

Even Christoffersen

## Flipping the Flip

A Flipped Classroom Approach to Language Awareness and Engagement With Language

Master's thesis in Science in Didactics – English and Foreign Language Education

Supervisor: Fredrik M. Røkenes

May 2019



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Faculty of Social and Educational Sciences  
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Norwegian University of  
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## Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore a flipped classroom approach to teaching grammar, and if this approach could help develop language awareness and foster engagement with language. In this study one Norwegian EFL lower secondary class of 29 pupils were subject to a flipped approach to grammar teaching. This research project utilises a design-based research approach, featuring two iterations, each spanning a four-week period. The results showed that the pupils exhibited signs of developing language awareness and using language awareness in their language learning. The pupils also showed signs of being engaged with language. This approach to grammar teaching enables a learner-focused approach, which can be beneficial to language acquisition in general. Additional research on the area should explore how this approach compares to other methods for teaching grammar, as well as whether this approach can be used for other topics within EFL teaching.

*Keywords:* EFL, flipped classroom, language awareness, engagement with language, grammar teaching,

## Sammendrag

Formålet med denne studien var å utforske et omvendt undervisningsopplegg og om dette undervisningsopplegget kunne utvikle språkbevissthet og være en kilde til språkengasjement. I denne studien deltok en ungdomsskoleklasse av 29 elever i et omvendt undervisningsopplegg om grammatikkundervisning i engelsk. Forskningsmetoden anvendt i dette prosjektet er designbasert forskning, og prosjektet gikk gjennom to sykluser på fire uker. Resultatene viser at elevene viser indikasjoner på at de har både utviklet språkbevissthet, men også anvendt språkbevissthet i læringen. Elevene viser også tegn på å ha vært engasjerte med språk. Denne undervisningsmetoden for grammatikkundervisning åpner for et elevsentrert klasserom, som kan være fordelaktig for språklæring generelt. Videre forskning på området bør fokusere på hvilke resultater denne tilnærmingen gir sammenlignet med andre tilnærminger for grammatikkundervisning, samt om undervisningsopplegget kan benyttes også for andre temaer innenfor engelskfaget.

*Nøkkelord:* EFL, omvendt undervisning, språkbevissthet, språkengasjement, grammatikkundervisning

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*Oslo, May 2019*

Even Christoffersen

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# 1 Introduction

Learning grammar is a vital part of learning a new language and grammatical knowledge gives us the opportunity to understand and to be understood in a foreign language. English is a global language and English as a lingua franca shows no signs of losing relevance. For those reasons, formal English education is an important part of schooling in Norway and mastering grammar is an important part of the English-language education.

## 1.1 Rationale

My own interest in this topic started the day I began my university education. I had always performed well in English at school and I have never had any problems communicating with other speakers of the language. My English learning began early, before I started learning English in school. I regularly read football-magazines, using a dictionary to look up every word. As a result, I already knew many English words when I started learning the language in school and I rode that wave through 13 years of compulsory education. In this regard, my English learning was more similar to that of a person learning English as a first language rather than a second language. My way of learning English mirrored the approaches that became popular in the Norwegian school system in the 1980's with Krashen's monitor hypothesis (Krashen, 1982). However, it failed to give me the necessary explicit grammar knowledge that I realised I needed whilst sitting in a lecture at NTNU trying to understand what the lecturer was talking about. Trying to understand phrase-structure rules became a huge challenge when my success in English so far had been based on "just knowing what is right".

I then started thinking about my education so far and how little grammar I had learned, and I brought these thoughts with me into my profession as a teacher. I started asking myself how I could help my pupils learn grammar so that they would be better prepared for the challenges of learning a foreign language in the future. When I started working at a school in Oslo with a high degree of pupils for whom Norwegian is a second language and English is a third language, I became even more aware of the importance of learning explicit grammatical rules in order to avoid mistakes such as subject-verb agreement and word order. Furthermore, I realised that grammar teaching is often every pupil's least favourite topic and that designing teaching plans that can motivate pupils to learn grammar was a particular challenge. In an attempt to find new ways to teach grammar, I decided to combine my interest in ICT in teaching and grammar teaching. I was already familiar with a flipped approach to learning

through such sites as KhanAcademy.org, but I was curious to explore whether or not that could be an approach to learning grammar as well.

Although Krashen's approach to language teaching is still relevant, the hypothesis that sufficient grammar competence can be achieved through a purely communicative approach has been found to be lacking. In addition, in order for students of English as a foreign language to achieve sufficient grammatical competence, explicit grammatical instruction is needed (Ellis, 2008). With these experiences and this background, I started exploring the possibilities of teaching grammar by combining an authentic communicative situation while still focusing explicitly on the grammatical structures. The result is an approach that I believe could be a useful tool for grammar learning in the EFL classroom.

## 1.2 Purpose

In this study, I wish to explore an approach to teaching grammar in English using student made videos. I will present a design-based research study in which I use this approach to grammar teaching on a lower secondary school in Norway. The purpose of the study is to explore relevant language learning theories, recent research within this field, and how they give support to this project. To do this, I am basing my theoretical understanding on a socio-cultural approach to learning, which stems from the theories of Vygotsky (1978).

Furthermore, I will be exploring the approach to grammar education that Hinkel and Fotos call Focus on Form (2008), an approach which attempts to combine formal instruction with a communicative approach to learning. I will also be exploring how this approach to teaching grammar can influence language awareness in pupils and how these pupils may therefore become engaged with language as explained by Svalberg (2009; 2018).

To explore these topics and how they relate to the project I have gathered data from the project using three different data gathering methods. I will observe the pupils as they work on the project in order to see how they tackle the task they are given. I will also interview the pupils so as to better understand the reasons behind the choices they make and their experience of working with this project. Finally, I will analyse the videos made by the pupils. This analysis will give an insight into the pupils thought-process and their reflections about the language they are learning.

## 1.3 Research question

As outlined above, the purpose of this study is to explore an approach to teaching grammar that uses student made videos. I have therefore formulated two thesis questions which will

help explore the topic. The first question relates to how this approach helps generate language awareness, the second on how it fosters engagement with the language. The research questions I will address in this paper are:

1. *How can a flipped classroom methodology be used in the EFL classroom to help foster language awareness in the EFL classroom?*
2. *How can a flipped classroom approach to grammar teaching help learners become engaged with language?*

The first question uses the term flipped classroom methodology. Although often understood to mean a situation where the pupils watch instructional videos as part of their homework and then do task work in class, in this paper I will be using flipped learning to mean a broader approach to teaching which features a learner centred classroom alongside the use of ICT and video-technology. Furthermore, I will be using the term pupils to refer to the participants of this study rather than the term learners or students which is used in much of the literature. I make no distinction between these terms in this paper and try to use the same term as the original articles when referring to research. I will comment on situations where the age difference between my pupils and the pupils in other research is significant.

## 2 Theoretical perspectives

The following chapter provides an examination of the relevant theoretical perspectives used in this paper. The chapter presents relevant theories on language learning, with a focus on grammar learning, as well as a presentation of language awareness theories and accompanying engagement with learning perspectives. Finally, it will contain a brief presentation of the flipped learning paradigm.

### 2.1 Language learning

The theoretical framework of this thesis is based on Vygotsky's sociocultural perspectives on second language acquisition. Perhaps the most profound contribution from sociocultural theories on educational research is the theory of the zone of proximal development (Daniels, 2001). The zone of proximal development posits that learning is most effective when the learner is working at the highest possible level because of support of an interlocutor (Vygotsky, 1978). This support from an interlocutor is called scaffolding, a process where a tutor supports a learner in the learning process through a variety of "scaffolding functions" (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Traditionally, Vygotsky promoted the idea of learning in a socio-cultural perspective to consist of a learner and an expert. Recent studies, however, have broadened the theory to also include learner-learner interaction. Swain and Lapkin (2002) use the term collaborative dialogue to explain the processes that happen when two learners are working together. Their research shows that when learners work together and engage in tasks which require production, they will construct linguistic knowledge (Swain, 2000).

#### 2.1.1 Language learning and the basic skills

The framework for basic skills in the national subject curriculum (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2012) points towards different skills that are considered to be part of both the development of competence as well as part of the competence themselves. The basic skill numeracy does not feature in this paper, as it was not deemed relevant in terms of the purpose of the paper. Following here is an overview of the theories supporting the use of the basic skills in the classroom. Considering the scope of this paper, it was not necessary to delve deeper into these topics. The aim is rather to provide support as to why these basic skills are interesting from an EFL-perspective.

Under the basic skills for the English subject curriculum (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, u.d.), communication is seen as the goal of oral English. Oral communication includes both the ability to receive and to interpret messages, as well as to

convey them. In other words, the oral skills include both speaking and listening skills. Spontaneous oral communication can be difficult for learners as it requires high-level cognitive work where input must be processed quickly in order to appear fluent in communication (Tishakov, 2018). In accordance with sociocultural learning theories, dialogue between learners is an important part of cognitive learning and development. As such, a collaborative dialogue between learners allows language learners to “co-construct linguistic knowledge while engaging in production tasks that simultaneously draw their attention to form and meaning” (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 119). Furthermore, if learners engage in meaningful communication with a peer where the target of the communication is knowledge about language forms, pupils can strengthen their interlanguage and metacognitive abilities (Tishakov, 2018).

Reading is considered by many to be more important than the other basic skills because of the role it plays in developing important life skills. Reading is, among other things, generally educative and gives the reader access to new ways of thinking (Kverndokken, 2012). Although reading is often associated with being a recreational activity, it is also central to learning. Pupils use reading as a tool for learning, for getting through school, and for practicing critical thinking (Kverndokken, 2012). Although reading in school happens across multiple platforms, reading multimodal texts in various textbooks is still the primary source of information for pupils. The ability to read multimodal texts is an important skill that needs to be practiced (Mortensen-Buan, 2006).

Writing for learning can be considered one of the most important skills in learning a foreign language, yet writing in a foreign language is a difficult skill to master, as it not only demands a knowledge of words and grammar, but also of culture and context (Sandvik, 2012). One challenge faced by teachers when designing writing activities in the EFL classroom is to design activities where the learners feel like their writing serves a purpose. Writing for a teacher who only reads your text for the purpose of critiquing it does not create a situation in which the pupils feel motivated or inspired to write. As such, the teacher should aim to create a situation where the texts produced are read by authentic readers (Sandvik, 2012). Furthermore, pupils produce better texts when they write intertextually in genres they are familiar with. When the text is produced digitally, it can also help the pupils work more on the communicative and narrative aspects of the text (Brox Larsen, 2012).

The use of computers in Norwegian schools has increased steadily over time and it is clear that ICT is here to stay (Egeberg, Hultin, & Berge, 2016). Still, one in four pupils in

Norwegian schools lack the necessary knowledge and skills to master the basic ICT proficiency needed in a digital society (Ottestad, Throndsen, Hatlevik, & Rohatgi, 2013; Hatlevik, Guðmundsdóttir, & Loi, 2015). It is important that both schools and teachers prioritise digital competence in education to help pupils achieve sufficient digital competence (Hatlevik, Guðmundsdóttir, & Loi, 2015). In the English classroom, the mastery of digital skills is important for acquiring knowledge through the use of various tools. One benefit of mastering digital skills is access to authentic material through various internet sources.

### 2.1.2 Explicit versus implicit language learning

The acquisition of a first language happens primarily through plentiful exposure to the language, which “will *implicitly* lead to sufficient grammatical skills” (Dypedahl, 2018, p. 199). This approach was popular for second language learning in the 1980s, primarily on the back of Krashen’s input hypothesis, which states that explicit learning does not lead to an internalisation of knowledge. Consequently, the only way to achieve mastery of language was through plentiful meaningful input of the target language. However, as second language learners lack the same plentiful access to the target language that first language learners do, there are several good reasons for why explicit grammar teaching is necessary. Explicit grammar teaching is an approach to foreign language teaching where the learner is made aware of grammatical structures in addition to providing as much second language input as possible (Dypedahl, 2018).

Focus on Form is one such approach to language learning that tries to bridge the gap between an implicit communicative approach and an explicit grammatical approach, often called Focus on FormS (Hinkel & Fotos, 2008). Focus on Form adheres to the theories that an explicit approach to grammar does not create a communicative competence, whilst similarly believing that a purely communicative approach will also be lacking (Hinkel & Fotos, 2008). Norris and Ortega (2000) however, found no difference in the effectiveness of Focus on Form versus Focus on FormS, and that if there is a difference, it leans towards a greater efficiency for the explicit Focus on FormS approach (Norris & Ortega, 2001). This is opposed by Spada and Lightbown (2008), who found that the most effective instruction is one where the learner focuses on both form and meaning.

### 2.1.3 Peer teaching

Engin (2014) uses the term *peer teaching* to refer to a method where students are given “[...] the responsibility for scaffolding their classmates’ learning” (Engin, 2014, p. 13).

Traditionally scaffolding has been thought of as a learning process where a teacher or a more



competent peer provides assistance to the learner. However, through reciprocal teaching, all learners start as novices and become experts through appropriate guidance, modelling, and studying (Engin, 2014). Within the frame of this study, peer teaching is relevant as it attempts to describe the processes that happen when learners are working together.

There are several benefits to peer teaching, including “[...] deeper understanding of course content, increased critical thinking, willingness to explore, and self-reflection” (Engin, 2014, s. 14). For a student to be able to teach others it is necessary for that student to become an expert in the field they are teaching. Some studies have also shown that students remember more of what they are studying when they learn for the purpose of teaching others, compared to when they learn for their own sake (Engin, 2014).

#### 2.1.4 Metacognition

John Flavell first defined metacognition in 1976 as “[...] one’s knowledge concerning one’s own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them” (Flavell, 1979, p. 907 in Haukås, 2014). With an increased interest in metacognition came an increased number of definitions of the term, such as “thinking about one’s own thoughts” and “reflections on cognition”. Metacognition was linked to learning when Tobias and Everson in 2000 defined it as the ability to reflect on, plan, and assess one’s own learning (Haukås, 2014). The process of making videos on specific language forms facilitates this reflection, planning, and assessment of own learning. In this learning scenario, the learner must first reflect on their own competence compared to that of an expert, then strategise on how best to acquire the knowledge needed, before finally assessing their own level. If the assessment is that the student has not acquired the necessary knowledge, the process starts again with a reflection on the learner’s own competence.

In education, a metacognitively aware student is able to reflect on his or her own strengths and weaknesses, can assess to what degree a given competence aim has been achieved, and is aware of which strategies are best suited to reach their goals (Haukås, 2014). A student’s metacognition can be improved through teaching. A higher level of metacognition in students improves the ability to learn and to change, whilst also increasing the chance of students picking the correct strategies for solving problems and tasks. Additionally, several studies show that working on metacognition in the classroom is especially impactful for the lowest performing students (Haukås, 2014). Considering the approach that metacognition of language can be learned, designing educational activities that facilitate these skills will benefit students’ learning outside of the immediate language learning of the activity.

Metacognitive theories on language learning stress the importance of a combination of implicit and explicit learning. This is especially evident in second language classrooms where access to authentic input can be limited (Norris & Ortega, 2001). Furthermore, the use of explicit instruction, which lets learners explore the differences between the target language and their own first language, can help learners improve awareness of their own language competence. In cognitive linguistics, all knowledge is developed based on already existing knowledge and experiences. As such, learners benefit from connecting their knowledge of a primary language to that of a target language. It does not then make sense to lock the first language of a student out of the second language classroom (Haukås, 2014). When tasked with creating videos on specific grammatical structures, it is natural for students to draw on knowledge about similar grammatical structures in their target language, thus facilitating the metacognitive reflection on second language learning.

For a learner to gain awareness of their own language learning, it is necessary to employ strategies beyond the mechanical approach to grammar learning. Discovery based learning, in its various form can be used to achieve this awareness (Dypedahl, 2018). According to Dypedahl (2018) students can achieve higher language awareness by being involved in how language is used, which again can be achieved by using inductive teaching methods. One way of employing an inductive or discovery-based grammar instruction is the *task-based approach*. Ideally, within a task-based approach the situations the learner finds themselves in are as authentic as possible, for example, by writing for an audience outside of the classroom or for a purpose other than to be assessed by a teacher. In a task-based approach, the link between meaning and form is central. One example of an authentic situation can be achieved if other pupils give feedback on and comment on what has been written or produced (Lund & Villaneuva, 2018).

## 2.2 Language Awareness

Language awareness was defined in 1985 as “[...] a person’s sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life” by the National Council for Language in Education Working Party (Svalberg, 2007, p. 288). More recently, language awareness is defined by the Association of Language Awareness as “explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use” (Svalberg, 2007, p. 288). In some research, awareness and consciousness are two separate terms, as awareness is considered to be knowledge about what you already know, while raising consciousness involves learning new material (James, 1992, in Svalberg,

2005). When talking about learners, it can be difficult to maintain this distinction as the exact knowledge possessed by a learner is difficult to measure. In line with Svalberg (2005), a differentiation between awareness and consciousness in relation to learners' pre-existing knowledge will not be made in this paper.

Language awareness is also described as a sensibility to language and involves an “awareness of the patterns of language and how they are used in different communicative contexts” (Hauge & Angelsen, 2018, s. 266). When talking about patterns in language it is possible to separate between patterns of phonetics or phonology, patterns of morphology and semantics, patterns of syntax, or patterns of pragmatics and discourse. Metalinguistic knowledge is the ability to discuss these patterns and is a prerequisite to being able to systematically analyse our own and other's language patterns. Although any approach to teaching language that focuses on raising awareness of language can be considered to follow a language awareness approach, a language awareness approach is often distinguished using five main features. (1) A learner centred approach with continuous investigation of language forms, (2) a “talk-about” element, which includes talking analytically about language, (3) the involvement of the learner is key and often features authentic interaction or material, (4) it seeks to improve not just knowledge about language but also learning skills, and finally (5) learners must be engaged both cognitively and affectively (Svalberg, 2007)

The main idea within language awareness theories is that the chief aim is for students to learn languages through “building language awareness [...] through a combination of individual exploration and formal instruction” (Hauge & Angelsen, 2018, p. 267). Furthermore, language development, according to language awareness theories, happens across all the languages the learner knows. Developing this language awareness in multiple languages can also help the learner acquire the target language, as it makes it easier to see differences and similarities (Hauge & Angelsen, 2018). “An integral part of this work is to draw the learners' attention to different aspects of language and motivate the learners to use their own linguistic background in the exploration of language” (Hauge & Angelsen, 2018, p. 277). Within the framework of my project, the pupils are encouraged to pay attention to - and explore - the language they are working on, at the same time drawing attention to their existing knowledge both in the target language and their L1.

### 2.2.1 Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative language teaching of grammar is a fluency-first approach to teaching grammar. Work in small groups which requires learners to interact with one another and

where the task is primary, rather than the grammar activity (Richards, 2008). The task-focused activities of a communicative language teaching approach will among other benefits (1) mirror a natural language use, (2) require improvisation, paraphrasing, repair, and reorganisation, (3) allow students to select which language to use in certain communicative situations, and (4) provide opportunities for real communication (Richards, 2008).

Video technology provides an excellent opportunity to use authentic material in the classroom. The use of authentic material creates an environment in which the tenets of communicative language teaching can easily be achieved (Mohammadian, Saed, & Shahi, 2018). The use of video in the classroom can be an effective tool for many reasons. Blomberg, Renkl, Gamoran Sherin, Borko and Seidel (2013) suggest that students training to become teachers can become better teachers from watching videos on classroom situations. Likewise, we can theorise that pupils can become both better pupils and better teachers of other pupils by making and watching videos in the classroom. Watching videos of teaching practices was also found to greatly improve practices in the classroom (Borko, Jacobs, Eiteljorg, & Pittman, 2008). It is possible to assume that pupils will have a similar response by watching videos on subject content made by other pupils, while at the same time being asked to assess their own videos. There are differences in reviewing your own videos as opposed to reviewing videos created by others. Reviewing your own video is beneficial in that it gives a higher degree of motivation and immersion in the material. Reviewing videos made by others allows for a more critical approach, which can foster a higher degree of reflection (Seidel, Stürmer, Blomberg, Kobarg, & Schwindt, 2011). Giving the pupils the opportunity to review both their own as well as other's videos can result in both a higher degree of motivation and immersion in their topic as well as a more critical approach to the review.

### 2.3 Engagement with language

The term engagement has been central to much language awareness research without being properly defined. In some studies, the meaning of the term is assumed and interpreted in its everyday sense, while others define it to varying degrees. Engagement has been used in different studies to mean variations of “learners noticing language”, ranging from every instance of noticing, to attempts at measuring the levels of noticing, to finally being used as a scale on which the quality of noticing can be measured (Svalberg, 2009). To remedy this uncertainty Svalberg suggests a definition that encompasses all aspects of engagement with language:

*In the context of language learning and use, 'engagement with language' (Engagement) is a cognitive, and/or affective, and/or social state and a process in which the learner is the agent and the language is the object and may be the vehicle (means of communication).*

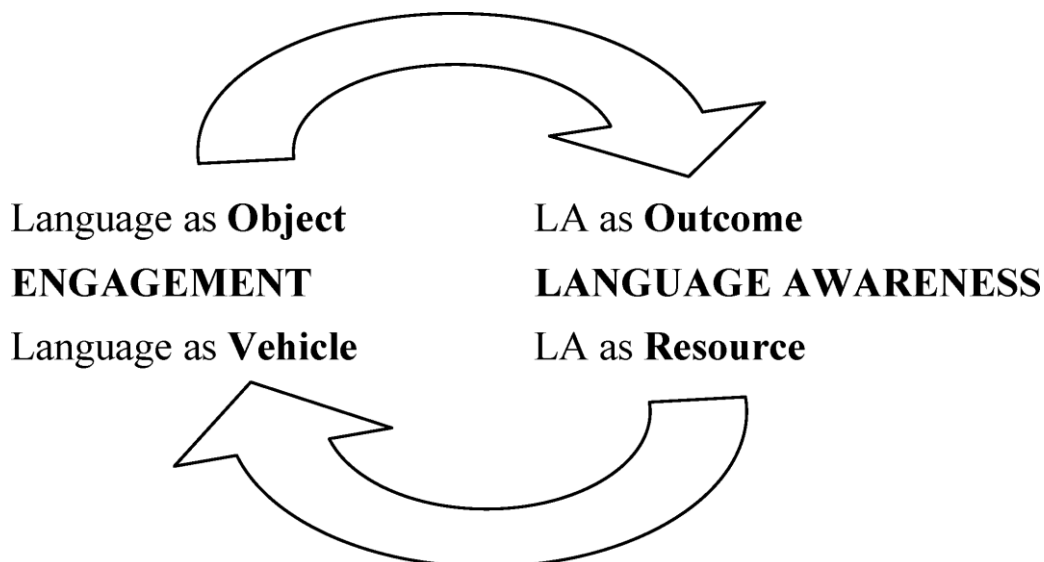
(Svalberg, 2009, p. 244)

A relevant distinction in this definition is between *language as object* and *language as vehicle* of communication. Svalberg (2009) explains language as object as a situation where learners are solving language tasks but may be using either their L1 or the target language in communication. Language as a vehicle in the classroom can for example be a situation where learners are solving a task in the target language, but with care only for the communication and not for the precision or correctness of the language (Svalberg, 2009). One example of using language as object is what Swain refers to as 'linguaging' which is defined as "the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language" (Swain, 2006, p.89 in Swain, Lapkin, Knouzi, Suzuki, & Lindsay, 2009). According to Swain, 'linguaging' is the tool with which we understand new ideas through language use (Swain, 2013).

Engagement with language consists of three states, cognitive, affective, and social. Each can be defined by looking at the learner and examining the state the learner is in as well as the process the learner is going through. A cognitively engaged learner is in a state of heightened alertness and focused attention, while being in a process of focused reflection and problem solving. The affectively engaged learner exhibits a positive orientation towards the language or the interlocutor, at the same time showing a willingness to interact with either one. The socially engaged learner is in a state of readiness to interact and in a process of maintaining the interaction both on a qualitative and quantitative level (Svalberg, 2009).

Another aspect of engagement with language is the use of collaborative dialogue. In some research, collaborative dialogue is referred to as language related episodes. Language related episodes are defined as when learners "talk about the language they are producing, question their language use or correct themselves or others" (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, p. 326 in Svalberg, 2018). In doing this they are engaging in a language related episode. A language related episode can be considered both as a means of communication and as a cognitive tool for learning (Svalberg, 2018)

Engagement with language, according to Svalberg, is a cyclical process (Figure 1). Learners will draw on existing language awareness to create new language awareness through engagement. This process will then repeat itself so that the learner is constantly enhancing his or her own language awareness (Svalberg, 2009)



*Figure 1 The engagement with language - LA cycle (Svalberg, 2009, p. 248)*

As seen in Figure 1, the learners will use their language awareness to communicate, using language as a vehicle. If the learners are engaging with language and talking about language, they engage with language as the object. The outcome of this engagement is improved language awareness. This language awareness is then drawn upon when the learners again use language as a vehicle to engage with language. For this project the pupils will have ample opportunities to complete the LA-cycle, as they continuously use language as a vehicle and as an object, moving towards greater understanding and awareness.

## 2.4 Flipped learning

Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams started what has now become the flipped classroom model in 2006 as a way of reaching students who missed classes for various reasons. It quickly became apparent that the flipped model had several other beneficial sides. Not too long after, they had the idea that they could record their lectures and have students watch the lectures as homework. The entire class could be devoted to working on tasks and clearing up misconceptions. With this idea, the flipped classroom as an instructional model was born (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). The flipped classroom method is presently an active learning approach, which fits well with the changing nature of teaching and education and has been welcomed by both educators and researchers (Turan & Akdag-Cimen, 2019). The flipped

approach can take many different forms and has been compared to various forms of blended learning<sup>1</sup> and online learning<sup>2</sup>. Furthermore, there is no guarantee that a flipped approach will change the way pupils work during class sessions. However, a change from a teacher-driven approach to a student-centred approach is central to the approach and flipping the classroom is an excellent way of achieving this change (Hamdan, McKnight, McKnight & Arfstrom, 2013)

A flipped classroom approach has several benefits for learning. It is positive for a variety of pupils and can help pupils of all abilities excel. It also has the benefit of increasing interaction in the classroom, both teacher-pupil interaction and pupil-pupil interaction (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). These positive effects are supported by other researchers (Feng Teng, 2018), who also emphasise that the approach does not come without negatives, namely that it is time-consuming for teachers to organise a flipped classroom. Additionally, as with all technology, there are requirements for the teacher to be technologically proficient. Other research on the field shows a positive result for a flipped approach in terms of motivation and engagement as well as learning and performance (Hew & Lo, 2018). A flipped classroom approach can also allow for a deeper investigation of concepts than can be achieved through a traditional classroom approach (Chen, Scott, Wu, & Marek, 2017). A more thorough exploration of the relevant research on the flipped classroom approach is presented in the following literature review chapter.

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<sup>1</sup> Blended learning is commonly referred to as any combination of face-to-face teaching combined with computer technology, either on-line or offline (Hockly, 2018).

<sup>2</sup> Online learning is defined as pupils using online computers to participate in learning activities (Clayton, 2006).

### 3 Literature review

The following chapter will present relevant empirical research within the theories presented in the previous chapter and will discuss how they are important and related to my study and research questions. These are 1) *How can a flipped classroom methodology be used in the EFL classroom to help foster language awareness in the EFL classroom?* and 2) *How can a flipped classroom approach to grammar teaching/instruction help learners become engaged with language?*

#### 3.1 Studies on Language Learning

According to a meta-study by Spada and Tomita (2010), explicit language instruction indicated a larger effect size than implicit instruction. These findings are consistent with the results of Norris and Ortega (2001) who showed that “focused L2 instruction makes a consistent observable difference” (Norris & Ortega, 2001, p. 193). Furthermore, the findings seem to show that explicit instruction can result in an “unconscious and unanalysed knowledge available in spontaneous communication” (Spada & Tomita, 2010, p. 287), contradicting the noninterface position made popular by Krashen, which states that implicit and explicit knowledge are separate and that explicit knowledge cannot be converted to implicit knowledge (Krashen, 1982). The study also finds that an explicit approach to grammar is more effective for both simple and complex grammatical features. Xu and Lyster (2014) performed a quantitative study where they found that form focused instruction had a positive influence on morphosyntactic development in L2 and argued that morphosyntax is one of the most difficult skills to master. Likewise, Saadi and Saedi (2018) found that both input- and output-based focus on form instruction lead to an improved understanding of grammatical structures, with an input-based approach to be the most favourable.

Within the field of implicit grammar instruction, there are debates as to the best method for teaching implicit grammar. Ellis (2006) highlights two such approaches, input-based and production-based. Input based approaches allow learners to consume L2 material with a high concentration of the target structure whilst also targeting the attention of the learner towards the target structure. On the other hand, a production- or output-based approach is founded on socio-cultural theories of L2 learning and a focus on scaffolding learners through social interaction (Ellis, 2006). The debate over which approach is more effective is still ongoing. However, in the scope of this study it is ultimately not as relevant as the learners will ideally be exposed to both forms of instruction.



Barrot (2014) concluded, in a study on isolated versus integrated form focused instruction, that pupils who receive a mix of both isolated and integrated instruction can significantly improve their productive skills compared to pupils who do not receive the same instruction. Focus on Form instruction is an approach to grammar teaching which tries to combine an implicit communicative approach to grammar learning with explicit grammar instruction. Integrated FonF are instances of instruction where the focus on form is embedded within a communicative situation, whereas isolated FonF occurs when the form focus is separated from the communicative activity. This is supported by Spada, Jessop, Tomita, Suzuki and Valeo (2014) who also found indications that isolated FonF is more beneficial for pupils' explicit knowledge, whereas integrated FonF is more beneficial for implicit knowledge. In this project the form-focused instruction consists of a mix of both integrated and isolated Focus on Form.

O'Cain and Liebscher (2009) wrote about the use of L1 in the language classroom. They argue that L1 use in foreign language classrooms can be beneficial as a cognitive tool. They find that allowing codeswitching for both the teacher and the learners can support learning through scaffolding or intersubjectivity. When the teacher allows L1 use on the L2 classroom, learners tend to use the languages in ways that promote both L2 learning and bilingual learning behaviour.

A study by Green, Inan and Maushak (2014) found that students benefit from the collaboration connected to student video creation projects. Students benefited from a shared responsibility in the creation of videos. Furthermore, students worked together in solving problems, which gave plenty of opportunities for authentic communication. Finally, they observed several instances of students correcting each other and providing feedback on incorrect utterances (Green, Inan, & Maushak, 2014).

For this project students were tasked with becoming experts on the grammatical topics they were given, in order to make videos for the purpose of instructing their peers. The main focus of this study was the learning that happens in the process of becoming an expert. Engin (2014) found in her study that learners were more sceptical of learning from material created by peers and raised questions regarding the "trustworthiness" of the material. Students were also reported to be sceptical of the accuracy of the information given in other student made videos and preferred watching content produced by the teacher.

Goh and Hu (2014) explored the relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening. The study shows that when it comes to listening, learners with higher confidence perform

better. The study also shows that learners used the directed attention and problem-solving strategies and that these were important. Directed attention relates to learners being aware of the fact that they must focus. Problem-solving strategies relate to what the learners do and try to infer from the material if there is something they do not understand. In connection to language awareness, Rogers (2017) explored explicit and implicit second language learning and finds that learners can acquire some knowledge of L2 inflectional morphology incidentally, and that this knowledge is accompanied by some level of awareness.

So far, the research presented here argues for an explicit approach to grammar teaching. However, at the same time it is important to acknowledge the usefulness of the implicit knowledge gained by the pupils. The aim of this project was to give pupils explicit grammar instruction while also facilitating implicit grammar learning, using both input- and output-based activities. Furthermore, the explicit form focused instruction (FonF) used in this project is both integrated in the communicative tasks the pupils undertake and isolated in that the focus is on the form itself. Allowing the use of the L1 when pupils worked on the project supports this isolated FonF while at the same time allowing for codeswitching and interlanguage which supports language learning. The project also allows for collaborative learning, as pupils become experts on one topic, this has benefits as it provides opportunities for authentic communication. Although there are doubts as to the accuracy of student made videos, the learning process that the pupils undergo when making their own videos is primary.

### 3.2 Studies on Language Awareness

Much of the research on language awareness is published in the peer-review academic journal *Language Awareness*. Svalberg (2016), in an overview of recent language awareness research, looked at the different topics that are covered within language awareness research. She found that research on the basic skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) is most prevalent, followed closely by studies on learning strategies, collaborative learning, and grammar learning. All of these research fields are of great relevance to this study. Svalberg (2016) also found that the most used approach to research was a mixed-method approach, but with qualitative methods being more prevalent. Most of the research conducted was done on university students and Svalberg (2016) calls for more research on younger learners to enrich the field of language awareness research.

Several papers examine the use of other languages than the target language when working in the EFL classroom. The research supports the idea that it makes little sense to lock other languages out of the classroom, but rather that the use of other languages can lead to an

improved language awareness. Dagenais, Walsh, Armand and Maraillet (2008) explored, in their qualitative study, how LA activities encourage students to draw on collective language resources to approach languages. Valuing and sharing knowledge of diverse languages in the classroom fostered the discursive co-construction of knowledge about the evolution of language. The positives of using L1 in L2 learning is supported by Ahn (2016) who found that the use of both languages in L2 language play enhances the quality of play, which again demonstrates a higher level of language awareness. This code-switching ability was found in pupils of different proficiencies and which language the pupils used was based on the target audience, among other criteria. Woll (2018) examined positive transfer from L2 to L3 within the field of metalinguistic awareness. The study found that awareness at a high level of understanding can occur even with the absence of metalinguistic terms. The findings presented here are in agreement with the findings on the use of L1 outlined earlier when presenting literature on language learning theories.

Sato and Ballinger (2012) examines peer interaction. Language awareness was developed not by giving learners tasks specifically designed to elicit language related episodes or by giving instruction to shift focus to form, but by combining training for language awareness with training for better collaboration. Changing learners' approaches to peer interaction activities, creating a learning culture among them, and ameliorating language awareness requires a certain amount of time and a meticulous lesson plan. When measuring language awareness in peer interaction it is important to be aware of social relationships between learners, as they are a significant variable that facilitate or prevent subsequent L2 development.

In a study of pupils' engagement in language play, Ahn (2016) found that when pupils have fun with language it can function as a metacognitive tool that can enhance engagement with language. When pupils play and have fun with language, they create a very beneficial situation for showing language awareness in different forms.

The research presented here is relevant to my study in several ways. The overview of research shows that my study explores relevant topics within the research of language awareness. The debate over the use of L1 or L2 in the language classroom during collaborative work is relevant as pupils' collaboration and language use is one focus point of my research, especially in relation to how this language use can lead to language awareness and metalinguistic awareness. In relation to the research by Sato and Ballinger (2012), it is interesting to see how my pupils approach the peer-interaction in this study.

Several studies have looked at whether or not authenticity of task design has any bearing on the engagement of pupils in the classroom (Svalberg, 2018). Ainley, Pratt and Hansen (2006) studied learner engagement in mathematics when attempting to contextualise the topics through real-world settings. They found that this did not improve engagement in the classroom. When real-life situations are brought into the classroom while still focusing on the subject topic it still lacks authenticity. One other study that focused on authenticity in an EFL setting reached similar conclusions (Guariento & Morley, 2001). They found, however, that any situation where pupils are doing more than simply practicing can be considered authentic. Additionally, the pupils are more likely to engage in a task if they are interested in the topic, in other words, if they conceive the task to be authentic. However, as Svalberg argues, despite authenticity being a problematic concept, “perceived authenticity is seen as contributing to learner engagement” (Svalberg, 2018, p. 30), and that this is important for the affective part of EWL. My study aimed to give pupils an experience of authenticity in allowing them to create a video for purposes outside of just practicing the language.

### 3.3 Studies on Engagement with Language

In recent research on second language acquisition, there has been a shift from focusing on the cognitive aspects of language learning to a greater emphasis on the combination of cognitive, affective, and social factors (Svalberg, 2018). One of the findings on social factors was that learners who have established a social relationship with their peers are more likely to engage with and deploy attentional resources to language (Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss, & Kim, 2016). However, as found in a study by Svalberg and Askham (2016) a pupil can be affectively engaged with language, but at the same time show minimal social engagement. It is therefore important to be open to the fact that different pupils can exhibit varying levels of social engagement while still being engaged with language, and that the relationship between pupils is important.

A flipped classroom approach has been found to have a positive effect on engagement in the classroom (Aycicek & Yelken, 2018). The study theorises that the positive effect can be because the pupils get more opportunities for interaction with peers and with the teacher in the classroom. Another listed benefit is that the pupils perceive the activity to be fun and productive. Liu, Wang and Tai (2016) explored engagement in language learning using Web 2.0<sup>3</sup> technologies. Their findings included a positive correlation between the use of

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<sup>3</sup> Web 2.0 is used to emphasise the “new” internet with a greater focus on user-created content and social networking (Hosch, 2019)

technology and engagement in the language classroom (Liu, Wang, & Tai, 2016). The study showed that pupils' engagement evolves through different phases and that you can expect an initial rush of engagement when pupils first start working with new technology, but that this engagement might waver when they encounter challenges relating to the technology.

Qiu and Lo (2016) explored how content familiarity influences engagement in the EFL classroom. Their findings show that open content tasks provided positive results in terms of learners' engagement. Furthermore, their research shows that familiarity with content can enhance cognitive engagement in learners. When repeating tasks however, their research shows that repetition of similar tasks gave a negative effect on engagement, although this did not prove to be true for all types of tasks. This could potentially be because pupils who were familiar with a task chose different strategies for task solving and because they used fewer markers of highly engaged pupils, such as self-repairs (Qiu & Lo, 2016).

McNeil (2017) examined languaging between intercultural peers and found that even though the teacher is important in the languaging process, "students are also viable collaborators". Ishikawa (2013) studied how languaging in writing, through the use of metanotes, can have a positive effect on L2 learning. Although limited in scope, her research shows that written notes can have a similar positive effect as can be found in oral languaging. Ishikawa defines metanotes as any kind of written languaging. This is interesting for my study as both the writing of storyboards and the videos themselves can be considered a form of written languaging. Ishikawa also argues the importance of demonstrations and practice for the pupils to produce metanotes of a sufficient quality. Furthermore, although language awareness can be considered a self-driven skill, teacher interaction is still important.

### 3.4 Studies on Flipped Learning

Recent studies have shown that the flipped classroom model can improve participation and engagement for students, and students give the model a high score when asked to rate the model (Helgevold & Moen, 2015). This is consistent with the findings that students show a greater motivation for learning inside the flipped classroom (Basal, 2015; Chilingaryan & Zvereva, 2017), and an improved attitude towards grammar teaching and homework (Moranski & Kim, 2016). Despite the improvements in student participation and engagement, this did not improve completion rates of assignments for student. They did however still feel a greater sense of purpose when involved in preparatory work for the next class rather than follow-up work (Bakla, 2018; Kim, Park, Jang, & Nam, 2017). A flipped classroom also

provides greater opportunity for critical thinking, independence, and more efficient interaction with peers. Through this, complex ideas and difficult tasks become more accessible and understandable for students. (Moraros, Islam, Yu, Banow, & Schindelka, 2015; Chilingaryan & Zvereva, 2017; Feng Teng, 2018).

A flipped classroom approach has also been found to promote autonomous learning and higher participation. Pupils also reported that a flipped approach had a positive effect on their willingness to self-assess and peer-assess (Feng Teng, 2018).

A study from Hassasskhah, Barekat and Asli (2015) found that there was a clear benefit to students fluency measures when students were tasked with creating photomontages for use in the classroom. They did not, however, find significant evidence that this approach has a benefit when it comes to accuracy or complexity of speech. Feng Teng (2018) found in his study on speaking skills that a class receiving a flipped approach scored higher on the oral exam than the class that received traditional classroom teaching.

When it comes to reading comprehension, a study from Mohammadian, Saed and Shahi (2018) found that video technology use in an EFL setting had a positive effect on reading comprehension among intermediate pupils. In their study, they employed the use of video technology in promoting reading comprehension and found that video technology had a significant impact on reading comprehension. They also highlighted the need for authentic material for use in EFL classrooms as a tool for improving reading comprehension.

Wang, An and Wright found that a flipped classroom approach to learning can enhance L2 learners oral proficiency while also improving what happens in the classroom by making class based interactions more efficient (Wang, An, & Wright, 2018). An improvement in speaking performance was also found by Feng Teng (2018), who discovered that a class who underwent a flipped project had “remarkably improved results in comparison with another class conducted without flipped teaching” (Feng Teng, 2018, p. 89).

There are, however, downsides to a flipped classroom methodology. In some cases students feel that the availability of the videos for everyone will lessen the value of the class, and fail to see the class as more rewarding than an internet search (Chilingaryan & Zvereva, 2017). In addition, there are several potential problems that could occur from the use of digital technology. From a video-creation point of view the instructor needs to have the necessary software and hardware, as well as knowledge of both, to create videos of sufficient quality. Limitations associated with poor video quality have been noted as a potential problem in

several studies (Moraros et al., 2015; Basal, 2015). As with the instructor, students are required to have the necessary equipment to view the videos at home, which could prove problematic in certain situations (Chilingaryan & Zvereva, 2017). Some students also reacted negatively to a flipped classroom model because they preferred to be able to ask questions of their instructor in real time. When they came to class they had often forgotten the questions they had when viewing. The proposed solution of writing down or recording questions did not fully satisfy students (Moraros et al., 2015). Furthermore, there can also be some worries that the method is not as suitable for younger learners, as they have yet to develop the self-management strategies that are required to have the full gain from a flipped classroom (Wang, An, & Wright, 2018).

According to Kim, Park, Jang and Nam (2017), a flipped classroom approach seemed to support pupils' knowledge construction during discussion, through promoting among other aspects a deeper cognitive processing and a higher-order thinking skill. They found a significant difference in the quality of the knowledge discussed in the flipped classroom and the traditional classroom (Kim et al., 2017).

In relation to my study, I have flipped the flipped classroom approach so that the pupils are the creators of the flipped videos. The learner-centred focus of a flipped approach remains, but pupils are not systematically watching videos on the topic before attending classes. However, as I argue that my study is relevant within a flipped classroom paradigm it will be interesting to see if any of the research presented above can be found or supported by my findings.

### 3.5 My study

In the following chapter, I will attempt to position my study within the field of relevant research on the field. I will present some tendencies within both the field of educational research and within language awareness research, whilst attempting to highlight where my study follows established approaches and where it deviates and explores more uncharted territories.

As highlighted in the previous chapter, a significant amount of research has been performed within the field of language awareness in second language learning. This research is varied and although it consists primarily of qualitative research designs, there are several mixed-method approaches to the field. As such, my study is in line with current trends on the field. In terms of what is being researched, Svalberg found that the most prevalent fields of study

related to the basic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Although listening is not a category that emerged in my data material, the other three skills, together with the category digital skills emerged in my data. Other well-studied fields included learning strategies, collaborative learning, and grammar learning. The latter two of these two categories were also central to my study. In terms of relevant research within the field of language awareness, my study explores similar topics as other relevant research.

In terms of the participants or study sample it is an unfortunate truth that participants in educational research are often university-level students enrolled in teacher education programs (Svalberg, 2016). That is not to say that research on school-aged pupils is uncommon, however in this regard I am in a privileged position of working in a lower-secondary school and as such have access to pupils who are of the target age of my research within second language acquisition.

Research on flipped learning has primarily been focused on the STEM-subjects. This is where the method has its roots and it continues to be where the method is explored. In addition to research, there are several websites and similar dedicated to flipped learning and the STEM-subjects. However, research within other subjects, such as second language learning, is becoming more popular and new research is published frequently. Within this aspect, my study positions itself within a growing field of study.

In an attempt to combine language awareness and flipped learning it was necessary to take a slightly different approach to flipped learning than that which is traditionally researched. In my study the pupils are “doing the flipping”. With this understanding of flipped learning, the approach has several similarities to other topics, such as digital storytelling<sup>4</sup> (DST). There are however clear differences between this project and research done on DST, as the focus in my study is to examine the language awareness and metacognitive development that occurs.

As a result, I believe my study positions itself reasonably well within current trends on language awareness and engagement with language research, and there are several interesting factors within these fields of study that can potentially be supported by my findings. Although it is most common within education research to use participants at a university level, I believe my use of lower secondary pupils is a strength and it will be interesting to see if the difference in participants’ age has a bearing on the findings. Within the research field of flipped

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<sup>4</sup> For a more thorough examination of the concept of digital storytelling, see for example Normann (2012), Robin (2016) or Sadik (2008)



teaching, I take a different approach to the flipped classroom. However, I believe that I am still within a flipped teaching paradigm and that my findings can prove useful for future flipped teaching research. The field of flipped teaching within EFL is a rather new research field and I believe mine can be a relevant addition to the field.

## 4 Methods

In this chapter, I will present the research methodology and research design chosen for this study and give reasons for why these choices were made. I will present the different data-sources that were used and how this data was gathered and analysed. I will give a detailed description of the context of the study through a description of both the broader context of the school where the research was conducted as well as a more detailed description of some key pupils that occur in the data. Finally, I will give some remarks in relation to the quality of the research as well as ethical considerations related to gathering data on your own pupils.

### 4.1 Research methodology and research design

When deciding on a method to use in research, the choice should be made on the basis of what the researcher seeks to explore and the research questions the researcher wants to answer (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). The decision on which research design to use should be based on the researcher's particular focus (Ringdal, 2013).

In research, it is common to distinguish between quantitative and qualitative research paradigms. Quantitative methods have their roots in the nature sciences and attempt to give information about our reality using numbers. Qualitative methods, on the other hand, attempt to convey information about our reality using words or language. As modern qualitative research in large parts has its origins in attempting to provide an alternative method for researching social phenomenon and human behaviour compared to the quantitative approaches (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018), it is useful to briefly define both quantitative and qualitative methods when attempting to select a suitable research design.

Quantitative methods are positivist. The ideal within positivism is that all phenomenon can be understood using the same method, the one of nature science (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). The positivist ideal posits that research should focus on that which is positive, meaning criteria and phenomena that can be measured and registered. The quantitative methods are best suited to achieving this ideal (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). Through the use of quantitative analysis, large quantities of data can be analysed. The data is transformed into numbers and as numbers are not open to interpretation the knowledge created through quantitative methods is more transferrable and has a higher degree of generality (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018).

The qualitative methods, as opposed to the quantitative approaches, posits that physical objects are different to social phenomena and as such, a different approach was required. This

approach was later named a constructivist approach (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). Qualitative methods are suitable when we want to understand social phenomena and comprise, among other things, interviews, observations, and analysis of visual and verbal expressions (Thagaard, 2018). Qualitative research is interested in discovering and giving insight into “what happens between people” (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011, p 362, my translation). Every action taken by a person has a meaning beyond the actual action taken. This meaning can not be discovered by observing the action from afar and as such the researcher must participate in the community in which it happens. As this information is impossible to discover using only quantitative methods, a qualitative approach is required to understand the actions of individuals (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011).

All research designs have different strengths and weaknesses. This has led some to argue that design triangulation or a mixed methods approach should be an ideal in all forms of research. (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). The mixed methods approach is considered by some to be a third research paradigm, together with the quantitative and qualitative paradigms. A mixed methods approach can help create a more nuanced and detailed representation of the reality the research seeks to explore (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Fetters, Curry and Creswell (2013) highlights different ways research design and research methods can be mixed to draw upon the strengths of both methods. At a design level, a study can be sequential, which means that one method follows the other, or convergent, where the methods are merged so that the results can be merged. In more advanced research designs, these approaches can be combined or used to expand on a case-study methodology. At the methods level, a mixed-methods approach can be used to connect databases in different ways, one of which being embedding, where data collection and analysis is linked together at multiple points (Fetters, Curry & Creswell, 2013)

Despite the benefits of using a mixed methods approach, it is often a time-consuming endeavour and is not recommended for master theses as the result will often be two methods where neither is of a sufficient standard. It is, however, still possible to do a mixed-methods approach within only qualitative approaches, which can lead to a better understanding of the research phenomenon (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018).

I decided on using a qualitative approach, using a multiple method approach where three different methods were used; classroom observation, semi-structured group interviews of pupils, and video analysis of pupil made videos. As such, the design has elements of a mixed methods approach where the data is integrated through embedding (Fetters, Curry, &

Creswell, 2013). The choice of a qualitative research design for this study was made on the basis of the phenomenon under study and the scope of the project.

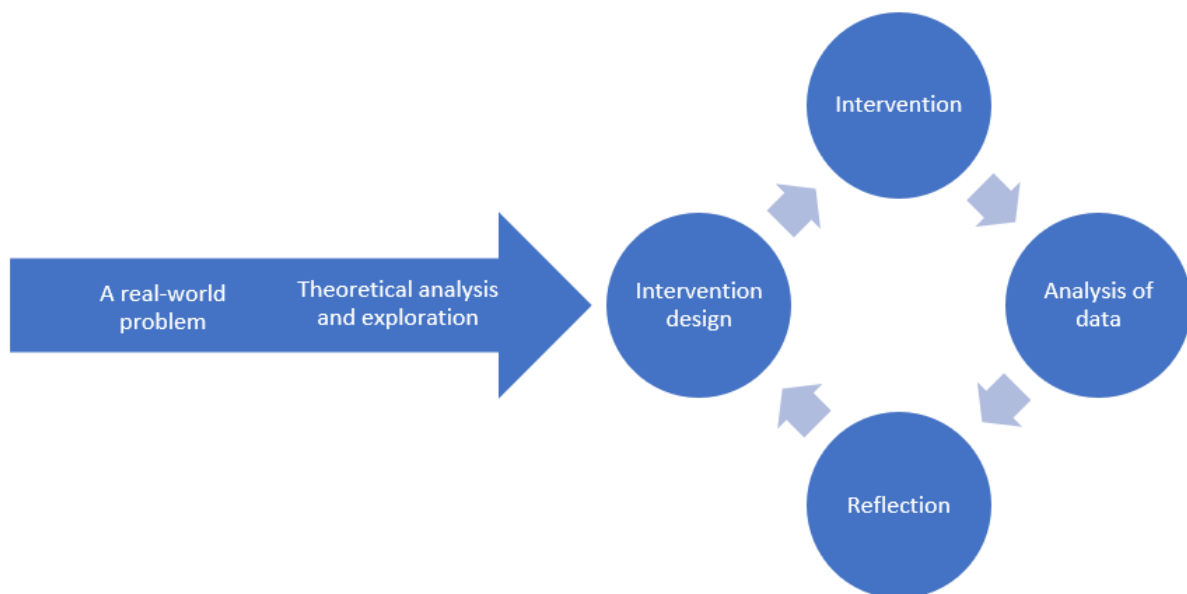
#### 4.2 Choosing a qualitative research design

The purpose of this project is to explore student video creation within grammar-teaching in an EFL classroom and the merits of such an approach to grammar learning. A qualitative approach is best suited for the study of phenomena that have not been thoroughly studied before (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011; Thagaard, 2018).

Observation means to study social interactions and to systematically watch for the actions made by the participants in the study. The method works particularly well when the target of the observation is the interaction between two participants (Thagaard, 2018). As the aim of this study is to gain an understanding of a teaching method and how the pupils react to and work within the framework of the teaching method, observation is a suitable method. The observation consisted of participating observations in my own 9<sup>th</sup> graders' English class, two lessons per week over the course of two separate four-week periods. Semi-structured research interviews of a total of 15 pupils across four interviews were conducted. Two interviews were conducted after each of the two cycles of the project. Research interviews are suitable for getting in-depth and comprehensive knowledge about the participants experience and thoughts (Thagaard, 2018). The decision to conduct four interviews was made primarily to ensure that sufficient data-material was recorded. After the project concluded, I was left with audio-visual material in the form of the film the pupils created. This material was not created for the purpose of being analysed, but it still provides a rich source of data for exploring the learning that has taken place. From the two iterations of the project, I was left with a total of 13 videos. Since the purpose of the analysis is to explore the meaning, a qualitative textual analysis was done. Although the material comes in the form of visual and audio data, a textual analysis can still be performed (Thagaard, 2018).

A design-based approach (DBR) was utilized in this study. "Design-based research is a methodology designed by and for educators that seeks to increase the impact, transfer, and translation of educational research into improved practice" (Anderson & Shattuck, 2012, p. 16). DBR involves a cyclical process of repeated empirical interventions, where each

repetition produces new knowledge, which is used in the next repetition (Reeves & McKenney, 2015).



*Figure 2 A model of the DBR cyclical process*

Anderson and Shattuck (2012) suggest a definition of DBR based on eight principles: (1) It is situated in a real educational context, (2) it focuses on the design and testing of significant interventions, (3) the use of mixed methods, (4) the use of multiple iterations, (5) it involves a collaboration between researchers and practitioners, (6) designs evolve from and lead to new design principles, (7) it has several similarities to action-research, and (8) it has a practical impact on practice. As far as my research goes, most of these principles were followed and the research method used for this project can be classed as DBR. Although no requirement as to the number of iterations required, Anderson and Shattuck state that “Design-based interventions are rarely if ever designed and implemented perfectly; thus there is always room for improvement in the design and subsequent evaluations” (2012, p. 17). The same can be said for my research, which for pragmatic reasons was ended after two iterations.

Furthermore, as I am both the researcher and the practitioner, no collaboration was necessary. As the issue with educational research is often that the teacher lacks the training to conduct research and the researcher lacks the training to teach, I believe my situations renders this principle moot.

### 4.3 Sample

The purpose of a quantitative study is to learn as much as possible about the phenomenon in question. As such, it is not purposeful to randomly select the participants of the study, but rather for the researcher to perform a strategic selection of informants (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). As the aim for this study was to explore a method for grammar teaching, it made sense to use a lower secondary class as the competence aims for the English subject curriculum for the 10<sup>th</sup> grade include a more specific focus on grammar and language learning strategies than can be found in the competence aims after upper secondary education (Utdanningsdirektoratet, n.d.a). Because of time constraints and the scope of the project the decision was made to focus on one class of 29 students ( $N = 29$ ). For the same reason, but also because of the required effort and potential economic burden of such an effort, it was decided that I should use my own class for the study. This approach to finding informants is known as convenience sampling and although it is the least desirable of approaches to selecting informants it is often used by researchers (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011).

In the class of 29 students from a 9<sup>th</sup> grade class, 22 students ( $n = 22$ ) gave written consent from their parents or legal guardians to participate in the project. Approval to collect data was also given in writing from the school's principal. One other teacher was involved in teaching the class in the relevant lessons, but for the sake of this study, no data was collected about the other teacher and his or her involvement.

#### 4.3.1 Study context

As no classroom and no body of pupils is the same, I will here give a brief description of the context surrounding the study. As this study seeks to explore the merits of student led video creation it made sense to use a typical selection, where the participants can be classified as typical or representative for a Norwegian lower secondary ESL class. The study was conducted in a school with a high percentage of non-native speakers of Norwegian, many of whom learn English as a third language. The majority of the area surrounding the school consists of high-rise apartment buildings and the socio-economic status of the area is considered low in comparison to other areas in Oslo. Although no formal data was collected, experience from working with the pupils suggests that not all pupils have access to a computer at home and few have access to their own personal computer. As such, this project was only possible using the school's supply of computer equipment.

This study yielded a large body of data gathered from different sources and from different pupils. However, some pupils featured more prevalently in the data. Below is a cursory description of the pupils who feature the most in this paper. As it is seen as relevant to describe some of the pupils' language proficiency I have done so based on the hallmarks for achievement from the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2017). These hallmarks contain descriptions of both written and oral English. To give a more nuanced description of the pupils I have selected a few hallmark descriptions that are more relevant to this study (Appendix 5). The descriptions of the pupils are based on both written and oral proficiency in relation to those hallmarks. In written English, I have focused on the descriptions of skills relating to finding information, and planning and writing texts. In oral English I have focused on the skills relating to the pupils' ability to participate in oral conversations. The description of the pupils' digital competence is based on the level descriptions of the digital skills as a basic skill in the framework. The descriptions range from level 1 to level 5, with 5 being the highest (Utdanningsdirektoratet, n.d.b).

However, the descriptions given here are not meant for a detailed analysis on pupil language proficiency and as such are not based on any data that will be presented in this study. Doing so was unfortunately outside of the scope of this research. The assessment on proficiency is based on my knowledge of the pupils as their teacher and their achieved results at the time of this project. The data is presented in the table below.

Pupil	Written proficiency in English	Oral proficiency in English	Digital competence
Hans	Grades 3 and 4	Grades 5 and 6	Level 4-5
Mia	Grades 5 and 6	Grades 5 and 6	Level 3
Jeevitha	Grades 5 and 6	Grades 3 and 4	Level 3
Johannes	Grades 5 and 6	Grades 5 and 6	Level 3-4
Elira	Grades 3 and 4	Grades 3 and 4	Level 3

*Table 3* Cursory assessment of pupil language proficiency

Interestingly, none of the pupils that feature frequently in the data material have an observed proficiency at grade level 1 or 2. In this regard the data material gives a less than desired representation of the class as a whole. These pupils were selected to be highlighted here as they appear frequently in the data material. They are five of the six pupils responsible for the three videos that were analysed more thoroughly and they were all selected for focus group

interviews. In situations where more than one pupil gave similar answers to a question or expressed similar ideas, I have elected to use the quotes from only one of these pupils if possible.

#### 4.4 Classroom observation

During the project I observed a 9<sup>th</sup> grade class during the relevant lessons where the students worked on their videos. As I am the teacher responsible for this class, I spent most of my time as a participant-as-observer. According to Gold (Gold, 1958) the participant-as-observer is similar to a complete participant, where the observer interacts with the participants as naturally as possible, only that the participants know that the observer is indeed observing. I attempted as far as possible to not change my role in the classroom from how I would normally behave. As a participant-as-observer, I benefitted from having another teacher in the classroom, allowing me to take short pauses in guiding students to take notes or to observe the class.

During the observations I would act as a teacher first and an observer second, and I would actively work with students when it came to solving problems or working on different aspects of their videos. Because of my role as teacher and previous familiarity with the students and the class, as well as the fact that the project took part in the classroom the class normally use, I felt that the pupils did not react to my role as an observer and my note-taking in any way. With two teachers in the classroom, it is not uncommon for one to take a step back to observe the class in order to identify which students require further explanation and instructions, therefore to the students my note-taking would not have been too dissimilar. Consequently, I felt as though the students did not react adversely to my role and they behaved similarly to if I had only performed my role as teacher.

The observation spanned a total of sixteen 60-minute lessons across eight weeks split evenly between two periods and two different video-projects. The observations yielded 34 A-5 pages of observations. Due to my role as complete participant, the observation notes were neither as plentiful nor as detailed as they would have been had I taken an approach closer to being a complete observer.

#### 4.5 Interviews

The purpose of the interviews was to explore pupils' experiences with video-technology and grammar teaching and as such, it was decided that participants should be selected based on a quota selection or stratified sampling (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). How students perceive both their own learning and this project can vary based on different factors



and it was therefore interesting to select pupils with varying qualities both when it comes to proficiency and perceived interest in education and learning. Because of time constraints, there was no time for a test and selection was made based on my own knowledge of the pupils.

Interviewing is a common method for collecting qualitative data. It is a flexible research method that can be used in almost all qualitative research designs (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). One bonus the research interview has is that most informants will be comfortable in a research interview, so long as the topic is not too sensitive. Research interviews can vary greatly in how they are set up, based on what the research goal is, which is one of the reasons why it is so popular amongst researchers.

Interviews can have varying degrees of structure, ranging from strictly planned out structured interviews, to unstructured. In unstructured interviews the questions are open and the researcher has planned out which topics are going to be discussed, but the questions themselves are adapted to fit each situation. On the other end of the scale the researcher has planned the questions beforehand and can, through the help of a form or chart, cross out the given answer. In between there are various forms of semi-structured interviews, which allow the researcher to plan some questions and topics, but the freedom to go back and forth in the interview guide (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). For this study, I chose to conduct semi-structured interviews with four groups of students, two after each of the phases in the project. The semi-structured interview allows for a more flexible approach to the interview and makes it easier to gain an in-depth understanding of the pupils' thoughts and experiences with creating grammar videos (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). An interview guide was created, where the questions were made partly on the basis of relevant theory and partly on the observation notes I had taken and where I was interested in learning more about certain choices that were made. The interview guide can be found in Appendix 3. All interviews were conducted in Norwegian to ensure that nothing was lost due to miscommunication. At the end of the interviews, the participants had the possibility of adding anything if they had any additional thoughts that they had not been able to convey during the interview.

The interviews were conducted at school in a group room after classes had ended for the day so as to not take time from other classes. Because the school day had ended, the interviews could be conducted without being interrupted by other pupils or teachers needing the room. All interviews were recorded using an external USB-microphone connected to a laptop. The sound levels were checked before the interview started to make sure all participants could be

heard. I did not take notes during the interviews, which allowed me to pay close attention to what was said during the interviews. All the participating pupils were informed of the guidelines for the research and how they could at any time withdraw from the interview or the project. The pupils were also informed of the structure of the interview and the time frame. In addition to asking questions I would at times repeat what the pupils asked to make sure I had understood them correctly, which allowed the pupils to add additional relevant information. The pupils were interviewed in groups of three or four at a time. This choice was made on the back of time-constraints as well as a fear that the pupils will experience an individual interview as uncomfortable.

#### 4.5.1 Challenges relating to interviewing your own pupils

A potential challenge with group interviews that could influence this study is that pupils might succumb to social conformity and answer similarly to their peers because of fear of standing out (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). Pupils might also give an answer similar to other pupils if they themselves do not believe they have a good answer to a question. It might also be the case that the relationship between the interviewer and the participants influences how the participants answer and react to questions (Thagaard, 2018). In this case, the participants might have trouble separating my role as a researcher from my role as a teacher, both because my teacher-role is the one they primarily know me as, but also from their general lack of understanding on how research is done. When the participant is a minor, it is important to avoid participants viewing the interviewer as a teacher that is looking for the right answer (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2018). As my primary role in relation to these pupils is as their teacher I made it clear at the beginning of the interviews that their responses would in no way influence their assessment and that any answer is helpful, even one that is negative. I also explained how their answers would not be used against them, in hopes that they would be completely honest in their assessment of the project.

#### 4.6 Video recordings/Document analysis

The purpose of analysing the student-made grammar videos was to gain a better understanding of what the pupils had understood of the topics they were working on. Gaining this understanding was important for the project as it allows me to say something about what the pupils are able to express as declarative knowledge, but also what they struggle with. This understanding in turn is important in order to recommend a focus for further research or recommend this method to other practitioners. In total, 29 videos were submitted over the

course of two iterations of the project, of these, 13 were produced by participants who had both agreed to participate on the project and therefore were applicable to be analysed.

Documents, in this study, are understood to be not only written text, but also audio-visual data, including videos (Thagaard, 2018). Although Thagaard (2018) uses the term documents when talking about this kind of analysis, I will use the term videos when talking about the products produced by the pupils to avoid confusion. The pupils would submit their videos on the school's learning platform, where they could be downloaded and stored securely on my personal computer. The videos are considered to be closed documents, as they require special access to view. This access is achieved through my role as the teacher as well as a researcher.

Thagaard (2018) mentions three dimensions to be aware of when using documents as a source for data in research; relevance, authenticity, and credibility. Considering the nature of the videos in relation to the thesis' research questions we can safely determine that the relevance of the videos is high. Even though the videos exist outside of the research and a similar project could have been done without a research process taking place, the exact videos we are analysing are made as a direct result of this research project and the creation process of the videos has been monitored. The authenticity of the videos relates to whether or not we can assume the videos are real and if we can trust that the content creator of the video is who they state to be. Considering that the process of making the videos was carefully supervised, we can safely assume that the authenticity of the videos is high. Finally, the credibility of the videos relates to whether or not we can trust the information the document gives. Thagaard (2018) states that we must assess the motives the creator had for making the videos and how these motives might affect the portrayal. The videos for this project were made as part of a school-project. Every attempt was made at making this project as similar to a normal school project as possible with minimal interference from the research done. It can therefore be assumed that the motivation of the pupils was to create videos in accordance with the task-description and to show as much English language competence as possible. Therefore, the motives of the pupils will not influence the analysis in any significant way.

#### 4.7 Data analysis

The purpose of qualitative data analysis is firstly to sort the gathered data material in order to make the material understandable. The aim of the analysis in most cases is to look for patterns in the data so as to organise the material into topics or categories (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). The following paragraphs contain descriptions of how this analysis was carried out on

the data gathered from the classroom observations, the group interviews, and the student-videos.

#### 4.7.1 Classroom observation

Observation can be separated into varying degrees of structured and unstructured observation. Structured observation involves tracking data based on pre-defined categories and allows the researcher to quickly and easily register what is being observed. On the other hand, unstructured observation allows for a greater flexibility when it comes to what is being observed (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011).

During the observation, I used a small notebook for writing down my observations. It is important that the writing down of notes is done parallel to the observations and so I would carry the notebook with me in class or leave it for short periods on the teacher's desk while giving instructions to pupils. Each page in the notebook was divided in two. On the left side of the page, I would note down what is happening as precisely as possible without any interpretation of what was observed. In addition, the context in which the observations were made was noted down on the left side of the page. On the right side of the page, I would note initial thoughts, questions, and my interpretations. This method of taking notes allows the observer to both note down the neutral observation whilst still being able to make on-the-fly reflections and interpretations (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2013).

The researcher will always bring their own interpretation to the observation and as such, observation notes cannot be considered to be neutral (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2013). However, in newer observational research, total objectivity is not the ideal. The researchers background must be considered and it is the researchers job to make the issues that might influence the interpretation clear (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). The issue of validity of interpretation will be discussed later in the chapter in order to ensure the validity of the interpretation.

#### 4.7.2 Interview transcripts

To transcribe data means to write down everything that is said in an interview so that the oral material becomes written. The transcribing in this project was done by myself, which was useful as it allowed a greater familiarity with the data. When transcribing, the researcher is faced with the choice of whether to transcribe every utterance, pause, and laughter, or to do a rougher transcribing where what is being said is of greater focus than how it is being said (Sollid, 2013). For this project, I decided to do a rougher transcription of the material without writing down non-relevant sounds and utterances. The decision was made primarily because

what was said was considered most important and because non-relevant utterances and sounds can be seen as a product of insecurity concerning the situation the pupils are put in rather than of actual knowledge of the topics being discussed.

After transcribing the interviews, I started the work of coding the data-material to look for patterns or categories in the material. Coding is used to discover the meaningful pieces of information in the data material and to organise these pieces to make analysing easier (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). The process of coding and analysing the data will be further discussed later in the chapter.

4.7.3 Video transcripts

Although the videos are audio-visual data, they are considered to be “documents” or “texts” in an expanded definition of the term (Thagaard, 2018). As the purpose of the analysis was to analyse the meaning of the text and the content it made sense to transcribe the videos together with screen-shots and timestamps. This transcription was done by myself, which was particularly useful as it gave me a better understanding of the content of the videos.



Screenshot	Transcription
	<p><b>00:00</b>            J: Hello, in this video we will tell you what an adverb is, how they work and different types of adverbs.            E: An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb. In this case, modifies means tells more about. Usually adverbs modify verbs telling us how, how often, when or where something was done. The adverb is placed after the verb it modifies. An adverb tells you more about how the verb is being done. It adds more information to the verb, most of the adverbs end in <u>-ly</u>. For example, he smiled <u>sadly</u>. In this sentence <u>sadly</u> is the adverb because it is describing the way he smiled.</p>
	<p><b>00:10</b>            J: Okay, so <u>ly</u>-verbs are the most common adverbs. These adverbs end in <u>ly</u>, for example: The dog wagged its tail <u>quickly</u>. In this case <u>quickly</u> is the adverb because it is describing how fast the dog is wagging its tail. Another example is: The team played <u>badly</u> and lost the match. The word <u>badly</u> is the adverb in this sentence because it is describing how bad the team has played.</p>

Figure 4 Example from transcribed video material

The frequency of screenshots varied between the videos and the decision of when to take a new screenshot and mark a new timestamp was based on the actual visuals of the video and the content. I attempted to represent the video as thoroughly as possible within reasonable limits.

In line with Saldaña's (2013) warnings that the analysis of visual data can be challenging, I elected to follow his recommendations to write holistic analytic memos on the videos. In these memos, I attempted to approach the transcribed video-material with an analytical lens primarily based on questions and thoughts I had from the theory as well as from my initial thoughts from transcription of the material. In addition to the analytic memos, the transcribed material was coded, a process which will be discussed later in the chapter.

#### 4.7.4 Coding

Coding data means to look for significant or meaningful elements in the raw text material you are left with after transcribing. Through a systematic reading of the material, the researcher can identify pieces of the material that give knowledge or insight into the main topic (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). In this project, all of the text material from the three sources was subjected to the same coding process.

When coding, the codes used by the researcher stem primarily from two sources. Inductive coding means to find codes or categories in the material itself, whereas deductive coding means to categorise based on the thesis question, hypothesis, or already-decided key terms (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011). Both inductive and deductive coding were used in the coding process of this project. Coding is an analytical lens through which the researcher views the material in different ways and different lenses might result in different codes being assigned to the same section of material. The coding process is a multi-step task, which requires the researcher to work through the material in different steps, applying different lenses in each cycle of coding (Saldaña, 2013).

The first cycle of coding is the easiest or most straightforward method of coding, but nevertheless an important part of the coding process. There are several different coding methods to choose from and which method or methods are applied will vary depending on the goals of the study, furthermore, not all coding decisions must be made prior to starting the coding-process as new discoveries can be made during the coding process (Saldaña, 2013). As a method for familiarizing myself with the data, I elected to first perform an attribute coding as a data-management technique. After this, I performed two first-cycle coding methods, first an initial coding, followed by a more thorough simultaneous coding of in vivo coding and descriptive coding. Initial coding means to break down the code into smaller parts so it can be more closely examined. This is useful as it allows the researcher to be open to all and any possible directions the data might take (Saldaña, 2013). Although the initial coding involves

elements of in vivo coding, it was still useful to do a more thorough and focused in vivo coding cycle. Descriptive coding means to summarize the main topic of a section of data, whereas in vivo coding means to use pieces of the actual language from the data material as code (Saldaña, 2013). This choice was made as I was dealing with multiple sources of data and it provided a useful method for gaining additional familiarity with the data material.

After this first coding cycle, I performed a round of focused coding, where I would search my data material for the most frequent codes in order to create the most useful categories for analysis (Saldaña, 2013). During this process, some codes were relabelled, while others remained. Finally, codes were put together in categories based on a connection to each other and to the theoretical framework.

The coding was initially done manually using a printout of the transcribed material with columns for first and second cycle coding methods. Different coloured pens were used as well as a marker for attribute coding. An example of this coding process can be seen in Figure 5. The categories “engagement with language: Cognitively” can be seen in the third column, used for writing second cycle codes. The first cycle code “Language patterns” can also be seen, as well as the connected second cycle code and category “Language Awareness”

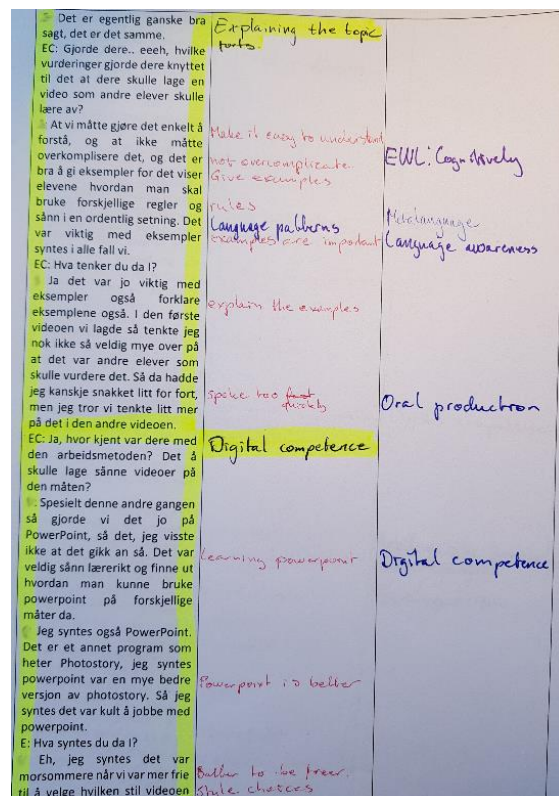


Figure 5 Coding process example

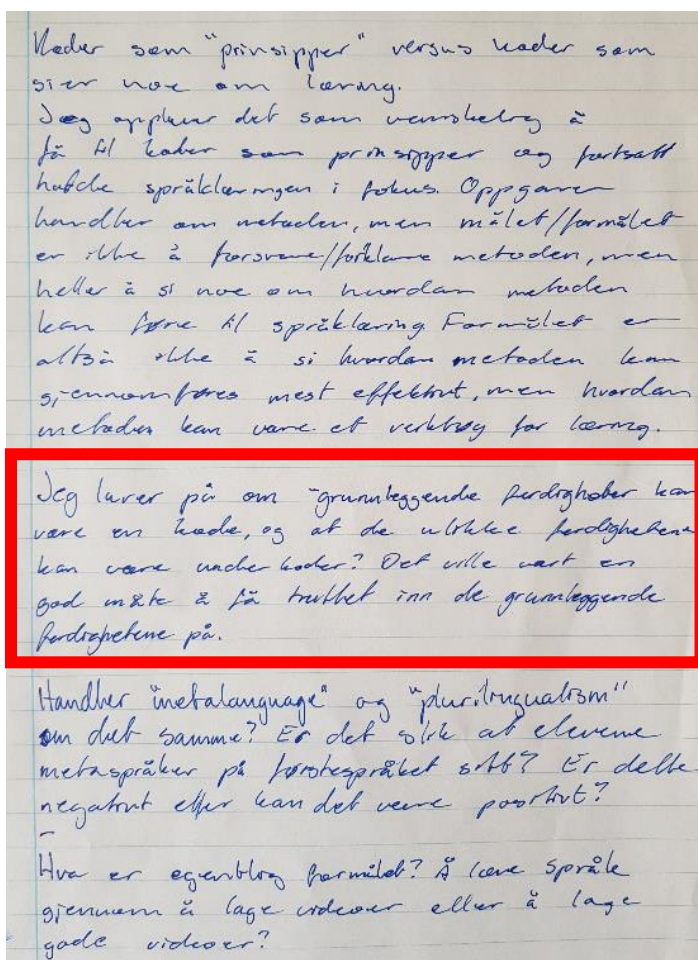


Figure 6 Analytic memo example

As well as coding, I would frequently write analytic memos as a method to reflect on the ongoing coding process. Analytic memos are, according to Saldaña a way to “dump your brain” (2013, p. 41) about the material you are working on. These analytic memos were written in various ways, usually on what medium was closest at hand. These analytic memos proved valuable as they allowed reflection, both in terms of the data itself, but also the data in relation to the rest of the paper. Although most of the memos were written in notebooks or on pieces of paper available, some were written as part of the communication with my supervisor, as this proved a valuable

time to reflect on and think freely about the data. Figure 5 shows one page of analytic memos written during the coding phase. An example of this process being worthwhile can be seen in the marked area in Figure 6, where I first realised that the basic skills from the subject curriculum could be used as codes, writing “I wonder if ‘basic skills’ can be a code, and the different skills can be sub-codes. This would be a good way of including the basic skills”.

#### 4.8 Research quality

The aim of social science research is not to discover the truth, as what is considered true knowledge today might tomorrow be challenged and proven to be untrue (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). Instead, the aim of research should be to discover as much about the phenomenon it is exploring, as “[...] the closer we come to discovery of a part of the truth, the greater the scope of the unknown seems to become” Fox, 1958 as cited in Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018, p. 219). The quality of research therefore is not evaluated based purely on the result of the research, but rather on how the knowledge has been produced (Postholm &



Jacobsen, 2018). The following paragraphs will highlight the methods used to ensure quality of research for this study.

The term reliability is traditionally defined as replicability of research, that is to say whether or not the results of the research can be replicated in a different project provided it employs similar methods (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). In social science however, reliability as it is classically understood is not as relevant due to the fact that the phenomena that are being researched can change and because the relationship between the researcher and what is being researched will be different in different projects. Instead, reliability is tied to reflections from the researcher on how the research and the researcher has influenced the results. This requires that the researcher reflects on his or her influence on the research and makes the process transparent for others to reflect on (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2013).

Validity in qualitative research is traditionally understood as “determining the degree to which a researcher’ claim about knowledge correspond to the reality being studied” (Cho & Trent, 2006). Validity can furthermore be divided into internal and external validity (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). The term internal validity deals with two aspects. First, whether or not the study measures what it intends to measure and secondly, if the research forms a basis to speak about causality between what is observed. External validity is also sometimes called transferability and relates to how well the results can be said to be valid in other contexts than the one studied (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). The external and internal validity of a study can be said to make up the total trustworthiness of a study and as such, it is important that the researcher is aware of the factors that make up validity as well as being open about the research process (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018).

One way of improving the reliability and validity of data is through triangulation. All types of methods for gathering data have strengths and weaknesses, just as different researchers might see the same phenomenon differently (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). Triangulation involves describing reality from different angles, such as through different methods of gathering data. An increased number of sources will improve reliability and validity as it makes the research less vulnerable to skewness that might arise from only looking at the data from one angle (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). As this study uses three different methods for gathering data, namely classroom observations, interviews, and video analysis, the reliability and validity of the study has been strengthened.

The drawback of using triangulation is that it is very time-consuming and takes a lot of resources. For a study with a scope such as this, having too many sources of data and methods for collecting data can result in a study being too broad in the end that the researcher loses focus (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). For the sake of limiting this research project to one that is manageable it was necessary to focus primarily on one data collection method and to use the others more as supporting methods for the primary one. Seeing as the end goal of the project was videos created by students, the videos were used as the primary source of data.

#### 4.9 Ethical considerations

An important ethical principle of research is that the responsibility of research is primarily to the research subjects, secondly to the research itself, and finally to the researcher (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018). Consequently, the researcher might find themselves facing an ethical dilemma where a choice might negatively impact the quality of the research. Research ethics are based on the basic humanistic perspective of Kant – you should not hurt others or want to cause others harm. Therefore, all ethical choices made must be carefully considered and the potential gains to be made from a choice must be considered against the potential harm done to the participants (Postholm & Jacobsen, 2018).

This was an important principle to consider during this research. All decisions regarding classroom activities and the design of the project was made with the pupils and their learning in mind. This was an important consideration both when it came to planning the actual project, but also in the day to day execution of the project. If faced with questions of this nature I would first think as a teacher and secondly as a researcher, basing my decision on a wish to give my pupils the highest quality education possible. During this period, I used advice and help both from colleagues and school administrators to make sure that the choices made were in accordance with principles for good teaching.

Hoel (2000) highlights two main problems arising from the teacher doing research on their own practice. The first issue is regarding the relation between the teacher and the pupils where the teacher has a responsibility for their students. In this situation it is important for the teacher to reflect on their own practices and ask how the project might affect the pupils. In my project I spent considerable time and effort minimising the effect the project had on the pupils with the aim that they would experience this project as something they potentially could have done even if I had not participated in the research. Another issue that might arise from the relationship between the researcher and the participants is regarding the choice of informants

and how choosing only a selection of pupils as informants might change the way you view your pupils. My solution to this was to treat all my pupils as informants, pending their written consent. In the cases where I did not receive written consent on participation, observational notes on those pupils would not be included in the data material, those pupils would not be selected for interviewing, and their videos would not be analysed.

A different potential problem is that the researcher will use their knowledge of the pupils when analysing data, with the result that the analysis becomes more descriptive than analytical. One potential solution to this problem is to triangulate the analysis through other researchers or potentially other teachers, however this can also have negative effects on how pupils perform, as well as being difficult with regards to confidentiality (Furu, 2013). Using another teacher or researcher to analyse the data was, for me, too demanding in terms of time and resources. Instead I have taken steps to make my analysis and interpretation of the data as transparent as possible.

Before this project was started, a formal approval was obtained from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data. This approval is included as Appendix 1. Before seeking written consent from my participants, I contacted school-administration to seek approval for the project. This approval can be found in Appendix 4. As the participants were younger than 18 years of age, I sent a form for written consent home to their parents or legal guardians including information about the project. The information letter can be found in Appendix 2. The parents were at the same time encouraged to contact me if they had any questions regarding the project. With this written consent also came a clear statement that any participants could at any time withdraw from the project without giving reasons and that choosing not to participate would not have a negative impact on assessments on this project or any future projects.

Also included in the information given to both pupils and parents was information about how the data gathered about the subjects would be treated. All data gathered from this project was kept on a personal, password-protected laptop. To ensure the anonymity of the participants, I also omitted any information that might reveal their identity. As this study involves multiple sources of data it was important to be able to identify pupils across different transcriptions. For this purpose, all the students were given aliases, which again were stored securely on my personal computer. During transcription, I swapped the names of pupils with the alias. After transcribing the data, I erased the sound-files.

The videos used in the project were uploaded to a YouTube-channel I created using my work e-mail. The videos were made private and only viewable with a direct link. The link was shared with the pupils using the learning management system (LMS) It's Learning. The subject room, in which the links were shared, is no longer active, and the pupils have presently lost access to the videos. The steps detailed above were taken to the videos created by all pupils, regardless of their participation in the study or not, as they were still required to participate in the teaching project. As such, the data uploaded to YouTube was not research data, but rather teaching material. However, when this project ends, July 31. the videos will be deleted from YouTube.

## 5 Findings

In this chapter, the findings of the study will be presented. The findings will be presented by category and findings across different data-gathering methods will be presented together. I have elected to structure this chapter in a similar way to the theoretical perspectives and literature review chapters.

### 5.1 The Basic Skills

The first category that emerged in the data was one relating to pupils use of basic skills from the English subject curriculum. The basic skills “contribute to the development of competence in the subject, while also being part of the competence” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2012). According to the Framework for Basic Skills, “[t]hese skills are basic in the sense that they are fundamental to learning in all subjects as well as a prerequisite for the pupil to show his/her competence” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). Analysing to which extent the pupils participating in this project utilise the various basic can provide some insight into the learning that takes place when working on a project like this one. Although the aim of this study is not to say how much the pupils have learned, or to compare that learning with other methods, the basic skills provides an interesting insight into what and how the pupils worked.

The basic skills found in the data material were oral skills, writing skills, reading skills, and digital skills. The basic skill numeracy was not found in the data material.

#### 5.1.1 Oral skills

The category oral skills entails the instances where the pupils used their oral skills as defined in the national curriculum for English. Although the oral skills are defined as speaking, listening, and cooperating, I have not looked for examples of pupils listening, as I consider any act of speaking or cooperation between pupils to also include the use of listening skills.

The most prevalent issue that arose from the data material was whether pupils used the English language when working together. In the interviews, Jeevitha stated that “when we were finding facts I thought it was easier to speak English because we are finding facts in English. It was in a way easier to talk in English”. However, this view was contrasted by other pupils, who communicated primarily through their L1. Mia argued for this by saying “We also spoke Norwegian, and like, you have this notion that you speak these languages with these people. So it’s a little bit awkward to start speaking a different language with someone”.

Another again used difficulties in communicating in English as their reason for using the L1, as stated by Elira, “I think it was easier to speak Norwegian because like [other student] said, it is what I speak all the time and English can be a bit hard to understand”. Furthermore, Hans stated that if they had been forced to use English when working together, they might have required more time to finish the project, “because then we had to think more about what we say and such”. The issue of many pupils speaking their L1 when working on the project was supported by the observations of the class made during the project. At the time, I reflected on whether it would be beneficial to force pupils to use English to communicate or not. In the end, it was decided to allow pupils to use their L1 when working on the videos.

Several of the pupils reflected in the interviews on how they adapted their language based on their target. As Johannes stated, “we used an easier language and not a lot of difficult words”. The notion of being conscious of how to adapt language was supported by Jeevitha, who stated that “It was important with examples, and to explain the examples. In the first video we made we didn’t really think about that other students were going to assess it, so we might have spoken a bit too quick, but we thought about that in the second video”.

The videos are themselves examples of pupils’ oral production. In most of the videos, both pupils responsible for a video spoke in the videos. The length of the videos varied from the shortest at 1 minute 3 seconds to the longest at 4 minutes 38 seconds and the word count from the lowest at 143 to the highest at 672. The majority of pupils got the opportunity to speak English aloud and to hear their own voice spoken. In the three videos analysed more thoroughly, all six pupils spoke and within these three videos both pupils spoke approximately the same amount. Regarding the issue of speaking aloud one pupil said that “We can show what we actually know and not be embarrassed by speaking loud in the classroom. Because in the classroom someone might laugh, and they think what you said is bad or something”.

### 5.1.2 Reading

The category reading consists of examples of pupils engaging in activities described as being able to read in the basic skills of the national curriculum. The findings in this category are primarily concerned with how the pupils worked with different texts to acquire the necessary information for their videos. The findings in this category are therefore primarily from the data gathered during the interviews and are supported by data gathered during the observations.

From the observations of the class during the project, it was observed that several groups would read texts together and would employ a series of different reading strategies they were familiar with. The most prevalent reading strategy observed was reading out loud, stopping at regular intervals to take notes on the information just read. Reading aloud was observed in the majority of groups.

In the interviews, the pupils reported on the sources they used to find information. Some groups would primarily use the learner book for information. Filip stated that “we found a lot of information, mostly in Basic Skills (the learners’ textbook), but it was explained very well in the book, so we didn’t know how to make it into our own sentences, but we managed in the end”. When asked what the first step the group took when starting the video project, another pupil said that “the first thing we did was just to open the pages in the textbook because we had a bit about the topic in Norwegian, but we had both kind of forgot what is really was. So we just looked through the textbook and tried interpreting everything that was there”.

Some groups reported that they had problems finding enough information in the learner’s book. As Elira reported, “We didn’t find a lot of information in the textbook. We found a bit, but not that much. And on the internet we found almost exactly the same as in the book. I am sure there is much more to find online, but we didn’t find that much in the time we spent searching”. This was supported by Johannes, who stated that “there wasn’t a lot of information about the topic. There was only like half a page in the book. And we didn’t find that much online. We searched through a lot of pages, and in the end we found something we were happy with”.

Jeevitha also reflected on the benefit of reading to find information and learn a topic, stating that “I feel like I didn’t know that much about it, but after reading a little bit about it, or quite a bit actually. I know it a lot better than I did”.

### 5.1.3 Writing

The category writing consists of examples of the pupils using their writing skills as defined in the basic skills of the national curriculum for English. As writing in the basic skills is defined as being able to write different texts, the writing of the script used for the videos is considered an example of writing, in addition to the videos themselves, which are considered an example of a multimodal text.

One finding in the data was regarding pupils using writing as a tool for learning. When asked how they worked in the pairs to make sure they learned the topic they were making their

video on, Elira stated that “me and my partner, we wrote down everything we thought was important and after that we underlined and marked everything we wanted to say”. Jeevitha answered the same question by saying that “first we wrote down what we knew and then we talked about it. And then we wrote down explanations without looking in the book before we opened the book and tried to make the sentences more professional, so that we also learn a bit”. This approach of using writing as a tool for learning the material was prevalent in most pairs and was supported by the observations made during the work on the videos.

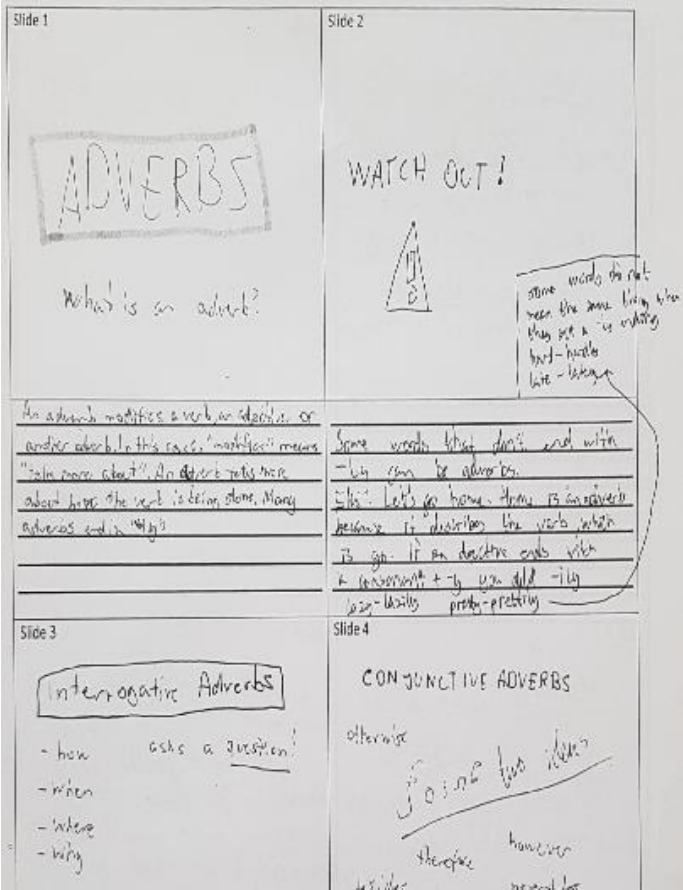


Figure 7 Example of storyboard on adverbs

On the second iteration of the project, the pupils were required to make a storyboard to help them plan their videos. See Figure 7 for an example of a storyboard made by the pupils for video 1. In the interviews, one pupil reflected on the process of planning a text and how the storyboard was of assistance. The pupils were asked about the processes they went through and how they worked on the videos when Hans replied that “[...] and then we wrote it down (everything we knew). And then we started writing our storyboard and thinking about getting the information about the topic in the right order. That we first

introduce what it is and the rules and such”. Azra, another pupil, explained that they had followed a similar approach to finding information and writing a text and said that “first we found all the information we needed and then we wrote a short text to fit all the images we found”.



The videos are also considered to be an example of multimodal text, and therefore evidence of writing skills. Most of the videos contained a rather small amount of writing in terms of word-count, as the writing was mostly limited to

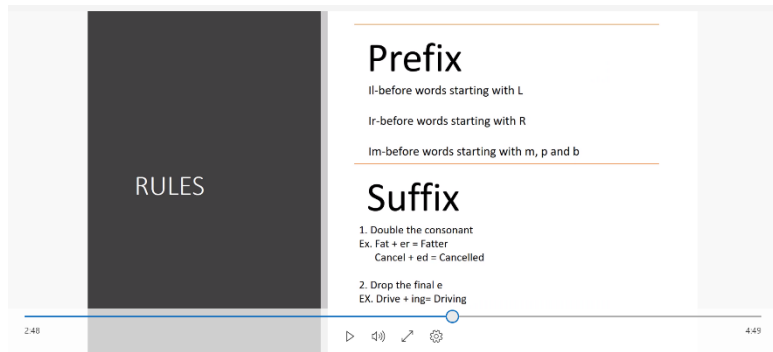


Figure 8 Screenshot from video on prefixes and suffixes

headlines/titles, short explanations of rules, or examples. The writing on the screens does match up with what is being said. In the example from Figure 8, we can see that Jeevitha and Filip present the grammatical rules for prefixes and suffixes. The written information supports the main points the pupils make in their video.

On the other hand, Elira and Emina, who created video 2 chose to solve the matter in a different way and used little self-produced writing, opting instead to find a premade image online. See Figure 9. This image does not

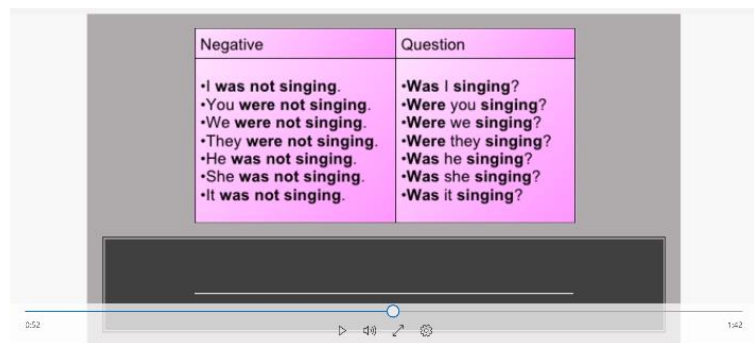


Figure 9 Screenshot from video on past continuous

support what is said in the video to the same degree, although the examples spoken are related to the examples on screen, they are not the same.

#### 5.1.4 Digital skills

The category digital skills shows examples of pupils using various digital skills as they are defined in the basic skills of the national curriculum for English. The category includes pupils using various digital skills in the process of acquiring knowledge from authentic situations, as well as the use of various digital tools in the creation of a product, in this case a video. One aspect of digital skills is the ability to follow formal requirements in digital texts, which encompasses such things as making sure the text is “compiled to emphasise and communicate the message” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, n.d.). An example of pupils being mindful of this can be found in Figure 10 above, which provides one example of pupils limiting information displayed to emphasise the most important pieces of information.

One finding was regarding how pupils used digital tools in the search for information. Although many pupils reported - and were observed - using the learner's textbook in their search for information, many would also use the Internet. As Johannes stated during the interviews, "We didn't find a lot of information in the textbook, we found a bit, but not that much. And on the internet we found almost exactly the same as in the book. I am sure there is much more to find online, but we didn't find that much in the time we spent searching". The use of internet in searching for information was corroborated by observations, which showed that the majority of groups would use the Internet either as their primary source, as a secondary source, or as a source for inspiration.

Pupils also reported on their use of digital tools in the creation of the videos. As Hans stated in the interviews, "[...] and then we wrote it down (everything we knew). And then we started writing our storyboard and thinking about getting the information about the topic in the right order. That we first introduce what it is and the rules and such". Furthermore, Johannes and Mia reflected in the interviews about their preference regarding which programs to use when making videos, stating that, "It was very interesting learning how to use PowerPoint in different ways", and "I also think PowerPoint was a lot better than Photostory, so I thought it was very cool to work in PowerPoint". The preference of working in PowerPoint over other programs was shared by most pupils, although a few reported a preference towards being free to choose which method they wanted in making the videos.

When asked what the pupils would do differently if they had more time to work on the videos, Hans stated that "[If I had more time] I would have tried to find more images, even though it was hard, and maybe tried to make some of the images myself". It was generally observed that pupils used stock images from the Internet when making the videos, although in the second iteration of the project, when the pupils were required to use PowerPoint, several groups spent considerable time writing and making their own illustrations to support their points.

## 5.2 Language Awareness

The findings in the language awareness category were found across all three sources of data. The findings in this category were mostly concerned with two concepts; the pupil's thoughts about and examples of pupils' metalinguistic knowledge, and pupil's thoughts about and awareness of language patterns.

### 5.2.1 Metalinguistic knowledge

Metalinguistic knowledge as a part of language awareness entails a declarative awareness of language, where you are able to “discuss language using relevant terminology” (Hauge & Angelsen, 2018). In the data material, metalinguistic knowledge appeared primarily in the interviews, where discussion of language was abundant, but students showing metalinguistic knowledge was also observed in the classroom and found in the videos.

Pupils showed an ability to reflect on their own knowledge, or lack of, on their given topic, for example Chandra stated that “I know the topic pretty well, like, I know the difference of when to use the words in the sentences”. The pupils were also able to reflect on whether or not their previous experience with their topic in their L1 was beneficial to their own learning. When questioned about whether their previous knowledge was beneficial to this project, Kari stated that “Yes a bit, because then I knew that you are not supposed to have quotation marks before it, but it has been a while since we learned about it”. The use of L1 knowledge was also observed when the pupils worked on creating the videos, where one pupil asked the teacher about the difference between their concept in English and Norwegian. Another similar observation was made, in which the pupils themselves discovered the link between their L1 and the target language, when Eva stated that “this is exactly like in Norwegian, when you say [...]”.

In addition to showing metalinguistic knowledge in the interviews and during the observations, pupils described how they had worked and in doing so described activities that require metalinguistic knowledge. When asked how they worked together to find information about their given topic Jeevitha said that “we worked together, like we explained the topic to each other if we didn’t understand it and we read it together. It was beneficial to work like this because sometimes you misunderstand something, but if you are two you can see both sides”.

Many of the videos can be considered evidence or indications of metalinguistic knowledge, as the information given by pupils in the videos requires a declarative awareness. One example of declarative knowledge from video 1, made by Johannes and Eva, is: “An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb. In this case, modifies means tells more about. Usually adverbs modify verbs telling us how, how often, when, or where something was done. The adverb is placed after the verb it modifies. An adverb tells you more about how the verb is being done. It adds more information to the verb, most of the adverbs end in -ly. For example, he smiled sadly. In this sentence sadly is the adverb because it is describing the way he

smiled”. Another relevant example of pupils’ metalinguistic knowledge can be found in video 3, made by Jeevitha and Filip, which gives an example of pupils struggling to use the correct words to describe a phenomenon. “[...] The third example is: my sibling is very childish. So in the third example the word -ish means, [short pause] childish means to act like a child”. The pupil gives the correct explanation of what the word “childish” means and by extension also an explanation of what the suffix “-ish” entails.

### 5.2.2 Language patterns

Awareness of the patterns of language involves knowing how different patterns of language are used in different communicative contexts. In this study, the category “language patterns” is used to show the instances where pupils show a conscious understanding of the need to adapt their own language to the different communicative situations in which they find themselves. In the data-material, the findings in this category consists of instances where pupils talk about choices made regarding the language they used in their videos, but also observations made during the creation of the videos. These observations consist primarily of quotes from conversations between pupils. Finally, the videos are a source of pupils’ awareness of language patterns as they provide evidence as to the conscious choices made by pupils.

In the interviews, the pupils showed that their reflections on language patterns ranged from semantics, syntax, and up to pragmatics and discourse. As Johannes answered when asked if they enjoyed this way of learning, “[I liked it] since we used words that we understand better”. Hans stated, “we used an easier language, and not a lot of difficult words” when asked directly about the reflections they had related to the intended target of their videos. These quotes are indicative of an awareness of language patterns on the level of semantics.

On the syntactic level Filip, when asked where they searched for information to use in their videos, stated that “we found a lot of information, mostly in Basic Skills (textbook), but it was explained very well in the book, so we didn’t know how to make it into our own sentences, but we managed in the end”. Reflections regarding the syntactic level of language patterns were also seen during the observations, for example when one pupil said to their partner that “we have to make our own words, we can’t just copy everything”, when processing information found in the book.

The level of language patterns that pupils were mostly concerned with was that of communications, or pragmatics and discourse. As Jeevitha stated, “we had to make it easy to

understand, and we couldn't overcomplicate things", or similarly from Kari, "we had to explain things, try to explain it very well. So that everyone could understand it, not just us". Another reflection from Johannes, when answering how they liked working on this project, "what was fun about this way of working was that we got to find the information ourselves and then make a video using language that we understand". The same focus was seen during the observations, where Aisha asked her partner "how can I explain this as simple as possible?".

Regarding the findings from the videos the three videos that were analysed more in depth all exemplify varying levels of formality. The pupils were tasked with making videos where the intended target was other pupils. In video 1, Johannes and Eva use semi-formal language, with words such as "stuff" and with the use of filler words such as "okay". Video 1 also has the viewer in mind and talks directly to the viewer by for example saying "[...] we will tell you what an adverb is[...]". In video 2, Emina and Elira use formal language. The pupils do not use contractions outside of examples and avoid filler words and informal language. Although this video also addresses the viewer, by saying "[...] we are going to teach you[...]"], it does so to a lesser degree than video 1. In video 3, Filip and Jeevitha use an informal language. Consider the introduction to the video: "Hello, and welcome to our fantastic video on prefixes and suffixes. It's going to be fun! My name is Filip and I am joined by the spectacular Jeevitha. Let's begin!". In this introduction the pupils set a clear tone that they follow throughout the video, where they use an informal and colloquial language by for example, using several filler words such as "so".

### 5.3 Engagement with Language

The final category that emerged in the analysis was the category engagement with language (EWL). The categories are based on Svalberg's theories and provided a useful lens through which the view the data. The subcategories for EWL were, in accordance with the theories presented; cognitively engaged with learning, affectively engaged with learning, and socially engaged with learning. The category EWL presented itself in several of the data sources used in this study but were most prevalent in the focus group interviews.

#### 5.3.1 Cognitively engaged with language

To be cognitively engaged with language means to be alert, to pay focused attention, and to construct your own knowledge (Svalberg, 2009). During the focus-group interviews, several of the learners gave indications they were cognitively engaged with learning during the

project by being reflective, critical, and analytical when they worked with the project. When asked about potential challenges they faced on this project, Elira stated, “I would have liked to have more time, because I didn’t know a lot about the topic. So I had to read and become an expert”. Similarly, Kari said that “we were slightly worried about our content, if we had enough information and if what we wrote was understandable and if pupils could easily understand it”. Filip, when asked how they went about finding information for their video stated that “we found a lot of information, mostly in Basic Skills, but it was explained very well in the book, so we didn’t know how to make it into our own sentences, but we managed in the end”. All three of these quotes give indications that the pupils were reflective of their work and which challenges they faced and that they were critical regarding the information they found and presented, and finally that they analysed both how to overcome challenges, but also to which degree their result was satisfactory.

Another element of being cognitively engaged is that the learner constructs their own knowledge, rather than presenting information from memory (Svalberg, 2009). Although it is challenging to validate to what degree the information presented in the videos is actively constructed by the learners or imitation-based when reading the transcribed material, some indications that the pupils are actively constructing knowledge can be found in the use of images.

In the example (Figure 10), Johannes is talking about interrogative adverbs and are illustrating this using an image from what is meant to portray an interrogation. Furthermore, he uses key words to provide more support for the viewer. Choosing to accompany their explanation on interrogative adverbs with an image of an interrogation shows that they have understood the connection between *an interrogation* and

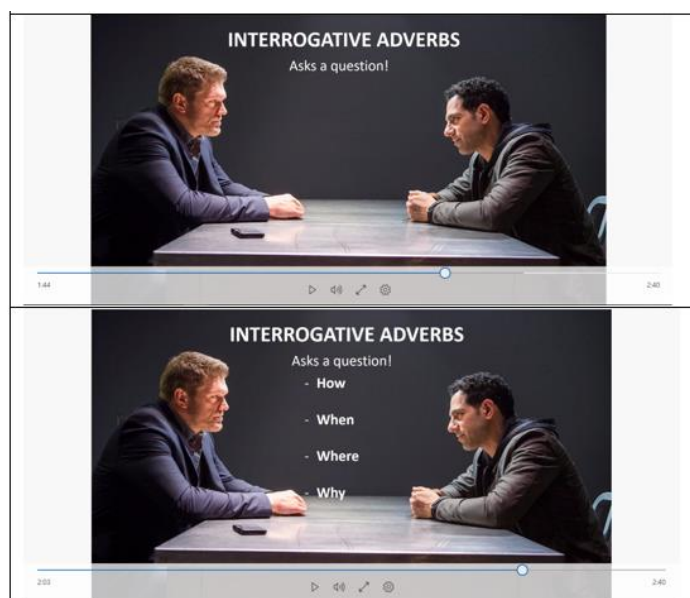


Figure 10 Interrogative adverbs, from video

*interrogative adverbs* and could suggest that the pupils are actively constructing their own knowledge. Alternatively, the pupils could copy an image from an image-search. This could

then be indicative of not constructing own knowledge, but rather repeating what others have said.

Another example of pupils constructing their own knowledge, can be found in the way information is presented and explained in the videos. In two of the three videos analysed the pupils explain information by explaining the concept, giving an example, before finally explaining the concept. From video 1, we find the example “Okay, so ly-verbs are the most common adverbs. These adverbs end in -ly, for example: The dog wagged its tail quickly. In this case quickly is the adverb because it is describing how fast the dog is wagging its tail”. The same concept can be observed in video 3, “So again let’s look at some examples. So the first example is: I had a sleepless night last night. In the first example the suffix -less is used. This changes the meaning of the word sleep”. This can be contrasted to what we see in video 2, where the pupils do not follow this same three step process of explanation. “To make the past continuous you need the past simple of to be, which is was or were, plus the ing-form of the main verb. For example: I was jumping on the trampoline when Bob came home”.

The final component of being cognitively engaged with learning is to be alert and to pay focused attention (Svalberg, 2009). From the observation notes, it became apparent that pupils could broadly be divided into three categories regarding how alert and focused they were. A large portion of the pupils were alert and seemed focused on language throughout the entire process. The pupils can be classified as pupils with a high degree of internal discipline and motivation for learning. The second group of pupils were those who began the project with a high level of focus, but who failed to maintain this level throughout, only to again work hard when approaching deadline. The final group were those who failed to stay alert and focused on language. They would appear lethargic and their mind would wander away from the topic. In my observations, this group was the category with the fewest pupils. In line with the descriptions made of pupils’ language proficiency in the chapter on study context, some observations were made as to the perceived language level of the pupils based on their level of cognitive engagement. The majority of the pupils who were classified as having a high level of alertness and focus can be classified as pupils with a language proficiency at grade levels 3 or 4. The pupils who failed to keep their focus up throughout the entire project had representatives from all proficiency levels, but seemed to favour pupils at grade levels 5 or 6. Finally, the last group of pupils, those who failed to stay alert and focused, consisted mainly of pupils who would fall into the grade levels 1 or 2.

### 5.3.2 Affectively engaged with language

To be affectively engaged with language means to have a “positive, purposeful, willing and autonomous disposition towards the object” (Svalberg, 2009). In the analysis of the data, a pattern of pupils expressing a positive attitude towards the project emerged. The data in this category comes primarily from the focus-group interviews but is also supported by observations made as the pupils worked on the project.

Of the 15 pupils interviewed across four interviews, all stated that they enjoyed this way of working with a topic, exemplified by Chandra, who said that “it was a fun way to work, to cooperate with other people”. The element of cooperation was indeed a common theme regarding the pupils’ positive attitude towards the project and will be discussed further in the topic socially engaged with learning. The majority of the pupils interviewed answered that they had worked efficiently at school, while some answered that they could have worked better. This is in line with the observations made regarding the pupils’ cognitive engagement. One pupil, Jakub, remarked that “I would have preferred if you just taught us the subject, because you know what is important and you use the right words so we understand it”, while the rest of the pupils indicated they felt they had learned more from working on this project.

Pupils showed a purposeful attitude towards the project when working, for example by giving each other homework without being prompted by the teacher, indicating a desire to understand and do well. As Johannes stated when asked about how they were planning their work: “first we need to get really good at this”. The attitude displayed by this pupil can be interpreted as the pupil wishing to go somewhere with the project, rather than just doing the bare minimum. This attitude was supported by other pupils in the interviews. As Jeevitha said, “both me and my partner wanted to do the task properly, and I think we did a good job”.

This same quote also hints at an autonomous disposition towards the project, where the pupils work independently and do not require stimulus from the teacher. The pupils would select strategies for learning the topic on their own and displayed an interest in learning for the sake of learning, not just for completing the task. When asked how they went about learning the topic, Jeevitha stated that “First we wrote down what we knew and then we talked about it. And then we wrote down explanations without looking in the book before we opened the book and tried to make the sentences more professional, so that we also learn a bit”. It was also observed that most of the pupils made plans for how they wanted to complete the task and what they needed to do to achieve it.



### 5.3.3 Socially engaged with language

To be socially engaged with learning means to be “interactive and initiating” (Svalberg, 2009). This category was together with the affectively engaged with learning one that became very prevalent during the interviews. The interviews focused primarily on what the pupils did and how they did it when they worked together.

In the interviews, the pupils highlighted the benefits of working together to understand a topic. Emina stated that “we worked together a lot of the time, like we explained to each other if there was something we didn’t understand and we read together”, while Jeevitha said “we worked together to become “level” on what we know. It made us understand the topic even better because we could think together”. Both these quotes can be said to indicate that the pupils themselves see the benefit of working together with someone and are able to utilise that benefit. Although the observations indicated that some pupils divided work between themselves and worked individually on different parts of the project, the pupils in the interview indicated they worked together for the most part, stating for example that “we kind of worked together on everything. So first we found all the information we needed, and then we wrote a short text to each of the images. [...] I felt like we agreed on everything and it was easier to do things together”. When working together it can be argued that pupils are helping each other through behaviour similar to scaffolding. In the model below (Figure 11) we can see how two interlocutors are working together, and as the more competent peer’s responsibilities diminish, the novice’s responsibility increases.

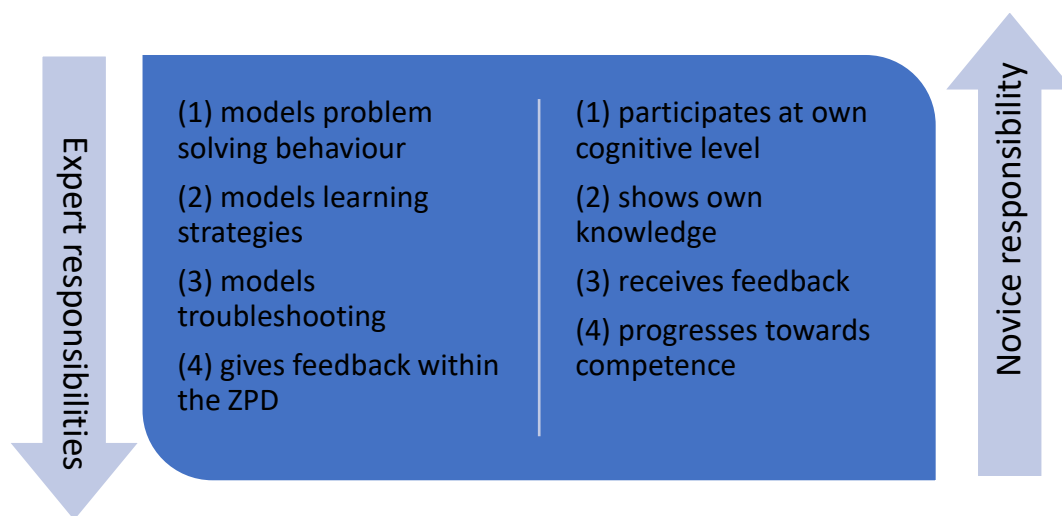


Figure 11 Instructional scaffolding, based on Daniels, 2001

Jeevitha talked about how they would negotiate when they disagreed on something during the project, stating that “there were times when we were a bit, like I thought something was important and she said something else was important [...]. Then we first read about what I thought was important, then what she thought, and then we managed to agree in the end”. This behaviour can be considered as pupils negotiating.

## 6 Discussion

In the following chapter I will discuss the findings from the data-gathering in relation to relevant theories and research within the field. In the discussion, I will attempt to answer the thesis question posed at the beginning of the paper.

1. *How can a flipped classroom methodology be used in the EFL classroom to help foster language awareness in the EFL classroom?*
2. *How can a flipped classroom approach to grammar teaching/instruction help learners become engaged with language?*

My understanding of a flipped classroom methodology was to use video creation technology and allow the pupils to create the videos. By doing this, the aim was to allow for a positive development in language awareness and to enhance the engagement with language that happens in the classroom.

### 6.1 The basic skills

In this chapter, I will look more closely at the findings related to the use of the basic skills; oral skills, reading, writing, and digital skills.

#### 6.1.1 Oral skills

The most obvious component of oral skills is the production of spoken language. For many pupils, speaking aloud in the classroom can be scary, in many cases because the pupils doubt their own oral skills. This was supported by the pupil Jakub, who said that “we can show what we actually know and not be embarrassed by speaking out loud in the classroom [...]”.

Similarly, it can be challenging as a teacher to find good opportunities to hear every pupils’ oral production in English. Using an approach in which the pupils create videos where they record their own voice gives the teacher a good source for listening to every pupil speaking aloud in a safe environment. Although the amount of output produced varied greatly, it is very valuable when assessing oral skills to have access to recordings that you as a teacher can listen to several times.

Prior to the project, I made it a requirement for the pupils to use English when they worked together. However, due to the difficulties associated with enforcing this requirement efficiently, I ended up only encouraging the use of English as a working language and would remind the pupils to speak English as often as made sense. The decision to not push the issue any further was a pragmatic choice made in the moment to allow pupils to work as efficiently

as possible and because I would have spent too many resources policing pupil language use rather than providing assistance and observing. As a result, some pupils used primarily English, some used a mix of English and Norwegian, and some used primarily Norwegian. The pupils had different views on the issue. The pupil Jeevitha stated that “when we were finding facts I thought it was easier to speak English because we were finding facts in English. It was in a way easier to talk English”. This is a pupil with a high L2 proficiency and she would have been able to communicate in English without much issue. On the other hand, Kari said that “we also spoke Norwegian, and like, you have this notion that you speak these languages with these people. So it’s a little bit awkward to start speaking a different language with someone”. Kari is similarly a pupil with a very high L2 proficiency and was working together with another very strong pupil, whereas Jeevitha was working with someone with a lower L2 level. The data does not give answers to the question of why some pupils spoke more English than others but considering the two examples above I believe the answer could be tied to what Kari said. On this project, she was working with a good friend, whereas Jeevitha was working together with a pupil with whom she did not have the same strong relationship.

The use of L1 in the EFL classroom is, however, a topic that has been the focus of much research. When the teacher allows pupils to use their L1 in the classroom it can in fact promote learning of the L2 (O’Cain & Liebscher, 2009). Similarly, Dagenais, Walsh, Armand and Maraillet (2008) found that the use of other languages in the classroom can lead to a greater understanding of language. The positives of using other languages in the EFL classroom is also supported by Woll (2018) and Ahn (2016), who also mentions codeswitching as a positive trait in the development of L2. According to this research, allowing the pupils to use the L1 when working on L2 issues can be positive for their L2 development. The consequences of this is that the teacher should consider the way oral skills are thought of in the classroom. Although measuring proficiency in oral skills must naturally be done through pupils’ L2 oral production, allowing pupils to use their L1 can have a positive effect on L2 learning, including oral skills.

#### 6.1.2 Reading

The reading that occurred in this project is mainly concerned with where the pupils went to gather information. As a primary source for information the pupils had access to their learners’ textbook, which contains detailed information about the different topics. If the pupils wanted to, they would have been able to rely solely on the information from this book. During

the observation I saw that most of the groups would use the book as a starting point for gathering information and for learning the basics of the topics they were working on. The pupils were observed employing a variety of different strategies for reading the texts but the most common methods were different reciprocal reading strategies in which the pupils read to each other. Reading aloud like this provides pupils with an excellent opportunity to scaffold for each other. Although the pairs were constructed in such a way so that everyone worked with someone close to their general language level, there were still varieties in skill level, as well as the fact that pupils have different competences. When the pupils are working together on a text and are talking about what they read they are doing what Swain and Lapkin (2002) call collaborative dialogue, which will assist in the construction of linguistic knowledge. We can also find support for this in Engin's (2014) theories about peer teaching, which state that there are several benefits to working together.

A problem the pupils encountered when working on the project was related to finding enough information. In the interviews, several pupils highlighted this as one of the biggest challenges they faced. As Johannes reflected "we didn't find a lot of information in the textbook, we found a bit, but not that much. And on the internet we found almost exactly the same as in the book. I am sure there is much more to find online, but we didn't find that much in the time we spent searching". This is interesting, considering as I stated previously, I considered the information in the learner's book to provide sufficient information for the videos. Coupled with another quote from Filip who said that "we found a lot of information, mostly in Basic Skills (textbook), but it was explained very well in the book, so we didn't know how to make it into our own sentences, but we managed in the end". Although the textbook does provide more information for some of the topics than others, the difference is not that substantial. The amount of information pupils is able to extract from a text is related to their reading skills, as well as to the strategies they use when reading. Jeevitha's group were observed using different reading strategies very effectively. Johannes and his partner on the other hand were one of the pairs observed to not read the text together or use reciprocal reading strategies. Considering here that the pupils were tasked not only with learning the information but with being able to use what they learned and explain that information with their own words, it is possible that the greater focus on properly reading and explicitly stating what they know makes this process easier.

### 6.1.3 Writing

During this project, the pupils wrote in a variety of ways from short analytic memos when learning new material to a script when making a storyboard for the videos and finally when making the videos, in the form of a multimodal text. Writing was found in all three sources of data; the observations, the interviews, and finally the videos.

The main finding in relation to this project regarding writing was how the pupils used writing as a tool for learning. Two pupils, Johannes and Jeevitha explained how they used writing when working on the project by saying that, “me and my partner, we wrote down everything we thought was important and after that we underlined and marked everything we wanted to say”, and “first we wrote down what we knew and then we talked about it. And then we wrote down explanations without looking in the book before we opened the book and tried to make sentences more professional so that we also learn a bit”.

Another aspect of writing was related to the storyboard the pupils used. The storyboards were used as a planning device to help the pupils better see the full picture in their videos and force the pupils to spend time planning out the entirety of their video before making it. Most of the groups worked properly on this, although there ultimately were differences between the planned product and the final product. As Jeevitha stated in the interviews when asked about the planning of the videos, “[...] and then we wrote it down (everything we knew). And then we started writing our storyboard and thinking about getting the information about the topic in the right order. That we first introduce what it is and the rules and such”. Being forced to make conscious decisions about the knowledge they possess in this way can support the metacognitive development in the pupils, as they will have to reflect on and plan the best way to structure their videos. When the pupils manage to also be mindful of the fact that these videos should be made for a specific target audience, their classmates, they exhibit critical thinking and self-reflection in line with Engin’s (2014) theories on peer-teaching. Evidence that the pupils were mindful of this aspect can also be found in the same quote from earlier,

where Jeevitha is clear on the fact that they thought about the order of information and that they had to introduce the concept first, before presenting rules (see figure 12 & 13).

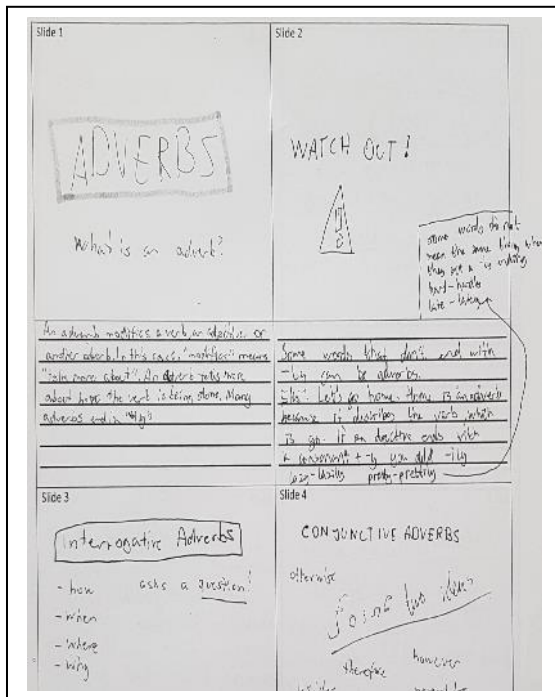


Figure 12 Example of storyboard on adverbs

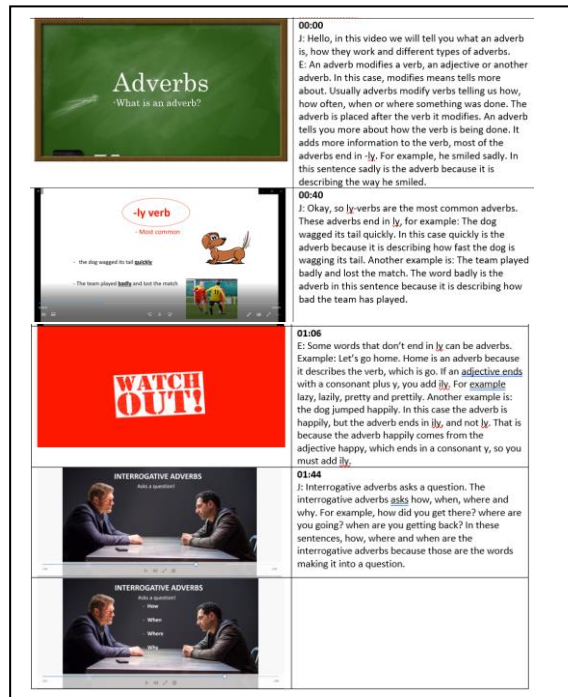


Figure 13 Example of video on adverbs

This can also be seen as an indication that the pupils experienced the writing as authentic, as they were writing for a purpose other than to be assessed by a teacher. This is, according to Sandvik (2012), something teachers should aim for when they design writing tasks in the classroom.

Additionally, the videos can be considered a multimodal text, as they are a combination of images and writing, which in this case has been read aloud. Although the actual writing in the videos was relatively limited in terms of word count, the total amount of writing including the scripts is significant. The pupils have to practice writing concisely and be precise, to avoid making videos that are too long. This again requires a great amount of knowledge about the topic. This is in line with the findings of Brox Larsen (2012) who found that when pupils produce texts digitally they can focus more on the communicative aspects of the text.

#### 6.1.4 Digital skills

One interesting finding in relation to the use of digital skills was how the pupils used the Internet to search for information on the topics. The observations revealed that the pupils used the internet extensively to search for information. A previously used quote from Johannes, originating from the interviews where he stated that, “We didn’t find a lot of information in

the textbook, we found a bit, but not that much. And on the Internet we found almost exactly the same as in the book. I am sure there is much more to find online, but we didn't find that much in the time we spent searching" is also relevant here. One digital skill required of pupils is that they should be able to use relevant digital tools in the search for information. However, like the other basic skills, this ability is not only a competence aim but also a tool for learning. What we can see here is that the necessary digital skills required to find information is lacking. Considering the topic of Johannes and his partner's video was "adverbs" we can assume that there is enough information online. As with reading skills, the digital skills, which in this situation reflect searching for relevant information online, are one that must be practiced if we want pupils to do well.

Additionally, digital skills were used extensively in the making of the videos. During the first round of the project, the pupils were free to choose the method they wanted to use to make the videos. Most of the pupils elected to use the program Photostory, which is well suited for making digital stories. A few groups also chose other methods, the most popular being to film themselves in front of a whiteboard and edit that together into a film. During the second round of the project, the pupils were taught how to use PowerPoint to make videos and were required to use that program. In the interviews, the pupils expressed preference towards using PowerPoint, and as the pupil Mia said: "It was very interesting learning how to use PowerPoint in different ways". This was supported by Jeevitha, who said: "I also think PowerPoint was a lot better than Photostory, so I thought it was very cool to work in PowerPoint". Overall, I also found that the videos from the second round of the project were significantly better than the videos from the first round. There could be several reasons for why this happened however and the pupils' preference for the software is only one of the possible reasons. Looking at the two quotes above we do find support for the idea that the program the pupils use is important. If they, like Mia said, find a program interesting to work with, while at the same time find the program they are learning to use relevant and interesting, it could lead to a more positive learning experience.

## 6.2 Language Awareness

Language awareness, when defined as knowledge about language, becomes vital to the learning and acquisition of a second language. In the following paragraphs, I will discuss the findings from my study in relation to the theories on language awareness and relevant research done on the field. I will look at how the pupils both show metalinguistic knowledge and argue for why this project can help develop metalinguistic knowledge in the pupils. I will



also look at how a sensitivity to, and knowledge about different language patterns can facilitate language learning.

#### 6.2.1 Metalinguistic knowledge

An important part of metalinguistic knowledge is the ability to discuss language using relevant terminology. This was observed frequently during the project, where pupils would talk to their learning partner or other pupils about the project they were working on. This was supported by the pupils in the interviews. As one pupil said in the interviews, “we worked together, like we explained the topic to each other if we didn’t understand it and we read it together. It was beneficial to work like this because sometimes you misunderstand something, but if you are two you can see both sides”. Although the words the pupils used were not always the same words that are mentioned in relevant theory or research on the topic the act of talking about language in this way is indicative of metalinguistic knowledge. If we use the quote from above as an example, the pupil speaking here could mention that their problems of misunderstanding relate to the syntax or semantics of their topic. The fact that she does not however does not mean that this is not metalinguistic knowledge.

The same issue with metalinguistic knowledge can be found in the videos themselves. In the videos, the pupils talk about and present various grammatical topics. The example on adverbs gives a good illustration of pupils presenting their metalinguistic knowledge about a topic: “An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb. In this case, modifies means tells more about. Usually adverbs modify verbs telling us how, how often, when or where something was done. The adverb is placed after the verb it modifies [...]” In this video, the pupil Johannes exhibits a clear declarative knowledge about language and the relationship between his topic and other related topics. He uses several words that can be considered to be technical terms for pupils at this level, such as the word “modify”. It is therefore interesting that he decided to explain the word in the video. This shows metalinguistic awareness in terms of being aware of the communicative situation. Furthermore, it shows that the pupil has understood the situation and can be an indication that he sees the situation as authentic.

Another interesting find in terms of pupils’ metalinguistic knowledge was a quote from Jeevitha who was explaining the concept of prefixes and suffixes. In her explanation, she runs into a problem of explaining the use of a suffix. “[...] the third example is: my sibling is very childish. So in the third example the word -ish means, [short pause] childish means to act like a child”. What is interesting about this example is that the pupil is able to give the correct

information on what the word “childish” means, but struggles to properly explain the meaning of the suffix “-ish”. The correct explanation would be to say that the suffix -ish means to have the characteristics of. This is, however indirectly explained by Jeevitha in her explanation. Although the explanation is lacking in terms of using the correct terminology, she has still exhibited metalinguistic knowledge.

In the interviews the pupils talked about how their existing knowledge in their L1 on the topics they were working on influenced their work on this project. These findings from the interviews were supported by findings from the observations, where pupils discussed the difference between their topic in English and in Norwegian. This was seen as a positive feature of the language classroom, a view which is supported by Dagenais et al. (2008) who argue that the use of different language resources in the EFL classroom can lead to an increase in knowledge about language.

The use of the L1 in the L2 classroom is a topic, which has been thoroughly researched and although it was unintentional from the beginning of this project, the use of L1 was permitted during the project. The pupils’ use of the L1 was observed and talked about in the interviews, as one pupil stated when asked about previous knowledge about a topic “[...] I knew that you are not supposed to have quotation marks before it, but it has been a while since we learned about it”. This is an example of declarative knowledge that the pupil is able to draw on in the L2 learning process but it can also be assumed that when pupils are allowed to use the L1 they will also draw on subconscious knowledge about their L1. Furthermore, the use of L1 in the L2 classroom can help pupils develop codeswitching abilities, which is beneficial when it comes to language learning.

#### 6.2.2 Language patterns

The pupils’ ability to be aware of how different patterns of language are used in different contexts is an important aspect of the language learning process. In the data from this study the pupils reflected on how they were aware of the words and phrases they used in their videos considering the communicative situation. As the pupil Hans stated “we used an easier language, and not a lot of difficult words”, when asked if they had thought about the intended audience of their videos. This is indicative of language awareness on a semantic level. Similar discoveries were made regarding the syntactic level where the pupils were aware of the need to change sentences so that the information was easier to understand. The ability to discuss

and reflect on language patterns is an important skill in language learning. Through this project the pupils have practiced this skill, which in turn can help foster language acquisition.

The pupils also showed a lot of concern over the language patterns related to pragmatics and discourse. Several pupils highlighted this as a topic they had thought about, as Johannes said in the interviews, “We had to make it easy to understand, we couldn’t overcomplicate things”. This was also supported by the observations of pupils spending time talking about how they could explain their topics in an easy and understandable way. This shows a clear awareness on the pupils’ part and the work that they put into finding and explaining topics in a clear and concise fashion can be beneficial for their language awareness development.

At the same time, one pupil stated in the interviews that “I would have preferred if you just taught us the subject, because you know what is important and you use the right words for it so we understand it”. This pupil is worried about his own and his classmates’ lack of language awareness and awareness of language patterns and that this can have a negative impact on their learning. Although I would argue that the positives of this approach to grammar learning outweigh the potentially negative aspect mentioned here, it could be an indication that you need to be mindful of which language topics the pupils work on.

In the videos, the pupils showed varying levels of awareness of language patterns when it comes to varying levels of formality. Three videos were analysed more thoroughly and they are examples of three different levels of formal language. It is interesting that that the pupils were conscious of the communicate situation and the audience of the videos, but still chose different approaches to solving the task. In video 3, the pupils use an informal language and address the viewer directly. The way the pupils greet the viewer by saying “Hello, and welcome to our fantastic video on prefixes and suffixes. It’s going to be fun [...]”. Can be considered a form of language play as the pupils are having fun with language. This can be considered to be positive for the development of language awareness.

### 6.3 Engagement With Language

One of the main findings from the data material was related to the level of engagement shown by the pupils. The findings spanned across all three data sources; the observations, the interviews, and the videos, and as such provided interesting and relevant data on the topic question. The findings from this category were again divided into three sub-categories; cognitively engaged with learning, affectively engaged with learning, and socially engaged

with learning. These categories are the same as the areas of language engagement identified by Svalberg.

### 6.3.1 Cognitively engaged

A goal of this project was to make sure the pupils were cognitively engaged with language, i.e. that they paid focused attention, were alert, and constructed their own knowledge. In relation to the first criteria - paying focused attention - it became clear when observing the pupils that they fell into one of three categories. These categories were; pupils who were focused on language throughout the project, pupils who had a high degree of focus at the beginning of the project but who failed to maintain the same level of focus throughout, and the final group of the pupils who failed to focus properly on language throughout the project. Although I did not observe noteworthy changes in the pupils' level of focus, it is interesting to view these findings in relation to the research of Liu, Wang, and Tai (2016). In their study, they observed that pupils went through phases of engagement and that engagement wavered as pupils encountered problems related to digital technology. Challenges relating to technology were also observed in my study, but pupils used software they were already familiar with which proved to be beneficial in terms of eliminating these problems. Rather than encountering problems and losing engagement, it seems that the pupils had positive experiences with discovering new functions and opportunities in familiar software. As noted by two pupils, "It was very interesting to use PowerPoint in different ways", and "I also think PowerPoint was a lot better than Photostory, so I thought it was very cool to work in PowerPoint". These findings could be indicative of the importance of using software the pupils are familiar with and the importance of repeating the activities so that the pupils can use what they learn.

In my research, I performed two cycles of the project, allowing the pupils to in total create two videos. During the first cycle, the pupils were allowed to use the software they wanted to use and many decided on using Photostory, a program they were familiar with from another setting. In the second cycle of the project, all pupils had to use PowerPoint. It would have been interesting to see if a third cycle of videos, also using PowerPoint would have made an even bigger difference in terms of quality and in terms of engagement from the pupils. In this regard, it is important to consider the findings from Qiu and Lo (2016) who found that repetition of similar tasks can lead to a negative effect on engagement. However, although their study does not give definitive answers as to why this happens, their findings indicate that familiarity with content and task type leads to more effective strategies and in turn less

behaviour typical of highly engaged pupils, such as self-repair of utterances. In my study, I did not observe a negative development on pupils’ cognitive engagement.

Another interesting find in relation to engagement with language was discovered in the interviews. The pupils were asked about challenges they faced during this project. Their answers hinted towards a cognitive engagement with language where the pupils were reflective of their own work and made conscious choices when it comes to constructing their own knowledge. As one pupil stated: “we were slightly worried about our content, if we had enough information and if what we wrote was understandable and if pupils could understand it”. It is clear that the pupils were not interested in only repeating and “showing” information, but rather to transform the information they had become experts on into something that everyone could understand. If we look at how this manifested itself in the videos, we see that in some of the videos the pupils use a process of explaining a concept, giving examples, and then explaining the example to make the subject matter more understandable to the intended recipient of the videos.

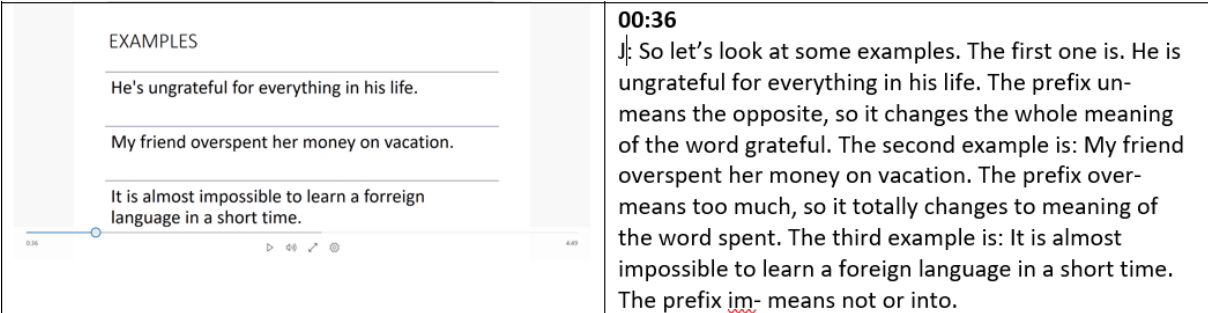


Figure 14 Screenshot of video with transcribed audio

In the screenshot and transcribed material above (Figure 14) we can see that the pupil Jeevitha gives an example, which is supported by the text on the screen: “He is ungrateful for everything in his life”. She then follows this example up with an explanation of this example, “The prefix un- means the opposite, so it changes the whole meaning of the word grateful”. These findings indicate that the pupils were cognitively engaged with language as described by Svalberg (2009) – they are reflective of their language use and how it is perceived as well as analytical about their own language use.

Another part of being cognitively engaged with language is to be focused on the language as the object or what Swain refers to as “languaging”. Although languaging is typically seen as a process between a teacher and a learner, McNeil (2017) argues that the interaction between two pupils can also be viable. This is important for my study as the pupils were engaged in

various languaging activities throughout the project through talking about language and paying focused attention to the language as an object. This in turn can facilitate a higher cognitive engagement.

### 6.3.2 Affectively engaged

During the interviews, it became clear that the pupils enjoyed working on the videos and highlighted the fact that working together with a peer was a major factor. As one pupil put it plainly, “It was a fun way to work, to cooperate with other people”. This positive attitude towards the work they were doing translates into positive attitudes towards the target of the work – the language. Having a positive attitude towards language is a central component of being affectively engaged with language.

This finding is in line with the findings of Aycicek and Yelken (2018) who found a positive correlation between engagement and a flipped classroom approach as the approach gives more opportunities for peer interaction. Although my study takes a different approach to the flipped classroom, the increased peer interaction of my project is similar to that of a flipped classroom. This can then lead to a positive attitude towards the work and also towards the language they are working with.

Another aspect of being affectively engaged with language is to have a purposeful attitude towards language. This finding was supported by both the observations and the interviews. In the interviews, one pupil stated that “both me and my partner wanted to do the task properly, and I think we did a good job”. This was also supported by the findings that pupils gave each other homework to do between classes, which also hints towards the final aspect of being affectively engaged with language, to have an autonomous disposition towards learning. This was also supported through the interviews, where pupils explained the ways they had gone about learning their topic. When asked about the strategies they used it was clear that the pupils had an interest in doing more than the minimum in order to complete the task.

### 6.3.3 Socially engaged

Several of the interview participants talked about being socially engaged with language. Two clear examples from the data material are “we worked together to become ‘level’ on what we know. It made us understand the topic even better because we could think together”, and “we worked together a lot of the time, like we explained to each other if there was something we didn’t understand and we read together”.

In the planning stages of the project I attempted to create learning pairs that would work as effectively as possible, matching pupils together with pupils that I, based on my existing knowledge of the pupils, believed would be a good match. In accordance with Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss and Kim (2016) pupils who have established a positive social relationship with the peer they are working with are more likely to engage with language. Although some of the learning pairs were seen to divide work between themselves and work individually on different parts of the videos, most groups appeared to work together and were socially engaged with language throughout the project. It is interesting then to look at the pupils who were positive towards working together and who displayed socially engaged behaviour. The two quotes above are made by two pupils who worked together on one of the videos, but who were interviewed in different groups. This gives us an indication of how the cooperation worked within their learning pair. The first quote is given by Hans after the first iteration of the project. During this project, Hans worked with Mia who he considers to be a friend and someone he works well with. Both Hans and Mia are pupils who, in my previous description of pupils, are classified as pupils at grade level 5 or 6. However, they have both previously exhibited signs of “doing the bare minimum” when working on language focused tasks, as they often find the tasks to be too simple. Considering the nature of this task, where language is the focus, it is possible that these pupils would have elected to make a low effort. However, this did not end up being the case, which can be considered to support the findings from Beralt et al. (2016).

The same quotes can also be used in relation to the findings from Green, Inan, and Maushak (2014), who found that pupils benefited from collaboration in video-creation projects. Working together in projects like these gives pupils a shared responsibility, which can help foster cooperation. When describing a situation where they work together to solve authentic tasks in learning about a topic, pupils also have many opportunities for authentic discourse, which can be beneficial. Additionally, Green, et al. (2014) observed several instances of pupils correcting each other when working on the videos. Although I did not, in this study, observe pupils correcting each other, there were instances of pupils scaffolding for each other, as well as pupils actively discussing language. One example came from the pupil Jeevitha, working together with Elira, who said in the interviews that “we kind of worked together on everything. So first we found all the information we needed, and then we wrote a short text to each of the images. [...] I felt like we agreed on everything and it was easier to do things together. The example above is one example of pupils being socially engaged with language.

## 7 Conclusion

This chapter will present a summary of the findings from this master's thesis as well as my own concluding remarks. Finally, I will discuss the study's limitations and potential further research on the topic.

### 7.1 Summary of findings

The purpose of this study was to explore the rationale for using an approach to grammar learning where pupils were tasked with producing grammar videos. Furthermore, I wanted to see if this approach could lead to a positive development in language awareness and engagement with language. The findings in this study seem to support the use of student-made grammar videos as a useful tool for teaching grammar. Furthermore, the findings also indicate that this approach can help foster language awareness in the EFL classroom and make learners engaged with language.

To find the answer to these questions I chose to use a design-based research approach, where I designed a project task that would be used in a class of 9<sup>th</sup> grade pupils in a Norwegian school. Data was collected from three different sources; observations of the classroom during project work, focus-group interviews with pupils after project completion, and a document analysis of the videos. After this data was analysed, I designed a new project task and performed a second cycle of the project, using what I had learned from the analysis of the first project, to make changes I believed could make the project better facilitated for grammar learning, language awareness, and engagement with language. After the second cycle of the project, data was again gathered from the same three sources as after the first cycle of the project.

The observations yielded several interesting remarks on what had taken place during the project work and first and foremost gave me topics of interest to enquire about during the interviews. The observations also provided interesting data that would be used to corroborate findings from the other sources. The interviews provided a rich source of data, where 15 pupils were interviewed across four group interviews. During the interviews, the pupils were given the opportunity to reflect on the project they had worked on as well as choices they had made during the project. The videos were gathered as the last source of data. Although all videos were transcribed, only three videos were thoroughly analysed as part of this study. These videos provided an insight into what the pupils were able to produce and what knowledge they possessed at the end of the project. Although the learning potential of this



approach to learning grammar has not been analysed, it is still possible to analyse the videos in terms of the choices the pupils have made and the knowledge they display.

One of the main findings from the project was that the pupils appeared to be engaged with language as they worked on this project. From the findings, we can see that the pupils were cognitively, affectively, and socially engaged with learning. Interestingly, the categories cognitively engaged and socially engaged were more prevalent and provided the most salient categories.

That the pupils were cognitively engaged with learning was seen in the data that showed that pupils were alert, focused, reflecting, and analytical. These criteria are in line with Svalberg's (2009) theories on engagement with language. One of the most interesting findings which lends credence to this approach as a tool for learning language, was how pupils appeared to want to go beyond just explaining information and that they had a desire to construct their own knowledge. This appeared in the data material as pupils worked hard on finding various sources to support the information they gave in the data. They also discussed this issue in the interviews, where it became clear that they wished to go beyond repetition of the material. Although it is challenging to verify how much of the information from the videos is constructed by the pupils and how much is copied from various sources on the internet, the two other sources of data support the general impression that the knowledge is constructed by the pupils. This is an interesting and important finding as much of the work that is done on grammar teaching in school today follows a rather formulaic approach where pupils learn a rule and work on tasks where they are tested on the practical application of the rule. This approach does not force pupils to actively engage with the language and think thoroughly through what they are doing, and although they could have completed this project without higher cognitive engagement it appears that they in fact did engage cognitively with language.

That pupils were socially engaged with language was seen in the data that the pupils were interactive and initiating while working on the project. These criteria are also in line with Svalberg's (2009) definition of the concept. It became clear throughout the project that pupils were enjoying the interactive element of the assignment, something that was supported by the pupils in the interviews. The fact that the pupils enjoyed the cooperative element of the project made it easier for them to remain socially engaged, but it also made it easier to exhibit positive social engagement. That pupils are supporting each other through the work is an important part of working together as peers and evidence of peer-interaction and scaffolding was found in the data.

Because the social element of the project was so strong it was difficult to draw the line between what was social engagement and what was affective engagement, which can be one explanation for why affective engagement featured to a lesser degree than the other categories. It was apparent that the pupils were affectively engaged with language, but much of the positive and purposeful disposition that the pupils exhibited was tied directly to their social engagement. In her 2009 article on engagement with language, Svalberg asks the question if it is possible to be engaged with language without exhibiting all the traits of engagement with language and whether some are required and other are optional. In this project, the pupils were cognitively, affectively, and socially engaged with language, but some categories seemed to take primacy over others.

Another main finding was that using student-made videos in grammar teaching can lead to greater language awareness in pupils. In my data, I divided this category into two sub-categories – metalinguistic knowledge and language patterns. My findings seem to support the idea that making grammar videos can help facilitate metalinguistic knowledge development in pupils. In relation to the findings, I would argue that the pupils showed signs of using their metalinguistic knowledge as a tool for acquiring knowledge. This is shown through all three sources of data, as pupils were observed engaging in activities that require metalinguistic knowledge, as well as talking about and reflecting on these issues in the interviews. Finally, they showed their metalinguistic knowledge in the videos in how they chose to present relevant information.

The pupils displayed knowledge of language patterns also supporting the notion that this project can help facilitate language awareness. Pupils were required to be aware of the communicative context they were working within. Being aware of this communicative context and how language can differ based on these contexts is an important skill within language awareness.

However, in terms of answering whether or not the project has led to a development in language awareness the study does not provide clear answers. As no account was made of the pupils existing language awareness and metalinguistic knowledge it is not possible to conclude whether these aspects have improved. Based on the project design and the evidence of language awareness in the data we can assume that the pupils have developed their language awareness, however this could be the focus of a different study with a similar premise.

Finally, an important finding from the data related to the use of the pupils first language in the EFL classroom. The use of the pupils' L1 was observed early on in the project and was later a topic for discussion in the interviews, where the pupils had different thoughts relating to this issue. A majority of pupils would use their L1 when working on grammatical forms in English. Although I had made it a requirement to use English as much as possible, I did not follow through with this as I observed that the pupils were working effectively and seemed to be engaged with the language nonetheless. This is something I expected to be an issue when starting this project, but I did not expect it to be as consequential as it turned out to be.

The use of the L1 in the EFL classroom, I found, was a field of study with a lot of relevant research. The research on the field seems to support the argument that allowing pupils to use their L1 when learning a foreign language is beneficial as it can lead to an improvement in language awareness through allowing pupils to see connections between concepts in different languages. This was supported by pupils who were aware of grammatical concepts in Norwegian and how they related to their English counterparts.

The research also calls for teachers to be aware of the potential in using the L1 in EFL classrooms, and that the teacher should not only model the L2, but also model the codeswitching that happens when you use both languages in one conversation. I believe this is something several teachers do subconsciously and that there could be benefits if you are aware of the consequences and make educated decisions on when to use the L1 and when to use the L2.

In conclusion, I argue that there is much to be gained in EFL classrooms by joining the development that is happening within digital technology research and education. One of those ways could be to adapt a form of flipped teaching, which allows for a more student-focused approach to what happens in the classroom. Furthermore, I believe that the approach I have explored in this paper has benefits to language learning outside of the grammar learning I explored, as the improved language awareness and engagement with language the pupils experienced can carry over and lead to improved language learning in the future. Finally, I believe that language teachers need to be aware of the potential surrounding the use of L1 in the L2 classroom and its implications for developing language awareness and higher metalinguistic skills.

## 7.2 Study limitations and further research

The qualitative approach I have employed in this study is useful for studying new phenomena and subjects that have not been the focus of extensive research. However, qualitative research is not without weaknesses, one of which being that the research is subjective and relies too much on the researcher's point of view. Furthermore, a qualitative study can be lacking in transparency if the steps and choices the researcher made are not conveyed clearly enough. Finally, qualitative research can be difficult to replicate as the researcher is an important factor in the research and repeating the research with a different researcher in a different setting might give different results. This can be considered especially true for educational research as no two classes and no two pupils are the same. I have attempted to address the issues mentioned above by being as transparent as I can with my research while keeping my research objects anonymous.

My study consists of two iterations of the project conducted in one class. Because of resources and time, it was not feasible to extend the project to include other classes or more iterations. However, this would have yielded more data, which would have been beneficial to the overall generalisability and validity of the project.

Additionally, the study's findings could be considered to be more generalisable had I employed a mixed methods approach. This is in line with the recommendations of Sato and Ballinger (2012), who call for more diverse research on language awareness. Furthermore, using a mixed method approach for this study could have allowed me to look more closely at questions relating to the effectiveness of this project. As my study is purely qualitative, I have not attempted to explore how much the pupils have learned, or if this approach to learning is better than other approaches. This would require a quantitative approach, a quasi-experimental design, and a measurement of the pupils' knowledge before and after the project (pre- and post-tests). In order to see if the findings are relevant you would also need a control group to compare these results with. However, this was outside of the scope of my study. I do, however, feel confident that my choice of method was the right one, as it felt necessary to explore this topic through a qualitative lens before possibly embarking on a project to discover what the pupils have learned - if they indeed have.

Studies seeking to further explore the topic I have looked into in this paper could benefit from looking at the learning potential using a quantitative approach as explained above. I also believe that it would be very relevant to test this approach to language learning at different

levels in the school system to see if younger or older pupils can benefit from this approach as well. It would also be beneficial to conduct more iterations of the project. I learned much from the first iteration, and even more after the second. One such topic that would be interesting to explore is to what degree the choice of grammatical term to focus on plays a part. Additionally, there is requirement for this approach to language learning to focus on grammar teaching and new research could approach other elements of EFL teaching to explore if the approach has merit there as well.

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# Appendix 1 Research permit from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD)



Fredrik Mørk Røkenes

7491 TRONDHEIM

Vår dato: 20.02.2018

Vår ref: 58805 / 3 / OOS

Deres dato:

Deres ref:

## Vurdering fra NSD Personvernombudet for forskning § 31

Personvernombudet for forskning viser til meldeskjema mottatt 30.01.2018 for prosjektet:

<i>58805</i>	<i>Flipping the flip: A qualitative study on lower-secondary school students' video creation in English language teaching</i>
<i>Behandlingsansvarlig</i>	<i>NTNU, ved institusjonens øverste leder</i>
<i>Daglig ansvarlig</i>	<i>Fredrik Mørk Røkenes</i>
<i>Student</i>	<i>Even Christoffersen</i>

### Vurdering

Etter gjennomgang av opplysningene i meldeskjemaet og øvrig dokumentasjon finner vi at prosjektet er meldepliktig og at personopplysningene som blir samlet inn i dette prosjektet er regulert av personopplysningsloven § 31. På den neste siden er vår vurdering av prosjektopplegget slik det er meldt til oss. Du kan nå gå i gang med å behandle personopplysninger.

### Vilkår for vår anbefaling

Vår anbefaling forutsetter at du gjennomfører prosjektet i tråd med:

- opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet og øvrig dokumentasjon
- vår prosjektvurdering, se side 2
- eventuell korrespondanse med oss

Vi forutsetter at du ikke innhenter sensitive personopplysninger.

### Meld fra hvis du gjør vesentlige endringer i prosjektet

Dersom prosjektet endrer seg, kan det være nødvendig å sende inn endringsmelding. På våre nettsider finner du svar på hvilke [endringer](#) du må melde, samt endringskjema.

### Opplysninger om prosjektet blir lagt ut på våre nettsider og i Meldingsarkivet

Vi har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet på nettsidene våre. Alle våre institusjoner har også tilgang til egne prosjekter i [Meldingsarkivet](#).

### Vi tar kontakt om status for behandling av personopplysninger ved prosjektslutt

*Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.*

Ved prosjektslutt 31.12.2018 vil vi ta kontakt for å avklare status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Se våre nettsider eller ta kontakt dersom du har spørsmål. Vi ønsker lykke til med prosjektet!

Dag Kiberg

Øyvind Straume

Kontaktperson: Øyvind Straume tlf: 55 58 21 88 / [Oyvind.Straume@nsd.no](mailto:Oyvind.Straume@nsd.no)

Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

Kopi: Even Christoffersen, [even.christoffersen@gmail.com](mailto:even.christoffersen@gmail.com)



#### INFORMASJON OG SAMTYKKE

Utvalget er elver i 9. klasse. Du har opplyst i meldeskjema at foreldrene til utvalget vil motta skriftlig informasjon om prosjektet, og samtykke skriftlig til å delta. Vår vurdering er at informasjonsskrivet til utvalget er godt utformet, og vi har ingen innvendinger til dette. Personvernombudet presiserer at selv om barnets foresatte samtykker til barnets deltakelse i prosjektet, må også barnet gi sin aksept til å delta. Du må sørge for at barnet forstår at deltakelse er frivillig, og at det kan trekke seg om det ønsker det.

#### OBSERVASJON I KLASSEROMMET

Studien innebærer at student/forsker observerer i en klassesstime. Personvernombudet forutsetter at det ikke behandles data om de elevene der foreldrene ikke har samtykket til deltakelse i studien.

#### INFORMASJONSSIKKERHET

NTNU er behandlingsansvarlig institusjon for prosjektet. Personvernombudet forutsetter at du behandler alle data i tråd med NTNU sine retningslinjer for datahåndtering og informasjonssikkerhet. Vi legger til grunn at bruk av privat pc er i samsvar med institusjonens retningslinjer.

#### PROSJEKTSLUTT

Prosjektslutt er oppgitt til 31.12.2018. Det fremgår av meldeskjema at du vil anonymisere datamaterialet ved prosjektslutt. Personvernombudet gjør oppmerksom på at anonymisering innebærer å:

- slette direkte identifiserbare opplysninger som nav
- slette eller omskrive/gruppere eventuelle indirekte identifiserbare opplysninger som skole, alder, kjønn

For en utdypende beskrivelse av anonymisering av personopplysninger, se Datatilsynets veileder:

<https://www.datatilsynet.no/globalassets/global/regelverk-skjema/veiledere/anonymisering-veileder-041115.pdf>



## **Forespørsel om deltakelse i forskningsprosjektet**

### ***”Flipping the flip: A qualitative study on lower-secondary school students’ video creation in English language teaching”***

#### **Bakgrunn og formål**

I et samfunn i stadig endring er det viktig at undervisningsmetodene vi benytter oss av gjenspeiler den teknologiske utviklingen. Omvendt undervisning er en undervisningsmetode hvor man tar i bruk videoteknologi for å gi elevene økt tilgang til undervisningsmaterialet, samtidig som det frigjør tid i klasserommet til mer interaksjon mellom lærer og elev.

Jeg skriver en mastergrad hvor formålet er å omvendt undervisning i engelskfaget i ungdomsskolen. Mastergraden gjennomføres ved Institutt for Lærerutdanning, NTNU, masterprogram Fag- og yrkesdidaktikk og lærerprofesjon – studieretning engelsk og fremmedspråk.

Elevene forespørres å delta i denne undersøkelsen i egenskap av å være elever på 9.trinn på Haugenstua Skole.

#### **Hva innebærer deltakelse i studien?**

Jeg som forsker vil i løpet av vårterminen 2018 samle inn data over to fireukersperioder. Dataen som samles inn vil være observasjon av arbeid i undervisningstime, to elevproduserte videoer, og et gruppeintervju med utvalgte elever. Datainnsamlingen vil kun foregå i engelskundervisningen, og alle elevene vil gjennomføre den samme undervisningen uavhengig av deres deltagelse i prosjektet.

Gruppeintervjuet vil handle om elevenes egne refleksjoner og tanker rundt undervisningsopplegget. Under intervjuene vil det bli brukt utstyr for lydopptak og intervjuene vil transkriberes for bruk i forskningen. Lydopptaket vil så slettes.

Foresatte kan om ønskelig få fullt innsyn i intervjuguiden.

#### **Hva skjer med informasjonen om eleven?**

Alle personopplysninger vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Tilgang til personopplysninger er begrenset til forsker og eventuelt dennes veileder ved NTNU. Lydopptak slettes etter transkribering. Intervjuene vil gjennomføres uten at navn på deltagere nevnes. I situasjoner der navn blir nevnt vil disse ikke transkriberes. Det vil ikke bli opprettet noen navnelister i prosjektet som lagres sammen med transkriberte data.

Mastergradstudien vil være anonymisert ved publisering; fiktive navn vil benyttes for skole/deltagere.

Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes mai/juni 2018. Datamaterialet og de anonymiserte transkriberte intervjuene vil oppbevares på forskeres passordbeskyttede datamaskin frem til prosjektslutt, høst 2018 og sluttvurdering foreligger. På dette tidspunktet vil alt oppbevart datamateriale slettes.

#### **Frivillig deltakelse**

Det er frivillig å delta i studien, og dere kan når som helst trekke deres samtykke uten å oppgi noen grunn. Dersom dere trekker samtykket, vil alle opplysninger om eleven bli anonymisert og det vil ikke samles inn mer informasjon om eleven. Dersom dere trekker dere eller ikke ønsker å delta i studien vil det ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for vurdering i faget.

Dersom du ønsker å delta eller har spørsmål til studien, ta kontakt med Even Christoffersen, telefon (+47) 992 34 759. Veileder for prosjektet er Fredrik Mørk Røkenes, førsteamanuensis ved institutt for lærerutdanning, NTNU, telefon (+47) 735 98 148, postadresse Jonsvannsveien 82, C451, Trondheim, NTNU Moholt

Studien er meldt til Personvernombudet for forskning, NSD - Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS.

Klipp her .....

## Samtykke til deltakelse i studien

Jeg har mottatt informasjon om studien, og gir tillatelse til at mitt barn deltar:

Elevens navn: \_\_\_\_\_

Foresattes underskrift: \_\_\_\_\_ /Dato: \_\_\_\_\_

Samtykke kan også gis elektronisk, via ~~sms~~ eller e-post til [even.christoffersen@gmail.com](mailto:even.christoffersen@gmail.com) eller [even.christoffersen@osloskolen.no](mailto:even.christoffersen@osloskolen.no)

## Appendix 3 Interview guide

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### Intervjuguide:

1. Hva synes dere om denne måten å jobbe med grammatikk på?
2. Var dere kjent med arbeidsmetoden før?
3. Hvordan jobbet dere med prosjektet?
  - a. Forskjellige faser
  - b. Jobbet dere hjemme?
  - c. Hvorfor gjorde dere de valgene dere gjorde?
4. Hvordan fungerte samarbeidet?
  - a. På engelsk
  - b. På norsk
5. Hvilke utfordringer møtte dere på i løpet av arbeidet?
  - a. Tekniske
  - b. Faglige
  - c. Hadde dere brukt det verktøyet dere brukte for å lage video før?
6. Hva tenkte dere om tiden dere hadde tilgjengelig for å gjennomføre prosjektet?
7. Hvor godt føler dere at dere kan temaet dere jobbet med å lage video om?
8. Hvor godt føler dere at dere kan temaet i videoen dere ga tilbakemelding på?

## Appendix 4 Approval from school administration

**Masterprosjekt engelsk** 📎 2 ✓ 🗒


**TN** Tone S. Nordstrøm <Tone.Nordstrom@ude.oslo.kommune.no> 👍 ↶ ↷ → ⋮

fr. 26.01.2018 16:23  
Even Christoffersen ✓

Hei Even  
Jeg godkjenner at du innhenter datamateriale på Haugenstua skole under forutsetning av godkjenning fra foresatte.

Lykke til!

Med vennlig hilsen  
**Tone S. Nordstrøm**  
rektor



**Haugenstua skole** | Oslo kommune  
Smiuveien 257, 0982 OSLO  
Tlf. 23 34 44 50/91 68 90 69

⋮

## Appendix 5 Hallmarks for achievement in English, my translation.

Grades 1 and 2	Grades 3 and 4	Grades 5 and 6
The pupil finds information in texts about familiar topics and can extract content and list some sources.	The pupil finds information in different types of texts about familiar topics and can extract both main content and details, as well as list the sources that are used.	The pupil can find information from a broad selection of texts on different topics and can extract both the main content and relevant details, as well as list sources in a verifiable way.
The pupil can write, shape and change their own text based on feedback on content, structure and language.	The pupil can plan, write and expand on content and revise their own text based on feedback and some own knowledge about content, structure and language.	The pupil can plan, write, develop and revise their own text based on feedback and good knowledge and experience on content, structure and language.

Grades 1 and 2	Grades 3 and 4	Grades 5 and 6
The pupil participates to some degree in conversations on relevant subject- and literary-topics and can to some degree adapt their language to the communicative situation.	The pupil can receive and give feedback in conversations on relevant subject- and literary topics and can adapt their language to the communicative situation.	The pupil can participate constructively in conversations and can convey relevant subject- and literary topics in an independent fashion and can adapt their language to the communicative situation.
The pupil participates in conversations with relevant content and their own opinions.	The pupil employs strategies for continuing conversations and can explain and go in depth on topics.	The pupil uses appropriate strategies for continuing conversations, and can explain, go in depth and add additional information to comments from other pupils.

## Appendix 6 The task instruction for second iteration

### Grammarvideo

You will make an instructional video on a grammatical topic. You will work in pairs and we will work on the videos every English lesson for this period.

You will use PowerPoint to make your video, see the included instruction and watch the video on [it's learning](#) for tips and instructions on how to make videos in PowerPoint.

#### **Important dates:**

- Thursday 12/4, deadline for submitting storyboard (for students not in Netherlands)
- Thursday 19/4, deadline for submitting storyboard (for students in Netherlands)
- Thursday 26/4, absolute deadline for submitting video
- Thursday 3/5, deadline for giving feedback on videos

Most groups will finish and submit their videos before the deadline. When you finish your [video](#) you will start working towards the mid-term.

#### **Formal requirements:**

- You plan your video using a storyboard and hand in your storyboard
- You must explain the grammatical concept
- You must give (and explain) examples
- You speak English at all times
- Your video is at least one minute long

#### **Tips for the video:**




- Use the feedback you got from last time to improve your video.
- Think about the timing, speak slowly.
- Use intonation when you speak (vary your voice)
- Try to explain few examples in-depth, instead of listing many examples.


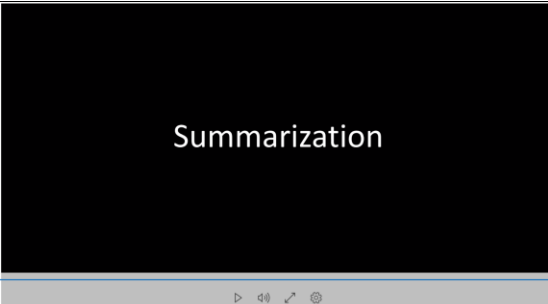
#### **Groups:**

Topic	Group
<i>Indirect speech</i>	
<i>Adverbs</i>	
<i>Past continuous</i>	
<i>Prefixes and suffixes</i>	
Indirect speech	
Adverbs	
Past continuous	
Prefixes and suffixes	
Indirect speech	
Adverbs	
Past continuous	
Prefixes and suffixes	
Adverbs	
Indirect speech	

## Appendix 7 Three transcribed videos


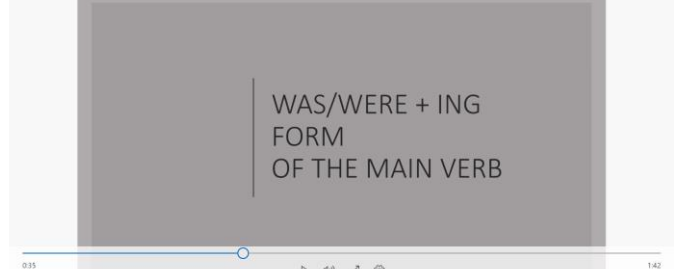
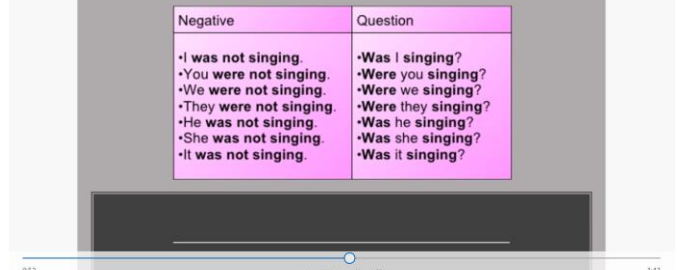

Video 1:

Screenshot	Transcription
	<p><b>00:00</b></p> <p>J: Hello, in this video we will tell you what an adverb is, how they work and different types of adverbs.</p> <p>E: An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb. In this case, modifies means tells more about. Usually adverbs modify verbs telling us how, how often, when or where something was done. The adverb is placed after the verb it modifies. An adverb tells you more about how the verb is being done. It adds more information to the verb, most of the adverbs end in -ly. For example, he smiled sadly. In this sentence sadly is the adverb because it is describing the way he smiled.</p>
	<p><b>00:40</b></p> <p>J: Okay, so ly-verbs are the most common adverbs. These adverbs end in ly, for example: The dog wagged its tail quickly. In this case quickly is the adverb because it is describing how fast the dog is wagging its tail. Another example is: The team played badly and lost the match. The word badly is the adverb in this sentence because it is describing how bad the team has played.</p>
	<p><b>01:06</b></p> <p>E: Some words that don't end in ly can be adverbs. Example: Let's go home. Home is an adverb because it describes the verb, which is go. If an adjective ends with a consonant plus y, you add ily. For example lazy, lazily, pretty and prettily. Another example is: the dog jumped happily. In this case</p>

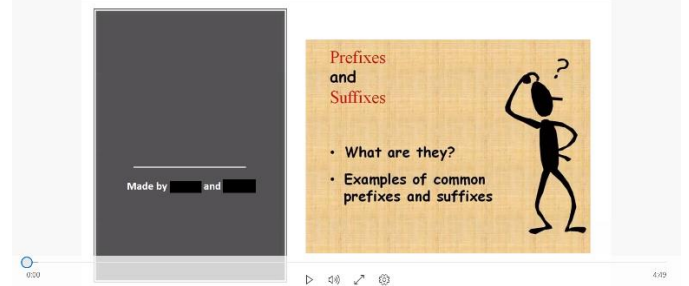


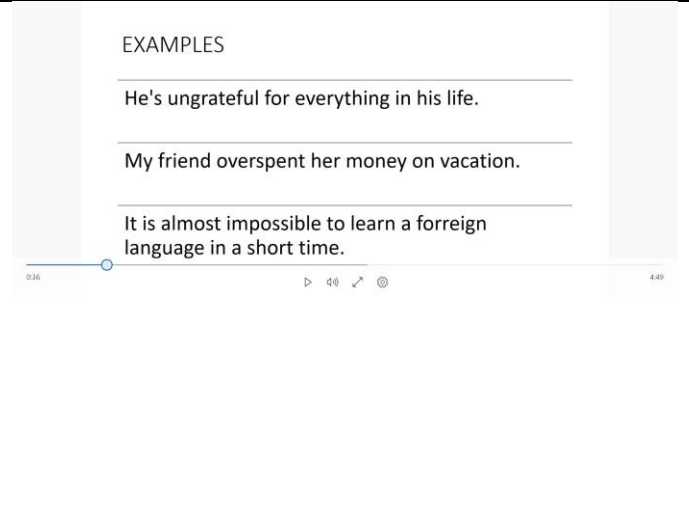

	<p>the adverb is happily, but the adverb ends in ily, and not ly. That is because the adverb happily comes from the adjective happy, which ends in a consonant y, so you must add ily.</p>
	<p><b>01:44</b>  J: Interrogative adverbs asks a question. The interrogative adverbs asks how, when, where and why. For example, how did you get there? where are you going? when are you getting back? In these sentences, how, where and when are the interrogative adverbs because those are the words making it into a question.</p>
	
	<p><b>02:05</b>  E: A conjunctive adverb joins two ideas. It gives emphasis to one of the ideas or answers the question of how they are related. Example: It might rain later, therefore we should pack our umbrellas. You need a semicolon to connect the two ideas, you also need a comma right after the adverb.</p>
	<p><b>02:27</b>  J: In this presentation we have about what adverbs are, stuff you have to watch out for, and some of the types of adverbs. We hope that you learned something. Goodbye.</p> <p><b>02:40 End</b></p>



Video 2:

Screenshot	Transcription																
 <p>A screenshot of a video player showing a slide with the text "PAST CONTINUOUS". The video player interface includes a progress bar at the bottom with a play button, a volume icon, and a full-screen icon. The time 0:00 is shown on the left and 1:42 on the right.</p>	<p><b>00:00</b>            El: In this grammar video we are going to teach you how to use past continuous. So we use past continuous when we talk about something that was taking place in the past over a period of time, for example: at six o'clock I was eating dinner. We also use past continuous when something that was taking place and was not finished when something else happened. For example: I was making dinner when she arrived.</p>																
 <p>A screenshot of a video player showing a slide with the text "WAS/WERE + ING FORM OF THE MAIN VERB". The video player interface includes a progress bar at the bottom with a play button, a volume icon, and a full-screen icon. The time 0:35 is shown on the left and 1:42 on the right.</p>	<p><b>00:35</b>            Em: To make the past continuous you need the past simple of to be, which is was or were, plus the ing-form of the main verb. For example: I was jumping on the trampoline when Bob came here.</p>																
 <p>A screenshot of a video player showing a table with negative and question forms of the past continuous. The video player interface includes a progress bar at the bottom with a play button, a volume icon, and a full-screen icon. The time 0:52 is shown on the left and 1:42 on the right.</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="368 1115 708 1290"> <thead> <tr> <th>Negative</th> <th>Question</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>•I was not singing.</td> <td>•Was I singing?</td> </tr> <tr> <td>•You were not singing.</td> <td>•Were you singing?</td> </tr> <tr> <td>•We were not singing.</td> <td>•Were we singing?</td> </tr> <tr> <td>•They were not singing.</td> <td>•Were they singing?</td> </tr> <tr> <td>•He was not singing.</td> <td>•Was he singing?</td> </tr> <tr> <td>•She was not singing.</td> <td>•Was she singing?</td> </tr> <tr> <td>•It was not singing.</td> <td>•Was it singing?</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Negative	Question	•I was not singing.	•Was I singing?	•You were not singing.	•Were you singing?	•We were not singing.	•Were we singing?	•They were not singing.	•Were they singing?	•He was not singing.	•Was he singing?	•She was not singing.	•Was she singing?	•It was not singing.	•Was it singing?	<p><b>00:52</b>            El: For questions put was or were before the subject, for example: Was Amanda outside yesterday? For negatives you need to add not after was or were. You can also shorten was or were to wasn't and weren't. For example: they weren't reading.</p>
Negative	Question																
•I was not singing.	•Was I singing?																
•You were not singing.	•Were you singing?																
•We were not singing.	•Were we singing?																
•They were not singing.	•Were they singing?																
•He was not singing.	•Was he singing?																
•She was not singing.	•Was she singing?																
•It was not singing.	•Was it singing?																
 <p>A screenshot of a video player showing the text "WATCH OUT!" in a stylized, bold, yellow font with a black outline. The video player interface includes a progress bar at the bottom with a play button, a volume icon, and a full-screen icon. The time 1:14 is shown on the left and 1:42 on the right.</p>	<p><b>01:14</b>            Em: Something you have to be careful about is when you write about feelings and thoughts. Some feelings are hate, like, love and some feelings are agree, believe, know, mean, prefer. These verbs are only used in the past simple, not past continuous. For example: I agreed with Caroline. Everyone in the class understood the teacher.</p>																

Video 3:

Screenshot	Transcription
	<p><b>00:00</b>            F: Hello, and welcome to our fantastic video and prefixes and suffixes. It's going to be fun! My name is Filip and I am joined by the spectacular jeevitha.            J: Let's begin.</p>
	<p><b>00:14</b>            F: Prefixes and suffixes are sets of letters that are added to the beginning or end of another word.</p>
	<p><b>00:22</b>            F: So let's start of by talking about prefixes. A prefix is a group of letters we add to the front of a root word. A root word is a word that gives meaning, also known as a stem.</p>
	<p><b>00:36</b>            J: So let's look at some examples. The first one is. He is ungrateful for everything in his life. The prefix un- means the opposite, so it changes the whole meaning of the word grateful. The second example is: My friend overspent her money on vacation. The prefix over- means too much, so it totally changes to meaning of the word spent. The third example is: It is almost impossible to learn a foreign language in a short time. The prefix im- means not or into.</p>
	<p><b>01:14</b>            F: So the next thing we are going to talk about is suffixes. Suffixes are letters or groups of letters added at the end of a word which makes a new word. The addition of a suffix often changes a word from one word class to another.</p>

**EXAMPLES**

I had a sleepless night last night.

The old cup is breakable.

My sibling is very childish.

**01:32**

J: So again let's look at some examples. So the first example is: I had a sleepless night last night. In the first example the suffix -less I used. This changes the meaning of the word sleep. The second example is: the old cup is breakable. In the second example the suffix -able is used. It emphasises the fact that the cup in fact is breakable. The third example is: my sibling is very childish. So in the third example the word -ish means. Childish means to act like a child.

**Prefix Root Word Suffix**

Unlikely

Disagreeable

Mismatched

Prearrangement

**02:12**

F: Now that you have learned about prefixes and suffixes we can look at a word that has both of them. Lets look at the word unlikely. Un, to the left is the prefix because it is added before the stem. The stem here is like, that is in the middle, because it is the part of the word that carries the main meaning. And at the right, -ly is the suffix because it is at the end of the word.

**RULES**

**Prefix**

- Il-before words starting with L
- Ir-before words starting with R
- Im-before words starting with m, p and b

**Suffix**

- Double the consonant  
Ex. Fat + er = Fatter  
Cancel + ed = Cancelled
- Drop the final e  
EX. Drive + ing= Driving

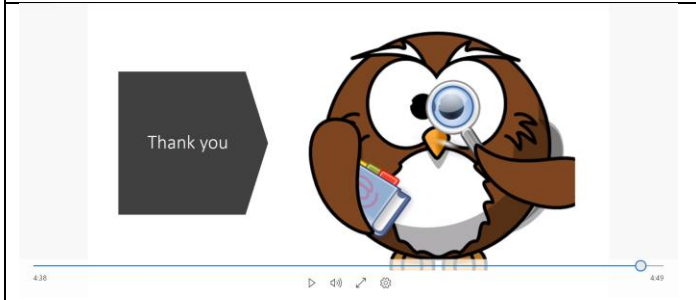
**02:48**

J: So now we can look at some rules for both prefixes and suffixes. So the first one is when a word ends in a short vowel sound and a single consonant you double the last letter. So here in the first one for prefixes you see that we have to use I and L for words starting with L. Examples for that is legal to illegal. The second one is ir- So you use ir before words starting with r. Example for that is irrelevant. Then you put ir in front, it's irrelevant. The third example is im. So you use im before words starting with m, p and b.

F: Now moving on from prefix, let's look at some rules for suffix. So when a word has more than one syllable and ends with the letter l you double the l when adding the suffix.

J: So the same thing goes for fat, when you say fatter, you add another

t so it becomes fatter with double t's. And the same goes for cancel. You say cancel plus ed is cancelled with double l's. So the second rule is that you have to drop the final e if the suffix you are using begins with a vowel. So example for that is drive plus ing becomes driving not driveing with e because the suffix we are using begins with a vowel.



**04:38**

F: Now we have come to the end of this video. We hope that you have learned something from this grammar video about prefixes and suffixes.

F: And thank you for your attention.

