn about the same topic in different ways, as the textbook/reading material may be outdated, videos may give new information about the same topic (either content wise or in the modern technology used)”
- “Students have different learning strategies. Variation”
- “Students have finally understood a point I have been trying to make when they see it animated and with sound. Other times the videos provides hooks they can later use to hang other knowledge on- They joy of recognizing an allusion.”
- “Topics for discussion. Variety. Knowledge. Improving Language skills”
- “Supplement to texts and stimulates other intelligences.”
- “Motivation, interest, language skills”
- “more senses are stimulated. - authenticity - inspiring - can create interest”
- “Students often develop stronger feelings/opinions about the theme in question. They gain better insight. When it comes to character depiction, for instance, students are able to describe a character more easily after watching a video where the person is presented. Often videos are a good way of helping students summarize a theme”
- “The videos can explain things better than a picture or an oral explanation. It may also show situations/places etc that are mentioned in the textbook”
- “Motivating. Interesting. Variation. Different from every day-teaching. Easy accessible. You can find anything you need on the web, from tidal waves to Faraday Cages. You will not find anything you need in the school library :-()”
- “Motivation”
• “Pupils get different perspectives on texts we read. Videos engage pupils in a different way creating variation between each lesson, contributing to their engagement. Pupils get authentic linguistic input. Videos can be fun giving pupils a break from periods where the workload in lessons is quite heavy”
• “Good illustration of topic. Gives the students a better understanding of the theme we are currently working with.”
• “The students tend to like stepping away from the textbooks and showing clips grab their attention and can get them more interested and involved in a subject/activity”
• “The use of a short video related to the topic can be a good way of starting the lesson and catching the students' attention.”
• “Change of students's focus. Variations in the way of teaching”
• “1. Motivation 2. Kick-off to certain topics 3. Native speakers…”
• “Enhanced motivation Variation”
• “Students often respond very well to the use of videos, because they show interest and it is a break in their ordinary education.”
• “Students listen to native speakers, a break from other activities, they can watch videos again at home.”
• “The students like the variation so they pay greater attention. The students remember it better because they have both seen it and heard it.”
• “Pupils becoming aware of phrasal verbs, engaging students because of the visual, pupils tend to remember the content long after the video was shown”
• “I hardly ever use textbooks in my teaching, thus I have to use other sources. Short videos are therefore a source which I often use. They are great as an introduction to a new topic, to explain difficult facts, to show how life is really like in the UK/USA. I use them a lot in regard to literature. We read parts of a novel and watch either the same parts or other parts (or the whole film). Authentic language is also a benefit you get from using videos.”
• “Students can learn things in an entertaining way”
• “Authentic language, up to date topics.”
• “higher motivation - more differentiation - many students are more capable of remebering content visually, than from written material (specially students who have dyslexia or other related learning disabilites) - the time aspect is better suited students who are generally
used to switching rapidly between different kinds of media in their daily life (attention span)"
• “Motivated students”
• “More fruitful discussions when talking about relevant topics. The focus of attention is more collected. Collective summaries immediately after watching”
• “listening comprehension improves, use of more senses (audio, visual intelligences stimulated)”
• “motivated and happier students, better understanding of topic, variety in teaching methods”
• “Sometimes the students are more focused and also seem to learn more”
• “Pupils are engaged, and learn a lot about literature and history.”
• “It is a supplement to my teaching and the books”

Question 10: What educational challenges have you experienced with using short videos in the classroom?


• “Technical issues (no sound, missing Internet connection...), missing subtitles so that not all of the pupils always get the message of the video”
• “Sometimes the language can be too difficult”
• “attention span shortens afterwards, so best to use at the end of a lesson, or at the beginning if it is an instructional video.”
• “Videos sometimes of poor quality. Some might find it hard to understand fully”
• “Unwanted language (swearing), often hard to hear what they say”
• “sometimes hard to stay on topic - Depends upon the students' reaction”
• “computer not working!!!”
• “None.”
• “There are always some who think it is only for their Entertainment, but mostly they enjoy the change, and for some it helps them understand things better”
• “The videos are not always quite to the point. Some language barriers might occur. Commercials. Bad sound. Bad connection. Heavy pixelation. Other technical difficulties. "Oh, could we watch that video? Oh, the one with the kittens! Justin Bieber, Justin Bieber!" You can't use it too often; pupils are easily spoiled.”
• “none, really”
• “Pupils have been less interested than expected in the videos shown. Pupils may have trouble understanding the language - although this is not necessarily a bad thing. Pupils often want to choose videos themselves, which can, in a worst case scenario, be disruptive”
• “No particular difficulties. Some words will be difficult to some of the students, but most of them will understand through the use of sounds and pictures”
• “The language is sometimes hard for some children. When you have a class that varies in level, not all children benefit as much from the clips. On the other hand some of the children need a visual aid to understand topics.”
• “That students insist on keep watching more videos and clips instead of focusing on the desired learning outcome.”
• “Language might be difficult for pupils below average”
• “Technological problems...”
• “Language use and information related to our topic. It is required some IT-knowledge from me as a teacher to find a good video”
• “Bad equipment in the classroom! Videos are there one day, gone the next.”
• “Sometimes the videos are too difficult to understand for 8. graders or they contain language you might not want your students to hear in school.”
• “Sometimes language is too difficult, and it can be time consuming to navigate on the internet trying to find a suitable video according to the classroom topic.”
• “It is difficult to find short videos where the content is of a good enough quality. I can find documentaries, but they are often very long, and thus not suitable to be used in class.”
• “Students may not pay attention to the video.”
• “Authentic language can be difficult to understand”
• “technical challenges that leads to loss of time - a few times, depending on theme, problems with finding suitable material - information evaluation”
• “Finding the right ones to use as a supplement to the curriculum”
• “Technical difficulties at times. Some videos might be a bit fast-paced for some, which would require taking breaks to make sure everyone follows.”
• “authentic language may be difficult”
• “inappropriate advertising, sometimes hard to understand, poor quality”
• “Sometimes the language can be a bit difficult for some of the students”
• “Some videos are to fast or to hard to understand, but then you just pause them and explain”
• “No one, but this is not what I do often”
Appendix 3: Interview guide

_Generelle spørsmål om bruken av video_

Bruker lærerene dine YouTube og korte videoer i engelskundervisningen? Hvilke typer videoer?

Bruker du YouTube hjemme? Hva bruker du YouTube til hjemme?

Synes du korte videoer hjelper deg med å lære om kulturen i engelskspråklige land?

Liker du best korte videoer eller spillefilmer i undervisningen? Hvorfor liker du den ene mer enn den andre?

Hva synes du er positive aspekter ved å bruke YouTube eller korte videosnutter i undervisningen?

Hva er negative aspekter ved å bruke YouTube eller korte videosnutter i undervisningen?

_Klasseromsprosjektet_

Hva synes du om å bruke nyheter for å lære om raseproblemer i USA?

Hva fikk nyhetssendingene deg til å tenke om hvordan forskjellige saker blir fremstilt i media? Synes du at denne metoden var nyttig for å lære om dette? Hvorfor/hvorfor ikke?

Hvordan fikk dokumentaren “White People” deg til å tenke om raseproblemer i USA?

På hvilken måte synes du dokumentaren var en bra eller dårlig måte å lære om raseproblemer i USA på?
Appendix 4: Teacher Questionnaire

1. Roughly how often do you show full-length videos in your English teaching?

[ ] I have never shown a full-length video in my English class
[ ] one or two times a year
[ ] 1 – 2 times per month
[ ] Every week

2. What types of short videos do you use in your English class? (you may check more than one response)

[ ] I don’t use short videos
[ ] Documentaries
[ ] News broadcasts
[ ] Political debates
[ ] Movie trailers
[ ] Music videos
[ ] Commercials
[ ] Animations/ educational videos
[ ] Historical videos
[ ] Other. Specify: ________________

3. Roughly how often do you use YouTube in your English teaching?

[ ] I have never used YouTube in my English teaching
[ ] One or two times a year
[ ] 1-2 times per month
[ ] Every week
4. What is important to you when selecting videos of any length? (You may check more than one response)  
[ ] Award winning  
[ ] Content relates to units in textbook  
[ ] Authentic language  
[ ] Student interest in the topic  
[ ] Content relates to curriculum  
[ ] Other. Specify: ________________

5. When you use a short video in the classroom, which skills are you usually aiming the students to gain? (You may check more than one response)  
[ ] Cultural insight  
[ ] Listening comprehension skills  
[ ] Grammar knowledge  
[ ] Critical thinking skills  
[ ] Vocabulary learning  
[ ] Other. Specify: ________________

6. Check the box that applies to your use of short videos in your English teaching.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When I show short videos, it is a reward for good behavior.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Students are very engaged in lessons where video clips are used.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I use activities with the short videos I show.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
7. What types of classroom activities do you use with videos? (You may check more than one response)

[ ] Group discussions
[ ] Whole-class discussion
[ ] Worksheets
[ ] Vocabulary tests
[ ] Other. Specify: ________________

8. Check the box that applies to your opinion on the use of short videos in your English teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

9. What educational benefits have you experienced with using short videos in the classroom?

10. What educational challenges have you experienced with using short videos in the classroom?
Kjære engelsklærer,

Jeg vil gjerne invitere deg til å delta i en studie jeg gjennomfører som en del av min masteroppgave i *Literacy Studies* ved Universitetet i Stavanger. Formålet med oppgaven er å undersøke fordeler og ulemper ved bruken av korte videoer fra YouTube i engelskundervisning. Jeg ønsker derfor deg som engelsklærer å besvare en kort spørreundersøkelse om dine erfaringer med å bruke korte videoer i din engelskundervisning.

Spørreundersøkelsen inneholder 10 spørsmål og vil ta omtrent 5 minutter å besvare.

Jeg setter stor pris på din deltakelse i undersøkelsen, men deltakelse er valgfritt og du kan trekke deg når som helst. Svarene du oppgir vil bli anonymiserte og jeg garanterer at ditt navn ikke vil bli publisert i oppgaven.

Om du er villig til å delta, trykk på linken for å komme til spørreundersøkelsen.

Link til spørreundersøkelse: …

Svarfrist: …

Har du noen spørsmål om spørreundersøkelsen eller prosjektet generelt, ta gjerne kontakt med meg på sa.skjeveland@stud.uis.no.

På forhånd takk

Med vennlig hilsen,
Sara Skjæveland
Appendix 6: Student information letter

Kjære elev,

Jeg vil gjerne invitere deg til å delta i et forskningsprosjekt som en del av min masteroppgave i Literacy Studies fra Universitetet i Stavanger. Formålet med studien er å undersøke fordeler og ulemper ved bruken av korte videoer fra YouTube i engelskundervisning til å lære om aktuelle raseproblemer i USA.

Som en del av studien skal jeg utføre et klasseromsprosjekt i din klasse. Dette vil innbære at jeg bruker to engelsktimer til å undervise om raseproblemer i USA ved å bruke ulike YouTube videoer. Jeg håper at du og noen andre elever vil være villige til å bli intervjuet etter disse timene.

Intervjuset vil skje på norsk og kommer til å inneholde generelle spørsmål om din erfaring med YouTube i klasserommet og dine tanker om dette. I tillegg vil intervjuset inneholde noen spørsmål om hvordan du opplevde å bli undervist om raseproblemer gjennom bruk av YouTube videoer. Jeg kommer til å bli lydoptaket i intervjuet for å kunne lettere hente frem og bearbeide svarene deres i etterkant.

Jeg vil sette stor pris på din deltakelse i prosjektet, men det er selvfølgelig helt valgfritt og du kan trekke deg når som helst. Svarene du gir under intervjuet vil bli anonymiserte i oppgaven og jeg garanterer at ditt navn ikke vil bli publisert. Det er kun jeg og min veileder ved universitetet som har tilgang til opptakene.

Om du har noen spørsmål om intervjuet eller prosjektet generelt, ta gjerne kontakt med meg på sa.skjøveland@stud.uis.no.

På forhånd takk

Med vennlig hilsen,
Sara Skjøveland

Svar

Jeg har mottatt informasjon om studien og er villig til å delta

Signatur: ________________________________

Dato: _________________________________
Appendix 7: White People worksheet

1. Write one sentence where you briefly explain what the documentary is about.

____________________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________

2. What does “White Privilege” mean? What kinds of privileges do the young people in the documentary discuss?

____________________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________

3. What does the word colorblind mean in the documentary?

_________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________

4. Katy and her mother believed that she had been a victim of “reverse racism” when she was applying to college. What do you think about this claim? Do you agree or disagree?

____________________________________________________________________________
5. Some people argue that the documentary puts all white people in a bad light. Do you agree or disagree? Give reasons for your answer.

6. Do you think the issues that are discussed in the documentary apply to Norway? Why or why not?

7. If you were to respond to one of the comments under the YouTube video what would you write?
Appendix 8: White Privilege checklist

White Privilege Checklist
(adapted from Peggy McIntosh, 1988)

Place an X next to the statements that are true for you.

___ 1. I can arrange to be in the company of people of my race most of the time.
___ 2. I can be pretty sure that where I live my neighbors will be neutral or pleasant to me.
___ 3. I can go shopping alone and not worry that I will be followed or harassed.
___ 4. I can turn on the television or open to the front page of the paper and see people of my race widely represented.
___ 5. If a policeman stops me I can be sure that it is not because of my race.
___ 7. I can easily buy toys and dolls that look like the people of my race.
___ 8. I can be pretty sure that if I ask to talk with the “person in charge” I will be facing a person of my race.
___ 9. I can choose blemish cover or bandages in “flesh” color and have them more or less match my skin.
___ 10. I can walk into a classroom and know I will not be the only member of my race.
___ 11. I can be sure that if I need legal or medical help, my race will not work against me.
TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 29.10.2015. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

45423 Benefits and challenges of using YouTube in the classroom: a case study in teaching race in a lower secondary school
Behandlingsansvarlig Universitetet i Stavanger, ved institusjonens øverste leder
Daglig ansvarlig Jena Habegger-Conti
Student Sara Skjæveland

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredsstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

Personvernombudets vurdering forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.


Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 12.05.2016, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen
Katrine Utaaker Segadal Andreas Bratshaug Stenersen

Kontaktperson: Andreas Bratshaug Stenersen tlf: 55 58 30 19

Appenix 9: NSD approval letter
Appendix 10: Interview transcriptions

Interview Group 1:
4 students: 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d
Researcher: R

R: Bruker lærerne deres YouTube eller korte videoer i engelskundervisningen?
1a: av og til.
1b, 1c, 1d: Ja, av og til. (overlapping)
R: Ja ok, og hva type?
1a: Dokumentar, for det meste.
R: Ja, ok. Er det lange eller korte dokumentarer?
1b: Det er korte.
R: Som regel korte?
1c: Ja, men det kan også være lange.
1b: Ikke mer enn en time, hvertfall.
R: Yes. Bruker dere YouTube noe hjemme?
1a, 1b, 1c, 1d: Ja (overlapping)
R: Ja, hva bruker dere det til?
1b: Jeg ser på sånn sminke forslag.
1c: Jeg ser på folk som spiller spill og noen sånn nyhetskanaler også.
1a: Jeg ser på mer sånn FailArmy og ja, folk som spiller, og egentlig alt forskjellig.
R: Ja, morsomme videoer?
1a: Ja
1d: Jeg ser også på alt forskjellig, egentlig.
R: Bruker dere YouTube når dere gjør skolearbeid?
1c: Vi gjorde det en gang i engelsken.
R: Ja
1b: Av og til hvis det er sånn, for eksempel, sånn vanskelig mattestykke så forklarer de det bra på YouTube.
R: Ja, ok. Bra. Så det går an å lære mye på YouTube?
1a, 1b, 1c: Ja (overlapping)

R: Og syns dere at korte videoer fra YouTube lærer dere noe om kulturen i engelskspråklige land når dere bruker de i timene eller bruker det hjemme?

1b: Ja litt.

1c: Litt.

1a: Jeg føler at jeg forstår mer engelsk når jeg hører andre snakke i stedet for bare oss i klassen, liksom. For da får jeg høre andre dialekter også og da kan jeg lære meg og forstå dem også.

R: Ja, bra. Når engelskspråklige folk snakker?

1a: Ja.

R: Lærer dere noe mer om kultur? Med kultur så tenker jeg på hvordan samfunnet er i engelskspråklige land. Har dere brukt det i engelsken noen gang for å lære om dette?

1a: Hm, nei.

1c: For å lære om kultur?

R: Ja.

1c: Vi har brukt det til å lære om forskjellige dialekter i engelsk.

R: Ja. Det er et godt eksempel.

1a: Ja.

R: Liker dere best korte videoer eller lange filmer, altså spillefilmer, i engelsktimen?

1a: Det kommer an på hva det handler om.

1b, 1c, 1d: Ja (overlapping)

1a: Hvis det er dokumentar, så helst korte, liksom.

1b: Og hvor de forklarer best, på en måte.

R: Ja, at det er viktigere at de forklarer det godt, enn at det varer lenge?

1a, 1b, 1c: Ja (overlapping)

R: Ja. Hvorfor liker dere den ene over den andre? Eller liker dere bedre korte eller lange?

1a: Jeg liker bedre de korte.

R: Du liker bedre de korte ja?

1c: Jeg liker også bedre korte.

1d: Ja egentlig jeg også.

1a: Jeg liker best de korte, for hvis du ser på en lang dokumentarfilmer, for eksempel, som skal forklare deg noe, så kan det fort være kjedelig å høre på hvis du allerede har fått svaret.
R: Ja, det blir så langt at du ikke får med deg alt.

l1a, l1b: Ja. Mhm. (overlapping)

R: Hva syns dere er bra ting med å bruke YouTube eller korte filmer i undervisningen?

l1b: Av og til kan det være at YouTube forklare bedre enn hva læreren gjør og kanskje det er kjekkere også.

R: Ja, har dere noen andre positive ting med det?

l1a, l1b: Nei.

R: Hva er det som er bedre… syns dere det er bedre å se noe på YouTube enn å lese det? Eller hva foretrekker dere?

l1c: Jeg syns det er bedre å se det på YouTube enn å lese det på grunn av at når du leser kan du faktisk glemme det du leser og du kan liksom miste grepet når du leser, så det er bedre å se på YouTube på grunn av da følger du mer med.

l1a: Ja.

R: Ja for da slipper du å bruke… å konsentrere deg selv?

l1a: For eksempel, jeg forstår mer og husker mer når jeg ser eller hører på YouTube enn å lese fordi plutselig kommer jeg ut av det eller bare leser og liksom ikke vet hva jeg leser i det hele tatt.

l1b: Og så viser det mer bilder og videoer og sånn på YouTube.

R: Ja det blir bilde og tekst sammen?

l1b: Ja.

R: Hva synes dere er negativt med å bruke korte videoer?

l1a: Det kan jo fort bli sånn veldig…

l1d: Det kan bli litt for kort liksom… at det ikke kommer nok informasjon.

R: Mhm.

l1a: Det kan jo også bli sånn att for eksempel noen ikke har internett eller noe sånt og så skal du gjøre oppgaver eller lekser og sånt, så kan du ikke akkurat se på YouTube, da må du ha boka.

R: Ja. Også at dette tar litt tid i klasserommet?

l1a: Ja.

R: Merket dere på fredag hva som skjedde når det kom reklame opp?
1c: Det var litt irriterende på grunn av det er liksom hvis vi skal se sånne ting, så i stedet for at det skal være reklame så kan vi hoppe rett til videoen på grunn av at det kommer reklame om noe vi egentlig ikke bryr oss om.
R: Det kom en reklame så merket jeg at det kanskje ble litt støy i klasserommet. Det var kanskje en morsom reklame slik at alle begynte å le slik at vi kom litt av temaet.
1a, 1b, 1c, 1d: Ja (overlapping)
R: Når dere ser en video snutt slik, hvilke aktiviteter eller oppgaver føler dere at dere lærer mest hvis når dere bruker det sammen?
1b: Slik som vi gjorde når vi brukte oppgavene?
R: Ja. For eksempel diskusjon eller innleveringer, eller hva føler dere at dere lærer mest av?
1b: Jeg synes vi lærte bra av å snakke i sammen i klasserommet.
1c: Ja, det syns jeg også.
R: Ja. Diskutere. Både i lag med elever og felles?
1b: Ja. Samarbeide liksom.
R: Hva synes dere om å bruke nyheter for å lære om raseproblemer i USA?
1c: Det er bra for der ta de del jo opp veldig ofte har jeg fått med meg via de nyhetskanalene jeg ser på YouTube så tar de del jo mye opp og jeg har hørt om andre historier over svarte folk som har blitt skutt av politiet. Og jeg har også hørt om han fyren…
R: Michael Brown?
1c: Ja, har også hørt om han og sett video om hva som har blitt tidligere.
R: Ja, så det er en god måte å lære om dette? De tar jo opp aktuelle saker på nyhetene som er viktige i det samfunnet, så det er jo en måte… Har noen av dere noe å tilføye? Jeg kan gjenta spørsmålet. Hva synes dere om å bruke nyheter for å lære om raseproblemer i USA?
1b: Det viser jo hvordan de har det der på en måte, og hvordan forskjellige har meninger om det og sånne ting.
R: Ja, forskjellige nyhetsbyrå?
1b: Ja.
1d: Hvordan de tar det opp liksom.
R: Ja hvordan de tar det opp. Bra.
R: Og fikk nyhetssendingene dere til å tenke på hvordan forskjellige saker blir fremsilt? Siden vi viste to forskjellige? Ble dere mer bevisst på noe når jeg viste dere det?
1c: En klarte jo se den store forskjellen som var mellom der og jeg ville mer tro på den andre videoen du viste, ikke den første. Fordi den andre der ser du liksom der skjedde og det er flere folk som forklarer det og i følge det jeg så, så det ikke ut som det var noen butikk der.
R: Nei. Du syns det så mer troverdig ut den siste?
1c: Ja.
R: Hvorfor var den første ikke så troverdig?
1d: Der bare viste de liksom folk som snakket om det, bare.
R: Meninger?
1d: Bare snakket om at det ikke var sant, liksom.
1c: Ja, og så viste bare bilde. Litt sånn bare, ikke skummelt, men noe som de hadde funnet frem som liksom skulle være skummelt av han der Brown og viste det.
1d: Da han så kriminell ut, rett og slett.
R: Hvordan fikk den dokumentaren vi så, *White People*, dere til å tenke annerledes, eller hvordan fikk den dere til å tenke om raseproblemer i USA?
1c: Det fikk hvertfall meg til å tenkte at det er veldig mye forskjell for folk som ikke er hvite. At de blir behandlet annerledes, men når jeg så det med videregående skole, så jeg så jeg jo at det var et pluss for de at de var litt annerledes, på grunn av da fikk de mer hjelp enn det de hvite gjorde, men vi trenger jo ikke så mye hjelp, så derfor var det bra at de fikk litt ekstra hjelp.
R: Ja. Hjelp for å komme inn på college, tenker du?
1c: Ja.
R: Tror dere at vi har noen av de samme problemene i Norge?
1b: Nei, jeg føler at i Norge respekterer de dem mer, men der er finnes jo noen som er faktisk sann.
R: Ja, det er vel sånn i begge land?
R: På hvilken måte synes dere at dokumentaren var en bra eller dårlig måte å lære om raseproblemer?
1b: Jeg følte at vi lærte mer nå med å se på YouTube enn for eksempel hvis en lærer hadde fortalt noe.
R: Dere syns det var bedre å se en dokumentar om det?
1d: Ja for det er lettere å tro på det, på en måte.
1c: Pluss at det var med litt nyere tid på grunn av at vi har lært om det fra gamle dager om når du ser liksom hvordan raseskille er nå, da ser vi jo at der er litt som er forandret, men ikke så mye.
R: At det fortsatt er problemer?
1c: Ja
1a: Du får kanskje mer sånn se for deg hvordan det ser ut når vi ser det på YouTube, enn når læreren bare snakker om det. Sånn som skjer der og der. Da kan vi ikke se hvordan det egentlig ser ut.
R: Det med at det var unge folk i denne dokumentaren på deres alder egentlig, tror dere at det gjorde at dere forstod det bedre eller at det var lettere for dere å forstå eller sette dere inn i det.
1c: Nei, ikke så mye syns eg.
1d: På en måte.
R: Du sier på en måte? Du kan relatere mer til folk på din alder, kanskje?
1b: Ja kanskje, for tenk hvis vi var i den situasjonen.
R: Ja, at du kan sette deg mer inn i situasjonen når de er på din alder, kanskje?
R: Har dere noe mer dere vil tilføye?
1a,1b,1c,1d: Nei.
R: Ok, nei. Det er bra, da er dere ferdige.

访谈小组2:
3名学生: 2a, 2b, 2c
研究员: R

R: 我想问的第一个问题：用你们的YouTube或者短片来教英语怎么样?
2a: Nei
R: Nei. Ingenting?
2c: Litt av og til. Det er egentlig ganske sjeldent.
2b: Men det gjør jo undervisningen kjekkere.

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R: Ja, du synes det?
2b: Ja.

R: Hva typer videoer bruker læreren hvis hun bruker det?
2c: Det er for det meste faglig, sånn for eksempel en presentasjon av det temaet vi har. For eksempel en tidslinje mellom en periode, eller noe sånt.

R (to 2a and 2b): Er det noen andre typer videoer dere kommer på?
2b: Ja, for eksempel på det temaet vi har om nå, fantasy, så viser hun noen små klipp eller noe om hva som kan foregå i fantasy filmer.
R: Ja, for å kanskje introdusere et nytt tema?
2b: Ja.

R: Bruker dere YouTube noe hjemme?
2a: Ja veldig mye.
2b, 2c: Ja, mye (overlapping)
2b: Daglig.

R: Daglig, ja. Hva bruker dere det til da?
2b: Just for fun.

R: Ja, bare for kjekt?
2b: Ja, på kvelden for å få sove.

R: Det er for underholdning da dere bruker det?
2b: Ja.

R: Har dere noen gang brukt det når dere gjør lekser, eller øver til en prøve?
2a: Ikke akkurat i de type sammenhengene, men hvis vi står fast i noe som for eksempel et spill eller noe, da går vi og ser hva de gjør – fasiten på en måte.

R: Ja, det er mange som legger ut instruksjoner om hvordan man gjør ting? Jeg har for eksempel brukt det for å se hvordan jeg skal skrue inn en skrue i veggen. Det er masse du kan lære på YouTube.

R: Syns dere korte videoer hjelper dere å lære noe om engelskspråklige kulturer?
2b: Det spørs hvor godt det er forklart i videoen.
2a: Ja, så er det jo bilde så da skjønner vi det enklere enn når for eksempel læreren snakker om det på en måte.

R: Ja at du får bilde i tilegg til informasjon? Det hjelper?
2a: Ja. Så ser vi hva de gjør på en måte.
R (to 2b): Ja, og du sier det har litt med kvaliteten på videoen også?
2b: Ja.
R: Liker dere best korte videoer eller lange spillefilmer i engelsken?
2a: Hvis det er en bra lang spillefilm, så kan det være nokså greit.
R: Ja. (to 2b and 2c): Hva forestrekker dere andre?
2b: Akkurat det samme som han sier. Det er ikke noe…
R: Nei det har mer med kvaliteten og hva dere kan lære?
2a, 2b, 2c: Ja. (overlapping)
R: Hva synes dere er positivt med og bruke YouTube eller korte filmer i engelskundervisningen?
Hva er bra med det? (to 2b): du sier du synes det er kjekkere?
2b: Å bruke korte filmer?
R: Å bruke korte filmer enn lange?
2b: Nei, det spørs jo hvordan det er.
2a: Det som kan være litt positivt er hvis vi brukt det litt mer i timene så kunne vi blitt vant med å bruke det på den måten slik at vi kunne brukt det mer hjemme.
R: Ja at dere blir lært opp i timen?
2b: Hun [English teacher] bruker det ikke akkurat så lite egentlig, hun bruker jo … annen hver time så har hun jo pc-en opppe for å vise oss filmer, sånne små snutter.
2a: Ja, [English teacher] gjør det, men ikke alle.
R: Det er [English teacher] dere har i engelsk, så hun bruker det altså?
2a, 2b: Ja (overlapping)
2a: Ja og i norsken holder vi på med det mye for nå for tiden, å lage filmer og sånt.
R: I naturfag også? For å forklare ting i naturfagen?
2a, 2b: mhm.
R: Hva synes dere kan være negative ting med å bruke det i klasserommet?
2c: Hvis noen synes det er kjedelig og filmen er litt vanskelig å forstå. Så kan det hende at noen, ja, ikke klarer å følge med i det hele tatt.
R: Ja. At de kobler litt ut og det blir vanskelig språk i noen av de?
2c: Ja.
R: Hvis de er beregnet for engelskspråklige folk at da språket blir litt vanskelig?

2a, 2b, 2c: mhm

R: Merket dere hva som skjedde nå på fredag når det kom reklame. At det da kanskje ble litt støy i klasserommet for det var kanskje en morsom reklame.

2a: Ja, for det var jo ikke akkurat noe vi måtte følge med på heller da.
2c: Du går liksom litt av veien, da.

R: Ja, du kommer litt ut av sporet.

R: Kan dere tenke på noe annet som er negativt?

2a: Nei.
2c: Kommer ikke på noe nå akkurat.
2b: Nei.

R: Nei, og hva typer aktiviteter eller oppgaver føler dere at dere lærer mest av å bruke i sammenheng med videoer? Sånn som på fredag brukte vi litt diskusjon i grupper, og så hadde vi det oppgavearket. Hva likte dere best, eller hva lærer dere best av det, eller kommer dere på noe annet som hadde vært nyttig?

2a: Det han ene fra Filippinene, han, den dokumentaren han hadde. Dokumentarer kan vi lære mye av, for jeg husker fortsatt alt vi ble vist.
2b: Så lenge dokumentarene er interessante, så er det kjekt for oss å se på også, men det finnes noen der de sier unødvendige ting som vi ikke vil vite.
2c: Hvis det er noen illustrasjoner som viser forskjellige ting også.

R: Ja, du synes dette er positivt?
2c: Ja

R: Ja for det var det jo litt i den dokumentaren, at det kom opp illustrasjoner.

R: Hva synes dere om å bruke nyheter for å lære om raseproblemer i USA? Husker dere de to nyhetssendingene vi så?
2a: Om han der Charlie Brown?

R: Ja, Michael Brown.
2a: Ja, Michael Brown ja.

2b: Det var interessant å se forskjellen på de to reporterne, at det var så stor forskjell på det de svarte og det de hvite tenkte.

R: Ja, tenker dere noe annet om det? Synes dere det var vanskelig språk eller var det lett å forstå?
2c: Greit nok å forstå.
2a, 2b: ja (overlapping)
R: Ja, ser dere noe på engelske nyheter på fritiden?
2b: Nei.
R: For nyhetene er ikke laget for dere ungdommer i Norge å forstå, det er jo til engelskspråklige voksne, så det kan jo av og til være litt vanskelig språk.
2a: Mhm. Vi ser jo på TV2 nyhetene og NRK nyhetene da.
2b: Kanskje du, men ikke jeg.
R: Ja, noen gjør det ja.
R: Hva fikk nyhetssendingene dere til å tenke om hvordan ting kan bli framstilt forskjellig?
2c: Hvordan?
R: Tenkte dere noe…har dere tenkt over hvordan forskjellige nyhetskanaler kan fremstille ting forskjellig?
2b: Ja, det er veldig mye manipulering også i nyheter. Det tenker jeg hvertfall.
R: Har dere merket dette i Norge også?
2b: Jeg vet ikke, men jeg er fra tyskland så jeg ser tysk TV. Det er hvertfall mye manipulering på nyhetene der.
R: Det er jo slik at når det blir laget en nyhetssending så velger jo journalistene hva de skal ta med og hva de ikke skal ta med, uten at kanskje vi seere tenker over det. Ja, og synes dere det var en nyttig måte å lære om raseproblemer? Lærte dere noe nytt?
2a, 2b, 2c: Ja (overlapping)
R: Hva lærte dere?
2a: For det meste har vi bare lært hvordan de hvite så på de andre rasene, men nå fikk vi vite mer hvordan de andre rasene så på de hvite, for eksempel.
R: Ja, bra. Har dere kanskje lært om hvordan det var i historien? For nå tok vi jo det litt til de problemene som faktisk eksisterer i dag.
R: Hvordan fikk White People, den dokumentaren, dere til å tenke om raseproblemer i USA?
2b: Vi fikk hvertfall se at det fortsatt er litt rasistisk, eller at noen rasistiske folk i verden.
R: Ja, at det fortsatt er problemer?
2b: Ja.
2c: Forskjellige måter rasisme ble fremstilt på.
R: Ja, at det kanskje ikke er like åpent som det var på den tiden dere lænte om det, si slavetiden, men at det nå er andre former.
2c: mhm
R: Hva syns dere om det de snakte om ”reverse racism”? At hun ene jenten ble diskriminert for hun var hvit. Hadde dere tenkt over dette før?
2c: Nei
2a: De hvite hadde fordelen.
R: At det satt det i et litt annet lys?
2a: mhm
R: Og på hvilken måte synes dere denne dokumentaren var en god eller dårlig måte å lære om raseproblemer?
2a: Vi fikk jo vite realiteten i alt det, fordi alle sier jeg ser på deg helt normalt, men egentlig så tenker mange sikkert mange sann ligg annerledes, de ser på de annerledes, men de sier annerledes.
2c: Du fikk flere historier fra flere folk.
R: Ja at du fikk inn mange. Alderen på de som var med, det var jo unge folk. Føler dere at dere klarer å relatere mer til det, eller forstå det bedre siden det var unge folk, eller?
2a: Ja, men som sagt, i Norge har vi ikke akkurat så mange sånn svarte, så vi har på en måte ikke så store problemer her i Norge da.
R: Nei, det er ikke i sammen graden?
2a: Nei for der var det jo på en måte. Det var jo ikke akkurat de hvite som var der først, på en måte. Det var jo sånn, det er akkurat som om noen fra for eksempel nede i fra Arabia skulle å tatt over Norge, det var på en måte sånn. Det er sikkert sånn de føler det de Native Americans.
R: Ja, at de fortsatt er litt bitre på de hvite? At filmen ga litt uttrykk for det?
2a: Mhm.
R: Ja, veldig bra. Har dere noe mer dere vil legge til?
2b: Det var bra at du spurte oss om spørsmål om filmen etterpå. Sånn at vi fikk på en måte tenke over det, om vi fortsatt husker det, om ting og tang.
2c: Om vi forstådde det.
R: Ja. Denne filmen er laget for unge folk, men ikke nødvendigvis for dem som ikke er engelskspråklige, så det er jo viktig å passe på at vi forstår det.
2c: Ja.
2a: Jeg følte at hele klassen var med på dette. I forhold til de pleier å gjøre andre ganger.
2b: Ja i forhold til andre dager.
R: Ok, det var jo bra å høre da. Flott, da var dere ferdige, takk skal dere ha.

**Interview Group 3:**
4 students: 3a, 3b, 3c, 3d
Researcher: R

R: Bruker lærerne deres YouTube og korte videoer i engelsken?
3d: Ja.
3c: Ja, av og til.
R: Hvilke typer videoer?
3d: Er det bare i engelsk?
R: Ja, tenker jeg hovedsakelig i engelsk, men du kan si andre fag også.
3c: Da bruker hun sånn, vi har liksom aldri sett sånne nyheter.
R: Dere har ikke sett nyheter før nei?
3d: Nei.
3c: Bare sånn, jeg vet ikke hva det heter.
3d: Bare sånn når vi hadde om den borgerkrigen og alt det så viste hun litt sånn bare et sammendrag på en måte om det.
3c: Sånn faktafilmer på en måte.
R: Ja, sammendrag og faktafilmer for å introdusere et nytt tema?
3d: mhm.
R (to 3a, 3b, 3c): Kommer dere på noen?
(Pause)
R: Nei? Bruker dere YouTube noe hjemme?
3a: Alt for mye.
3b, 3c: Ja (overlapping)
R: Alt for mye, ja. Hva bruker dere det til hjemme?
3c: Se på sminkevideoer.
R: Ja, lære hvordan du skal gjøre?
3d: Musikkvideoer og sånn intervju med sånn andre folk på en måte.
R: Intervju ja. (to 3a and 3b): Hva bruker dere YouTube til?
3a: Alt mulig.
R: Alt mulig ja. Har dere noen gang brukt YouTube til skolearbeid?
3d: Ja.
3a: Ja jeg har det samtidig som jeg gjør skolearbeid.
R: Ja. Ved siden av?
3a: Ja.
3d: Vi har hatt det i lekse en gang.
R: Har du noen gang tenkt ”dette må jeg finne ut av, jeg søker på YouTube”?
3c, 3a: nei (overlapping)
3d: Vi har hatt det i lekse an gang.
R: Dere har hatt det i lekse ja, å finne utav noe på YouTube?
3d: Ja, å se en video på YouTube.
R: Ja, bra. Synes dere korte videoer hjelper dere å lære noen om kulturen i engelskspråklige land?
3d, 3b: Ja.
R: Hvordan da?
3a: Det er mye enklere å se på, det er så trøttende å se på disse 40-minutters videoene om forskjellige ting.
R: Ja, det er lettere med de korte? Det er greiere?
3a: Ja.
R: (to 3b, 3c, 3d): Er dere enige?
3b, 3c, 3d: Ja (overlapping)
R: Da skal jeg spørre: liker dere bedre korte filmer eller lange filmer i engelsken?
3d: Korte.
R: Du liker best korte?
3d: Det er alt etter som. Den lange videoen vi så med deg var liksom greit siden der var liksom litt interessant å se på liksom.
R: Ja, den varte jo i en halvtime da, så har du jo sånne som går på kino, sånne lange. Hva liker dere best, korte eller spillefilmer?
R (to 3c, 3d): Dere liker best korte?
R (to 3a, 3b): Hva liker dere best i engelskundervisningen?
3a: Det er alt etter.
R: Det er alt etter ja. Er det etter om du liker filmen eller om det er et interessant tema?
3a: Ja det spørs hva tema vi har.
R: Ja. Hva synes dere er positive ting med å bruke YouTube i undervisningen, eller i klasserommet? Hva er bra med det?
3a: Mye lettere å lære.
R: Lettere å lære?
3a: Enn å høre på en lærer står og snakker.
3d: Det er mer interessant.
R: Ja, det er mer interessant? Hvorfor er det lettere å lære, tror du?
3a: For da har du noe å se på, da har du en video å se på.
R: Ja, du har en video å se på i tillegg til å få informasjon. Er dere enige?
3c, 3d: Ja (overlapping)
R: Kan dere tenke på noen flere positive ting?
3c: At vi får høre liksom hvordan de snakker, sånn dialekten deres og sånn, og hvordan de bruker setninger.
R: Ja, veldig bra. Hvordan engelskspråklige folk faktisk snakker, dialekter og ja.
R: Hva kan være negative ting da?
3a: Med å se på YouTube?
R: Ja i klasserommet.
3a: At det kan bli en vane å se på det.
3c: At jeg sovner.
R: At du sovner? Kan det av og til bli litt kjedelig?
3c: Ja du blir liksom trøtt i øynene av å se på det, i tillegg hvis det er liksom første time og sånn.
R: Ja, for da kan du bli litt sliten av det? For du sitter jo i ro og slapper av litt.
3c: (indistinct)
R: Husker dere hva som skjedde når reklamen kom på?
3c: Alle ble distrahert.
R: Ja, dere ble distraherte, at det kanskje er en negative ting med reklamen på YouTube, at da kommer du litt av sporet.
3a, 3b: mhm (overlapping)
R: Ja dere så også den. Hvilke typer aktiviteter og oppgaver synes dere er best å bruke når dere bruker når dere bruker videoer i engelsken?
3c: Hvordan, liksom sånn etterpå?
R: Ja etterpå eller før. Liker dere best å diskutere eller skrive, eller?
3b, 3d: Skrive (overlapping)
3c: Diskutere.
R: Noen sier skrive, noen sier diskutere.
3c: (indistinct)
R: Eller kanske begge deler?
3c: Ja.
R: Nå skal jeg spørre litt mer om det vi gjorde på fredag. Hva synes dere om å bruke nyheter for å lære om raseproblemer i USA? Hvordan var det?
3a: Det var greit.
R: Det var greit, ja.
3b: Nyhetene har jo de nyeste nyhetene om det.
R: Ja, altså aktuelle saker i det samfunnet. Hva synes dere?
3d: Du får liksom høre to sider av den samme saken også når du så på to forskjellige nyheter, så det var egentlig ganske greit.
R: Hva synes dere?
3c: Jeg vet ikke hva jeg skal si.
3b: Ja det var bra å få med sånne nye ting i stedet for bare sånn eldre.
R: Ja, å få med det som skjer i dag og ikke bare historien.
3b: Ja, veldig bra.
R: Fikk nyhetene dere til å tenke annerledes om hvordan ting blir fremstilt i media?
3c: Ja.
R: Ja du gjorde det, mer bevisst kanskje på at det kan fremstilles forskjellig?
3c, 3d: Ja (overlapping)
R: Syns dere den metoden var nyttig for å lære om raseproblemer i USA? Det var jo han som hadde blitt skutt av han politimannen, så var det jo to litt forskjellige måter å fremstille dette på. Synes dere det var en nyttig måte å lære om det, eller?
3a: Ja
R: Var det noe vanskelig med det? Var det vanskelig språk, for eksempel? Forstod dere alt?
3d: Nei
3c: Det var vanskelig å følge med for de snakket så fort.
3d: Hvertfall den første, de som var på han hvite sitt lag på en måte, de to som satt i nyhetene, de snakket fort.
R: De snakket veldig fort ja? Og kanskje litt vanskelige ord? For det er jo ikke laget for ungdommer i Norge, de er jo laget for at voksne i USA skal forstå de, så det er jo ikke bare lett språk.
R: Hvordan fikk dokumentaren, den vi så etterpå, White People, hvordan fikk den dere til å tenke om raseproblemer i USA?
3a: Dokumentaren?
3c: Annerledes.
R: Kom dere på noe nytt dere ikke hadde tenk på?
3c: Ja.
3d: Det var liksom ikke bare de hvite og de svarte, det var alle de asiatiske og indianerne og sånn, var mer forskjellige og de snakket med de også om hva de syns og sånn. Ikke bare en person, men mange forskjellige.
R: Ja, du fikk mange forskjellige innspill?
3d: Ja.
R (to 3a, 3b, 3c): Hva synes dere?
3a: Egentlig akkurat det samme.
3d: Egentlig akkurat det samme.
R: Ok. Tenkte dere på at det var lettere å relatere det til dere selv når det var unge folk de snakket med mye?
3c: Ja, kanskje. Jeg tenkte ikke over det.
3d: Nei ikke jeg heller.
R: Men, for den var laget av MTV. Dere vet hva MTV er?
3c, 3d: Ja.
R: Det er jo rettet mot unge folk, kanskje på deres alder, kanskje den var jo tilrettelagt for unge folk da. Og de snakket jo for det meste med unge folk som gikk på High School, da.
R: For eksempel dette med ”reverse racism”, hun som følte hun ble diskriminert fordi hun var hvit, var dette noe dere har tenkt over før eller snakket om i engelsken?

3c: Nei, vi har egentlig bare snakket om historien, vi har aldri liksom diskutert det liksom slik det er i dag og liksom begge sider, vi har liksom alltid sett det fra vår side, på en måte.

R: Bra, og på hvilken måte synes dere at denne dokumentaren var en bra eller dårlig måte å lære om dette temaet på?

3a: Bra måte.

R: Dere syns det var bra ja, hvorfor?

3d: Som jeg sa før, mange forskjellige raser og ikke bare den ene så var det liksom de hvite mot alle de andre på en måte.

R: Følte dere det var slik mange hadde kommentert på YouTube at dette var rasistisk mot hvite? Fikk dere det inntrykket?

3a, 3b, 3c: Nei (overlapping)

3d: Det var egentlig ganske greit å forstå, det var liksom ungdommer på en måte, så de snakket ikke så avansert som de voksne.

R: Er det noe som kunne være negativt med å bruke den filmen? Var det vanskelig språk eller var det greit å forstå?

3d: Det var egentlig ganske greit å forstå, det var liksom ungdommer på en måte, så de snakket ikke så avansert som de voksne.

R: Ja det var ikke akkurat sånn akademisk språk. Det var vanlig, hverdagslig språk.

R (to 3a, 3b): Kan dere tenke dere noe som var negativt med å bruke den?

3b: ikke så veldig mye

R: Nei dere kommer ikke på noe. Har dere noe mer dere vil tilføye?

(pause)

3b, 3c, 3d: Nei (overlapping)

3a: Egentlig ikke.

R: Nei, ok. Da er vi ferdige, takk skal dere ha.