The use of video in the foreign language classroom: literature review and report from the field

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Table of contents

List of figures

List of tables

List of appendices

Introduction

Technology changes our daily life and it has become a significant part of it. Also, more and more, technology is integrated in classrooms. It seems that it could improve ways of teaching. Learners are aware of technology and they see it everywhere. Working with videos can enhance their learning and motivate them. Nowadays, many schools also focus and improve themselves in the field of technologies. Video can thus be frequently used. However, there are various ways of using videos in the foreign language classroom.

In this dissertation, I will focus on the different ways of using video. There is not only one way but many ways of using it. Current literature state that video should be used in its whole in order to have a positive effect on the learners' learning. It can also be used in order to help teachers improve their own teaching. One learns a language in order to communicate but if we do not understand what others say, communication is not possible. Video can thus be a good tool to show learners that they can understand what is said and it can be a good tool for teachers to improve themselves.

My personal interest in writing this dissertation comes from the fact that I have always been curious about the use of technology, especially that of video, in classrooms. As a student myself I was really captivated, focused and motivated when teachers used a video in their classes. I also really love filming my daily life, or holiday memories, and nowadays students grow up with technologies. Including technologies can be a way of keeping language classes interesting. Even during my internships, I noticed that students were more concentrated and motivated when I used a video and that is what gives me the desire to keep using it in my classes in the future. I do believe that video can help us communicate with the world easily if we share or watch videos on social media. It can help us improve our foreign language skills if we watch videos in the target language. Nevertheless, I have realised that I had a very restricted view of the use of video because I thought that we could only use it as input, that is to receive language input in the target language. During my master's degree at the University of Liège, and especially in language didactic classes, I have learned that there are various ways of using video efficiently in foreign language teaching. That is why I want to focus on the different uses and show that video is not just a way to provide students with information in a foreign language, but also that it can help them improve their language skills and that it can also be beneficial for teachers. I am convinced that the benefits of video are important and it has many advantages for language classrooms. During my first degree at Henallux, I have already written a course paper on "how to work on the five skills (listening comprehension, reading comprehension,

written expression, oral expression with interaction and oral expression without interaction) using online video" but it only focused on the use of video as input and output. In this dissertation my wish is to go further by showing multiple ways of using it and other facets of it, such as the history of it, student and teacher-created videos, and video genres. Some parts of this dissertation are thus inspired by ideas that I had for my previous work but the gist of it moves well beyond my previous work, both in terms of analysis and reflection.

This dissertation is also an attempt to understand how and why video is used by teachers from the French-speaking part of Belgium. I will present my hypotheses and discuss them throughout the dissertation. In the first part of the dissertation, a theoretical background will be provided. This theoretical background will help understand why it is important and beneficial to use videos. Then, the different uses of video will be provided; video as input, video as output, learner and teacher- created videos, video to assess learners' oral production, video as a tool to self-evaluate the teaching and video as a conference tool. Each use will be defined and analysed. Advantages, disadvantages and problems that we can encounter with each use will also be discussed. Then, there will be an analysis of what is said about the use of video in official documents from the Wallonia-Brussels Federation. After that, I will discuss a questionnaire I submitted to teachers with questions about the uses of video in their classes. The aim of the survey was to understand how teachers use video and to confirm or reject hypotheses given at the beginning of the dissertation. Finally, in the last section there will be suggestions on how to use video in the foreign language classroom.

1 Hypotheses

This dissertation sets out to investigate a number of hypotheses on the basis of a literature review and a survey that was sent to secondary and university teachers.

I have established eight main hypotheses and four sub-hypotheses on why and how teachers use video in language classrooms, presented in (1) to (8) below.

1. *Video has many benefits for learners in that observing video can improve input comprehension (receiving information in a foreign language), such as the development of listening skills or the increase of motivation.* This hypothesis comes from the few studies that I read for my first paper on the use of video (Dagci, 2018).
2. *Video has many benefits for learners in that creating videos can enhance production skills and language skills.* As it is the case for (1), this hypothesis comes from Dagci, 2018.
3. *Video has many benefits for teachers because it is a tool that can be used in various ways (for example: as a tool of self-regulation, as a conference tool…).* This hypothesis comes from university courses that taught me the importance of videos for teachers.
4. *Language teachers do not use video for other purposes than for input comprehension.* The origin of this one lies in my internship experience, in which I showed video only to provide pupils with language input. Also, as a pupil at secondary school, I saw many teachers using it for the same reasons and not for other objectives.
5. *Video is not used in language classrooms because there are disadvantages to using it.*
6. *Video is not used in language classrooms because official documents (framework of references and teaching curricula) do not recommend using it.* During my internship and didactics classes, I have had the opportunity to read teaching curricula and framework of references and I have noticed that there were few mentions of video and that it was mainly associated with listening skills.
7. *Teachers do not use, or use very little, video to enhance language learners' production skills.* During my time as a pupil, I have not witnessed teachers letting learners produce videos in foreign language classrooms.
   7a. *Video is not used for output because language learners do not have self-confidence.* During my internship, in Dutch, I once asked my pupils to create a video and when I gave this task, the pupils' reactions were negative and many of them told me that they could not speak Dutch in front of a camera.
   7b. *Video is not used for output because language learners are afraid to watch themselves afterwards.* After the pupils made their videos, I showed them in the

classroom and I noticed that they were not comfortable when watching themselves and being watched by others.

8. *Language teachers do not use video as a tool to self-evaluate their teaching (autoscopy).* I discovered this use only in the didactics class at university and I was not aware of it before because I have never heard of a teacher using video for this purpose.
   8a. *Video is not used to autoregulate the teaching because teachers do not feel at ease with this use.*
   8b. *Video is not used to autoregulate the teaching because teachers do not feel at ease when they see themselves afterwards.* This hypothesis comes from my own experience when I had to film myself for didactics classes but I did not feel comfortable watching myself teaching and when I talked about it with fellow students, they felt the same way.

The hypothesis in (3) will be investigated on the basis of an extensive review of the existent literature on the topics concerned. Verification of the hypothesis in (6), in turn, requires perusing official documents like teaching curricula about the use (and ways of using) of video. While the hypotheses in (1), (2), (4), (5), (7) and (8) will first be contextualised on the basis of existing pedagogical studies in Sections 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.6 and 2.7 below, they will ultimately be verified on the basis of the data collected through a survey responded to by fifty-six language teachers.

2 Theoretical framework

This chapter will provide readers with a theoretical outline on video and on how it can be used in foreign language classrooms. First, there will be an analysis of the history of video in teaching methods in order to understand the current evolution of these techniques. Then, Section 2.2, will provide readers with a literature review about general aspects of video. Afterwards, it will be easier to focus on the various ways of using video in the classroom from Section 2.3 until Section 2.8. There will be a selection of specific uses. Of course, there are other options (for example the use of video for storytelling, the use of series, the use of music clips, providing feedback with video, etc.) but these will not be presented because they are beyond the scope of this dissertation. Each use will be defined and analysed on the basis of studies that focus on the relevance of these uses in pedagogy. In this chapter, I will try to confirm or reject hypothesis (3) *Video has many benefits for teachers because it is a tool that can be used in various ways (for example: as a tool of self-regulation, as a conference tool…)*.

2.1 History of the use of video in teaching methods

In order to understand the evolution of the use of video, one needs to understand how the use of audiovisual methods started. In this part, the history of audiovisual methods will be presented as well as the "communicative approach" and the "action-oriented approach". These methods and approaches will be discussed because they point out the use of audiovisuals in classrooms. It is important to keep in mind that, after the audiovisual structure-global method, other approaches were developed and, in these approaches, visual aids, as well as video, are mentioned but do not play a central role as in the AVSG method. This section will mainly be based on Germain Simons's course notes "Aperçu historique des méthodes d'enseignement en langues étrangères : de la méthode « grammaire – traduction » à la perspective « actionnelle »" (2020) and on Puren's book *Histoire des méthodologies de l'enseignement des langues* (1988).

First of all, it is important to point out that even before the emergence of audiovisual methods, wall charts, for example, were already used in the direct method, especially in the intuitive one (Puren, 1988). The direct method was characterised by the use of techniques that helped avoiding translations in the mother tongue (Puren, 1988: 82) and the intuitive method enabled the teaching of a foreign language by relying on the intuitive capacities of learners (Puren, 1988: 93). Puren reports a quote: « Sans images, pas de méthode directe ; on retomberait fatalement dans la traduction » (Colin, 1904, cited in Puren, 1988). It is thus clear that visuals were already used at that time, typically taking the form of wall charts that showed daily life

pictures to train learners to speak the target language (Puren, 1988). Then, visual were more and more used in the method that is called "the audiovisual structure-global method" or "audiovisual structural-global method" (AVSG). The AVSG emerged in the 60s in France and was further elaborated in the 70s (Puren, 1988). There are four main principles of the audiovisual method that are defined in Puren (1988), inspired by Gauthier (1981). The first one is the use of real situations in teaching. The second one is the prohibition of the mother tongue in the learning process. The third one is the predominance of oral skills and the last one is that teaching is done by analogies and induction. This method was also based on the structure-global principles presented by Petar Guberina and Paul Rivenc in the 60s and was first used in teaching French. Simons (2020) presents two definitions of the term "structure-global". The first one is given by Galisson and Coste and the second one is given by Rivenc:

> « […] adjectif associé au terme 'méthode audio-visuelle' dans l'expression 'méthode audio-visuelle structuro-globale' ou 'méthode structuro-globale audio-visuelle'. On ne le trouve dans aucun autre contexte. L'expression désigne un ensemble de choix méthodologiques qui, à partir des travaux de Guberina et de Rivenc, ont donné naissance à la première 'méthode audio-visuelle' appliquée à l'enseignement du français, langue étrangère : Voix et Images de France. » (Galisson & Coste, 1976 : 529).
>
> « Tout apprentissage linguistique suppose que l'élève est plongé au départ dans une situation de communication qu'il perçoit d'abord globalement par voie audio-visuelle. C'est par approximations successives que l'élève – guidé par le professeur – parviendra à rendre signifiantes et à intégrer dans son comportement linguistique, en vue de nouvelles performances de communication, des séries de microsystèmes faisant partie du système linguistique à apprendre. » (Rivenc, 1972).

The AVSG method makes use of images and sound together. The aim is to develop linguistic skills by imitating models given by native speakers (linked to behaviourist techniques). As stated in Rivenc's definition; visual aids give a global overview of the communication and suppress an explanation in the mother tongue (Simons, 2020), which is one of the principles of this method. The images used in this technique are fixed images. However, these images were not culturally neutral and conducted sometimes readers to misunderstandings (Simons, 2020). In this kind of situation, the role of teachers was important because they had to help learners understand the images by explaining what is represented; they could thus imitate gestures or make drawings on the board (Puren, 1988).

The AVSG method marked the beginning of the international use of foreign language textbooks because these books were written in foreign languages. They were not only oriented

for language learners and there was no specific target age to use these textbooks (Simons, 2020). The advantages of this method were that it used common situations presented by native speakers; learners were thus exposed to authentic documents and could improve their language as regards accent, pronunciation and intonation. Moreover, in her article, Cruse (2007) writes about the history of the audiovisual method and states that it had benefits on language learning such as capturing students' attention, increasing their motivation and enhancing learning experiences thanks to authentic materials. However, this method also had disadvantages because it did not stimulate learners' creativity and reflection; they could not use their knowledge because there were not many production tasks and this way of teaching was repetitive and not motivating for learners or teachers (Simons, 2020).

After the audiovisual structure-global method, there was a focus on the needs of European language learners (Richards and Rodgers, 1986) and that is why the "communicative approach" was developed. This one is linked to video because a factor that aided this approach to emerge is the development, during the 1990s, of information and communication technologies (Simons, 2020). This development made it possible for language learners to communicate with native speakers around the world. This also implied the spread of the use of media (Simons, 2020). Furthermore, the focus on the four language skills, especially the listening skill, supported the use of CD's first and then the use of videos (interviews for example) in the language classroom (Simons, 2020: 21). It was an approach and not a method because there was no teaching model accepted as universal and there were no required teaching methods for teachers (Simons, 2020). The latter was problematic, especially for beginning teachers, because they did not know which method to follow. (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Simons, 2020).

The aim of the communicative approach was to understand the needs that learners had in order to learn a foreign language (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Simons, 2020). Richards and Rodgers (1986) define two goals of this approach. They state that the aim was to:

> "(a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and;
> (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication." (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 66).

The communicative competence was a dominant aspect of this approach. Another characteristic is, as stated before, the use of the four language skills: listening comprehension, reading comprehension, written expression and oral expression. Moreover, this approach had a learner-centred view (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). A last characteristic of the communicative

approach that Simons (2020) defines is the functional-notional approach which focuses on the functions of a language.

The action-oriented approach (or actional perspective) is advocated by the *Common European Framework of References for Languages* (Simons, 2020). Once more, as in the communicative approach, the use of the five language skills, defined in the CEFR, enabled teachers to use video. Video is mentioned a few times in the CEFR but the importance of it in this document will later deeply be analysed in Section 3.1. In the action-oriented approach, learners are considered as "social actors", who have to accomplish tasks in particular social contexts (Delibaş and Günday, 2016; Simons, 2020). Delibaş and Günday (2016: 144) state that "learners and language users are responsible for their own learning" and "language is seen as a tool for social action and not only a tool to communicate". In the CEFR it is claimed that no specific method is imposed to teachers but that, instead, the authors provide a large range of choices (Puren, 2006b: 2). However, Simons (2020) states that they still suggest to use the action-oriented approach, so it is contradictory. The CEFR points out five language skills, in contrast to the communicative approach, which only defined four skills. The five skills are; listening comprehension, reading comprehension, written expression, oral expression with interaction and oral expression without interaction.

In conclusion, the audiovisual structure-global method appears to be the beginning of the use of images associated with sound. The difference with video in this method is that the images are still. Puren (1988) claims that the audiovisual method is an important technique and that it underwent significant changes (1988: 235). It seems that this method already had benefits for foreign language learning (Cruse, 2007). However, the disadvantages of the AVSG method are not negligible and this is the reason why some educators where against it and helped in its evolution (Puren, 1988). In more recent techniques, communication is the main goal of language learning and the use of the five skills made it possible for videos to be integrated in language classrooms. The next chapter will analyse the evolution of the use of video through new technology and media. It will also present advantages and disadvantages that video can have on language learning and teaching.

2.2 General aspects of the use of video

Research has shown that video may have many benefits for language learners and for language teachers. Nowadays, new technologies are used in daily life and new school equipment make it easy to use video in classrooms (Harmer, 2007; Shrosbree, 2008). As will be discussed in

Section 2.2.1, media may present pedagogical advantages when combined with technology. In this section the impact of new technologies on learning and teaching will also be discussed. The following section will be about the importance of visual aids. Section 2.2.3 will focus on learners' intelligences and learning styles. Differentiation with video is tackled in Section 2.2.4. Then, Sections 2.2.5 and 2.2.6 will point to advantages and disadvantages of video. Eventually, in the last section, classroom equipment will be discussed. In this first section, no specific use of video will be pointed out; all the uses will be taken into consideration. General aspects of video will be analysed in the vein of Fleming and Mills (1992); Gardner (2005); Cruse (2007); Schrosbree (2008); Berk (2009); Čepon (2013); Mares and Pan (2013); Kurelovic, Davidovic and Tomljanovic (2016).

As stated by Keddie (2014), video was, not long ago, only available in DVD and VHS cassettes forms. It was linked with the world of television and cinema because individual video (on YouTube for example), as it is known nowadays, did not exist. He posits that now the culture of video sharing marks a new age that gives teachers new teaching possibilities. Video transforms the way we teach, learn, study, communicate and work because everything can now be filmed and shared (Woolfitt, 2015: 6). Shrosbree (2008) even claims that video is a way to break from traditional teaching ways. Moreover, Keddie (2014) points out that video is a way to interact with other people because it can be shared, commented, copied and parodied.

2.2.1 New technologies and media

This section will analyse the impact of new technologies and media on teaching and learning. As stated before, new technologies seem to be integral parts of our lives. Cruse (2007) analysed different research on the use of educational media in the classroom and she discovered that today's generation is a media generation that spends a lot of time on media. Research points out that this way of living deserves attention (Cruse, 2007). Other terms than "media generation" are used in Čepon (2013); the "Generation Y", the "Net Generation" or "Millenials"; the most famous one is "Net Generation" ("Net Gen"). These terms encompass "the first generation to have grown up with the new information technologies as huge parts of their lives" (Tapscott, 2009, cited in Čepon, 2013: 85). Furthermore, Berk (2012) points out that this generation is a generation of "digital natives" and previous generations are "digital immigrants" meaning that learners are born in technology while their teachers had to learn how to use technology after they were born. Berk (2009) also claims that video fits the characteristics of the Net Generation learners because it provides a verbal and visual component which they are already used to seeing. Bates (2015) also states that media can include different formats

depending on the symbol systems or the cultural background and this can give learners different ways of learning and personalise their learning even more.

Media can have an educational impact (Diergarten et al., 2016). If children watch educational shows or videos (such as *Sesame Street,* as stated in the article), they will have better outcomes in literacy, numeracy, learning about the world and social development (Mares and Pan 2013). In fact, Mares and Pan (2013) have conducted a meta-analysis on the effects of the TV series *Sesame Street,* broadcast all over the world and published in short videos, on children's learning. Their article summarises the results of 24 studies directed in 15 countries. It also aimed to see the effectiveness outside the United States and in different social, political and economic environments. Mares and Pan (2013: 144) defined three outcome categories: "cognitive outcomes, learning about the world and social attitudes and reasoning". They found out that the majority of the studies presented positive effects of the exposure to *Sesame Street* on the three outcome categories, in low-, middle- as well as high-income countries (Mares and Pan, 2013). They thus showed that media, if used correctly, may have positive learning outcomes.

In 1979, the British council had already published a collective volume on the use of media in education called *The use of Media in English Language Teaching.* In the component chapter "The integration of elements in multi-media language learning systems", Trimp (1979) provides readers with a figure of "stimuli which may reach the learner", represented here in Figure 1. He represents the media with which a learner can be confronted.

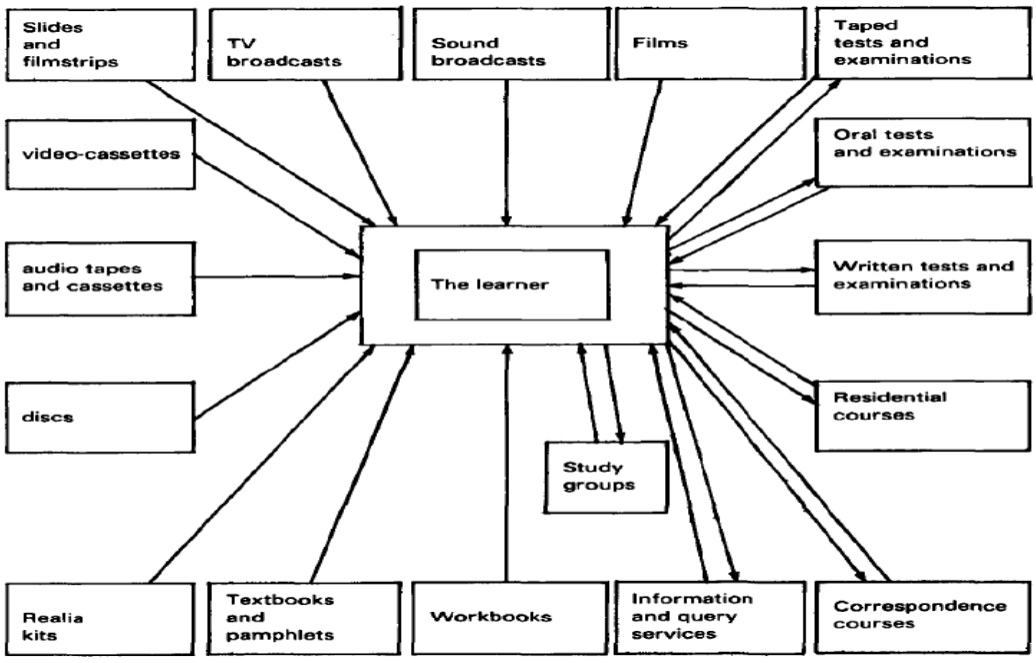

Figure 1: Media which may reach the learner in 1979 (Trim, 1979: 8)

Of course, media and technology have evolved since 1979. An updated version of Figure 1 is given in Figure 2, which shows the different media to which a learner is exposed in their daily life in 2021.

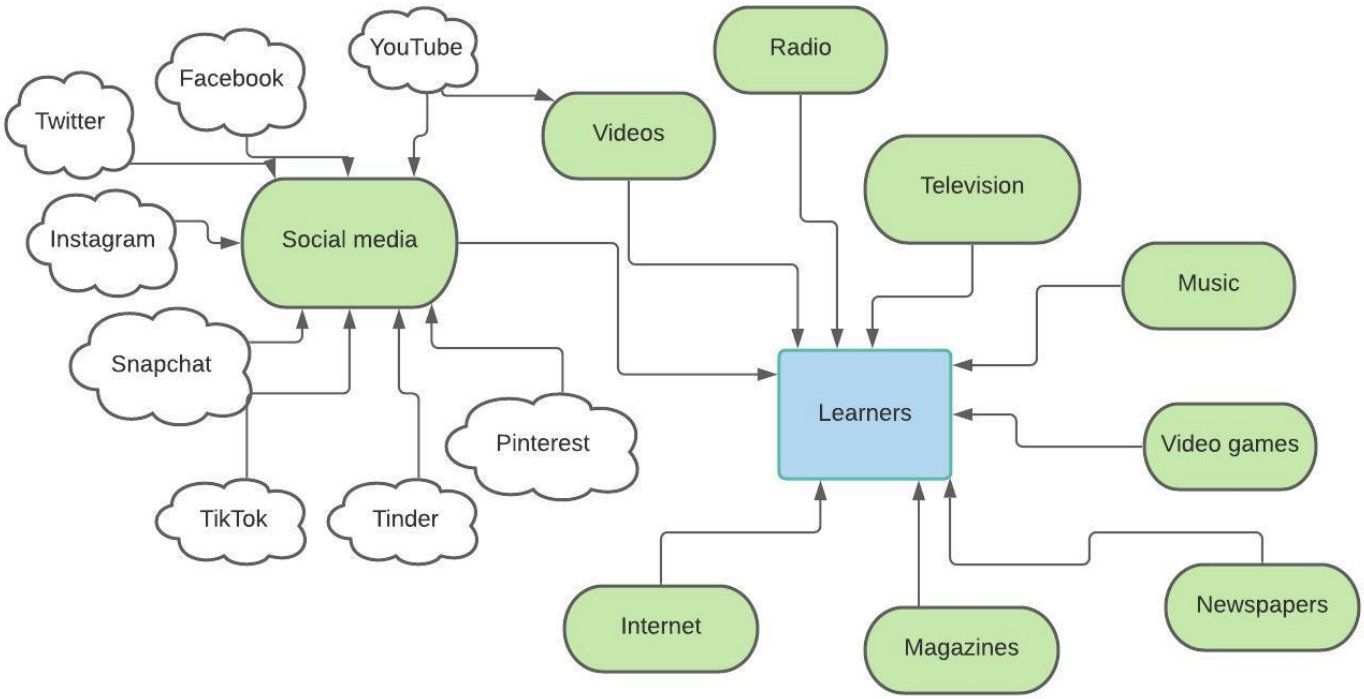

Figure 2: Media used by learners in 2021 (inspired by Trim J. in The use of Media in English Language teaching – British Council 1979: 8)

It is difficult to determine the age at which learners are exposed to these media because it is constantly changing and some learners are exposed earlier to media than others. For example, pupils that receive a phone at the age of eight are likely to be exposed faster to media than others.

Bates (2015: 282) states that with new tools and new technologies, learners have more control over their learning because they can also learn at home. This still does not change the fact that they need a structured system with well-selected content. Teachers are thus essential at giving a structured lesson with clear objectives to guide learners and set learning goals (Bates, 2015). Furthermore, if teachers want learners to be completely independent, then the required skills need to be taught. (Bates, 2015).

Besides, there is another value in using digital tools that is presented by the Scottish Government in the book *Literature Review on the Impact of Digital Technology on Learning and Teaching* (2015), which was written to investigate how the use of digital technology can benefit learners, teachers and parents in education in Scotland. It is stated that if these tools are

used correctly, they may build skills in interactivity, collaboration and critical thinking (p. 2). In fact, teachers have to develop learner-centred learning approaches (p. 3) and this may be done while using media. Teachers can educate learners about media and help them grow critical thinking (while working on an advertisement for example). Besides, Buckingham (2003) posits that children grow up in a world in which most of the information they receive come from media and that teachers can use television and media to develop their critical thinking by interrogating them about what they have seen and heard (Buckingham, 2003, cited in Hobbs, 2006).

Nevertheless, using new technologies and media too often in the classroom can turn into a disadvantage and the fact that they see it everywhere can create negative reactions. Indeed, Kurelovic et al., (2016: 906) state that new technologies have permitted one to get information from anywhere and at any time, and warn against "information overload", which "decreases attention span" and "makes thinking, memorizing and learning more difficult". The term is defined as:

> "A syndrome of apathy, indifference or mental exhaustion arising from exposure to too much information, esp. (in later use) stress included by the attempt to assimilate excessive amount of information from the media, the Internet or at work" (Gleick 2011: 375)

In order to see if this syndrome appeared in students, Kurelovic et al. (2016) conducted a study about the effects that the availability of information and the use of technology have on students. They established a questionnaire and they distributed it to students in higher education; they asked questions about their use of technology and about symptoms of information overload. The results showed that students often use technologies (computers, mobile phones) and that the syndrome of information overload appeared in some of them. Kurelovic et al. (2016) thus suggest to help students develop skills that will assist them in the use of digital technologies and to reduce or prevent the syndrome of information overload.

2.2.2 The value of visual aids

In this part, the value of visual aids will be discussed. At the beginning of the first section, it has already been claimed that video can be a great resource because it combines visual and verbal components (Berk, 2009; Bates, 2015). In the previous section, the audiovisual structure-global method has shown that the visual component was important for foreign language learning and that the method has existed for a long time now, even if at the beginning only still images were used. Moreover, all the media presented in Figure 2, except radio, involve visual

constituents; learners face visuals when they use social media, when they watch music videos, television or video, when they read a magazine or a newspaper, when they surf on the Internet and even when they play video games. Visuals thus appear to be a great part of the learners' lives and they are associated with technology and media.

In his dissertation, Garcia (2012) claims that learners, nowadays, receive much information by visual means because of their technological devices. Teachers must thus bring something from their worlds in classrooms. Moreover, thanks to visual aids, the real world is brought into the classroom (Brinton, 2000). Mannan (2005) states that visual aids:

> "help the teacher to clarify, establish, correlate and coordinate accurate concepts, interpretations and appreciations, and enable him [or her] to make learning more concrete, effective, interesting, inspirational, meaningful and vivid" (Mannan, 2005, cited in Garcia, 2012).

Visuals are thus also a support for teachers to clarify ideas because learners can immediately see the language associated with an image (Garcia, 2012). Language learners may retain new words and new structures more easily (Clark and Lyons, 2004, cited in Garcia, 2012). Video is also a way to link abstract concepts with concrete happenings; the abstract concepts relate to the verbal components and the concrete ones mean the visual aids (Bates, 2015: 269). Furthermore, as Brinton (2001: 460) states, the visual constituent is a way of making tasks and learning more meaningful, authentic and exciting for learners.

The use of visuals can also be beneficial for the brain because in Berk's (2009) article it is claimed that it has a strong effect on the mind and the senses. Specifically, when one watches a video, many different emotions are involved. These emotions are created by the mood that the video gives by its visual constituents, by the actors or by its background music for example (Berk 2009). Thornton and Kaya (2013) add that videos have a positive impact on memory and that they help storing information in the long-term memory because of the visual and verbal stimuli.

2.2.3 Learners' intelligences and learning styles

In classrooms, one finds different kinds of learners; they are all different with multiple intelligences and various learning styles. Teachers must take these intelligences and learning styles into account in order to satisfy all learners. Many researchers have written about how the use of video can help teachers take multiple intelligences and learning styles into account (e.g. Gardner, 2005, 2013; Hofer, 2005; Cruse, 2007; Berk, 2009, 2012). This section will focus on the findings of these researchers.

Let us first take a closer look at the theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI), developed by Gardner (1983). In his paper "Multiple lenses on the Mind" (2005), he states:

> "Dating back a century to the time of the French psychologist Alfred Binet, psychologists believe that there is a single intelligence, often called 'g' for general intelligence; we are born with that intelligence; (…) we psychologists can tell you how smart you are- traditionally, by giving you an IQ test. (…) My research in cognitive development and cognitive breakdown convinced me that this traditional view of intellect is not tenable. Individuals have different human facilities (…) Ultimately I came up with a list of eight, possibly nine intelligences" (Gardner, 2005: 7-8).

At first, he developed only six intelligences, then it changed into eight and at the moment, Gardner claims that there are ten intelligences (Gardner, 2013). He keeps developing the theory and as he says in the quotation above, he breaks from the traditional intelligence theory that only recognizes verbal and computational intelligences (Brualdi, 1996). Gardner's (2005, 2013) intelligences are presented in (1) to (10) below.

1. Verbal-linguistic intelligence means linguistic and verbal skills such as the skills of writers or journalists.
2. Logical-mathematical intelligence means the capacity to use logical, mathematical and abstract skills such as the ones of a mathematician or a scientist.
3. Spatial-visual intelligence means the capacity to think of mental imagery, pictures and to exploit these mental images.
4. Musical intelligence is the capacity to produce, play and appreciate rhythm and music.
5. Bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence is the ability to control or use your whole body or parts of it.
6. Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to interact with other people and understand them.
7. Intrapersonal intelligence is the capacity to understand oneself.
8. Naturalist intelligence is the ability to identify and classify natural phenomena, for example to categorise plants and animals.
9. Existential intelligence means the capacity to deal with deep questions about human life.
10. Pedagogical intelligence means the intelligence that makes human beings able to transfer knowledge to others such as the skills of teachers.

All these intelligences being defined, one needs to think of the intelligences that are involved in learning with videos and the benefits of involving one or another intelligence. Cruse (2007) argues that textbooks only fit the traditional model of intelligences with their linguistic approach and that video fits Gardner's model. Video integrates many intelligences such as the spatial-visual intelligence, the musical intelligence, but also the interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences because of the emotions that video triggers, as already mentioned in the previous section (Berk, 2009). Berk (2009) also claims that video engages the left and the right hemispheres of the brain. These hemispheres are categorised as the verbal (left) and nonverbal (right) and video includes both, as there is a verbal constituent (e.g. dialogues, music) and a visual one (e.g. images, movements) (Berk, 2009: 3). As it integrates many intelligences, it helps to address the needs of diverse groups of learners (Cruse, 2007). Furthermore, teachers also take benefits of this model because thanks to video, they mobilise their pedagogical intelligence by transferring knowledge in another way to learners.

In an interview, Gardner (2013) also talks about learning styles and points out that learning styles are not the same as multiple intelligences. He states that even if multiple intelligences do not mean the same as learning styles, they can be used together to characterize a learner.

Regarding learning styles, one of the most popular theories is the VARK model by Fleming & Mills (1992). In their article, they define learning styles as strategies that a learner uses in order to learn, arguing that "learners of all ages have different yet consistent ways of responding in learning situations" (Fleming & Mills, 1992: 37); this means the strategies that a learner uses in order to learn. This theory claims that learners are categorised as Visual learners (V) when they prefer seeing pictures or symbolic ways of representations, as Aural learners (A) when they learn best from hearing or listening, as Reader or writer learners (R) when they learn best from working with words like reading or writing or as Kinaesthetic learners (K) when they prefer learning by touching or doing. (Fleming & Mills, 1992). Figure 3 shows the different characteristics of the four learning styles defined by Fleming and Mills (1992).

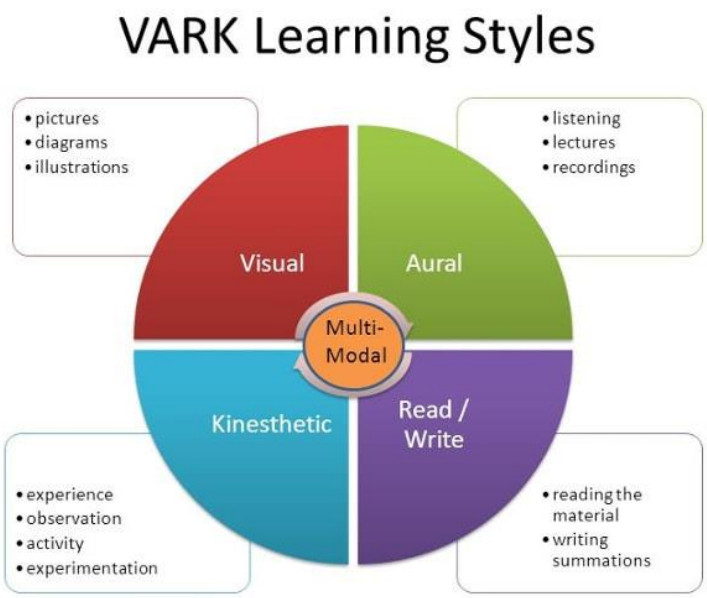

Figure 3: The VARK model by Neil D. Fleming and Colleen Mills (1992).[1]

One can see that there are similarities between the four learning styles and some of Gardner's intelligences. That is the reason why Gardner stated that they can be used together. The benefits of video for visual and auditory learners are directly noticeable thanks to its combination of visual and verbal stimuli, but it may also be beneficial for readers and kinaesthetic learners (Cruse, 2007). Indeed, if video is used to let learners create their own video, for the readers it may be beneficial because they may have to write the script. As for kinaesthetic learners, they may have the opportunity to touch the video camera for example.

To conclude this section, it is important to point out that teachers must consider multiple intelligences and learning styles to address to a greater number of learners. Gardner (2013) appeals for "pluralization", which means teaching in multiple ways to reach more learners, as stated before. The use of video is also a good way to show learners that teachers can teach in many ways and that learners themselves are able to learn in multiple ways.

2.2.4 Differentiation with video

In the previous parts, it has been shown that learners have different backgrounds, different intelligences and also various learning styles. It has also been stated that teachers should take these differences into account in order to reach as many learners as possible. A way of taking these differences into account is differentiation:

> "Differentiation refers to a wide variety of teaching techniques and lesson adaptations that educators use to instruct a diverse group of students, with diverse learning needs, in

[1] From: https://tutoringwithatwist.ca/vark-learning-styles/

> the same course, classroom, or learning environment. Differentiation is commonly used in "heterogeneous grouping"—an educational strategy in which students of different abilities, learning needs, and levels of academic achievement are grouped together." (The glossary of education reform, 2013)[2].

As White and Nam (2014) argue, it is possible to use video for differentiation. First, video allows for differentiation in terms of content by using different kinds of videos such as interviews, tv programmes or documentaries. In addition, video can be used to differentiate the process of teaching and learning. It means that learners who require more information on a subject should be encouraged to use videos to find information on their own. Lastly, White and Nam (2014) state that one can use video to differentiate the product of the learning by asking learners to make different production tasks related to video: write a summary of the video, make a poster about the video, produce their own video, etc. (White and Nam, 2014, p. 3). These types of differentiation can support teachers in addressing learners' changing needs.

2.2.5 Advantages of video

As stated before, video may have pedagogical advantages. Some of these advantages have already been presented in the previous sections (the values of visual aids, the values of involving multiple intelligences and learning styles, and differentiation). This section will provide the reader with more advantages on the uses of video. The advantages presented come from Keddie, 2014; Çakir, 2006; Cruse, 2007; Shrosbree, 2008; Čepon, 2013; White and Nam, 2014; Bates, 2015 and Kostereliogl u, 2016.

The first advantage that can be found in many studies is motivation. As previously mentioned, the use of video breaks from traditional teaching tools and motivates language learners (Shrosbree, 2008). Cruse (2007), similarly to Berk (2009), mentions that video can have strong effects on motivation thanks to its emotional level. This can thus also affect their cognitive learning. However, if video becomes the norm (for example as in hybrid teaching), then it can affect their cognitive learning in a negative way. In fact, if learners are ceaselessly in front of a computer, they can develop negative feelings towards video. Researchers point out that visual aids also play an important role in the increase of motivation. Indeed, in the hemisphere that treats visuals, the limbic system responds by giving emotions (e.g., joy, happiness, admiration, anger, amusement, sadness, etc.) and motivation (Bergsma, 2002, cited

[2] Definition from : https://www.edglossary.org/differentiation/

in Cruse, 2007). Viau's motivational dynamics (2004)[3] are considered here in order to see whether activities with video cover characteristics of a motivational activity. According to Viau, in order for an activity to be motivating, it has to:

- be significant for learners
- be diversified and incorporated in other activities
- represent a challenge for learners
- be authentic
- require a cognitive implication
- give learners responsibility while they can still make choices
- give the opportunity to interact and collaborate with other learners
- have an interdisciplinary character
- have clear instructions
- leave sufficient time to accomplish the task.

In current research about video, it is claimed that an activity with video can be diversified and it can be used with other activities. It is claimed that learners' curiosity and interest are aroused with video because it is an authentic task and makes sense for students (Meysonnier, 2005). As Cruse (2007) states, it also requires a cognitive implication, except if it becomes the norm. Bates (2015) also claims, as mentioned previously, that video gives autonomy and responsibility to students but instructions around activities still have to be clear. Studies also state that, in activities with videos, one can easily ask students to interact or collaborate with each other (Alkan, 1983; Kosterelioglu, 2016). Interestingly, these features can also apply to other tools, so they are not only relevant for video. One should also be careful to why and how to use it if we want learners to get the most of it.

Another advantage is that video can be used in multiple ways. The most common way of using video is a way of providing foreign language input, as stated in Keddie (2014). Indeed, he claims that video is a good resource to acquire another language because of the lexical items, grammatical structures and accent that one can hear. However, this also applies to the use of audio without visuals, so one can question about the usefulness of video as input. Advantages of video as input will be shown in the following section. The second most common use of video is that as a carrier of foreign language output (Keddie, 2014). Keddie (2014) claims that video is useful for language production tasks such as speaking (creating a video and speaking in front

[3] Viau R. (2004), La motivation: condition au plaisir d'apprendre et d'enseigner en contexte scolaire. *3e congrès des chercheurs en Education,* Bruxelles, p.7.

of the camera) and writing tasks (creating the script of a video for example). The following sections will analyse these uses in more detail.

Keddie (2014) showed that video can be accessed outside classrooms, which is another advantage. A year later, the Scottish Government (2015) investigated on how the use of digital technology can benefit for learners, teachers and parents in education in Scotland and they also showed that videos were interesting because they can be accessed outside schools. In fact, learners can watch videos, shown in class, again at home if they have an Internet connection.

Finally, a last general advantage is that video can be used during different stages in learning and teaching processes (White and Nam, 2014). White and Nam (2014) claim that video can be used for listening skills (input), to predict something, to inspire, or to debate. Moreover, the authors state that video can be used to introduce or close a topic, to explain difficult grammar rules or difficult subjects.

2.2.6 Disadvantages of video

Even though research has shown that working with video may have many advantages, one can also find disadvantages or problems while working with it. This part is based on studies carried out by several researchers (Çakir, 2006; Garcia, 2011-2012; Woolfitt, 2015; Kostereligolu, 2016; Hadijah, 2016).

The first problem that Woolfitt (2015) points out is the fear and difficulty to change didactic methods. In fact, experienced teachers are used to traditional methods (face-to-face) and they are reluctant to change them because they do not know how it will go. He says that even if technology is evolving and new teaching ways appear, they fear relying on them because they do not want to "step outside their comfort zone" (p.28). Woolfitt (2015) talks about this fear in higher education but I do believe that it also applies for secondary school teachers. Nevertheless, it is important to point out that even while using video it is possible that teachers still use traditional teaching ways. For instance, during videoconferencing, teachers also use the face-to-face technique because they work with video as a medium rather than as a tool.

Another disadvantage is that most teachers do not use video correctly in class (Hobbs, 2006). Indeed, Hobbs (2006) conducted a study about "non-optimal uses of video in the classroom". The study was realised through a telephone survey in which teachers had to answer questions about their use of videos in their classrooms. She found out that sometimes teachers did not use video with clear objectives or educational purposes. Teachers did not use features of video such as pause, rewind or review. They used videos to give themselves a break or to do something else during classes (to correct assignments for example). This gave learners the

impression that activities with video were unimportant. She discovered that teachers also used video to control students' behaviour. In fact, Hobbs (2006) states that the students whom she observed were attentive and quiet while watching a video, and teachers knew it so they used it as a means to keep their students calm. Moreover, in some cases, video was used as a reward for good behaviour, without learning objectives (Hobbs, 2006). Garcia (2012) states that it is important to fully integrate video in lessons to make it instructionally effective. So, it does not have to be treated as an extra exercise or as a means to keep learners quiet. Furthermore, Kostereliogl (2016) carried out a qualitative study on students' views on the effectiveness of video. In an educational psychology class, he showed short videos on the lesson topic at the beginning, during and at the end of the class. Students then had to discuss the content of these videos. Afterwards, they had to fill in a questionnaire with two open questions: one on the effects of these video clips on their learning and one on their suggestions about the use of videos in the classroom. What is important to keep in mind is that students suggested that the use of videos should not be exaggerated.

Other disadvantages identified by Kostereliogl (2016) and Hadijah (2016) are technical problems. Linked to this, there is also teachers' fear of using technology. In Kostereliogl's (2016) study, one suggestion that came up repeatedly was that videos should have "sufficient sound and quality" (p. 367). Hadijah (2016) claims that technical problems can affect students' moods and their motivation can decrease. The sound and image quality of videos are important components but it is also fundamental for teachers to know how to handle technical problems. Hadijah (2016), just as Çakir (2006), states that technical problems are a challenge and it is the teacher's role to know how to use devices in order to enhance learners' learning. If these problems occur too often, learners may lose interest in activities with videos. Hadijah (2016) states that teachers have to get familiar with technical materials they have to use and improve themselves to deal with problems (2016: 309).

A last disadvantage presented by Çakir (2006) is the cost of using video. He states that technology is expensive and not all schools have the opportunity to buy the required equipment to use video in the classroom. Moreover, he adds that the maintenance of machines costs money. Noteworthy, the pandemic of Covid-19 has shown that many schools were able to buy new teaching materials for classrooms so this problem is less important nowadays.

2.2.7 Classroom equipment

As previously stated, classroom equipment is important in order to be able to use videos in classrooms. Different equipment is available and is used by schools.

Harmer (2007) claims that in order to show a video, one needs a projection board, a projector and a computer connected to it. There are of course other possibilities to show video in classrooms. This can be done with the teacher's computer, or even with the learners' computers. This is called "Bring your own device" (BYOD), in which teachers and learners can use their own devices in classrooms for educational purposes[4] . Another method that is used nowadays is to put a video on a platform on which learners can watch videos, at school or at home (Boté-Vericad, 2020). This method is called free access[5].

The use of videos in classrooms can be done thanks to Interactive whiteboard (IWBs). It is currently often used in schools. It has been used increasingly in classrooms in Belgium since 2005[6]. Ersan (2018) carried out a qualitative study in which he asked about the benefits of IWB to teachers, and most of them stated that it was an advantage to have visual and auditory information (p. 15). Another advantage defined by many teachers is that it is easy to save or print everything that is written on it (Ersan, 2018). IWBs are connected to the Internet but it is important to point out that not all classrooms have an Internet connection and this can be an issue while using online videos. There are speakers that enable the whole class to hear what is projected. Of course, as stated before, technical problems can occur and one always needs to be prepared for these and has to know how to deal with them or how to improvise when they occur (Hadija, 2016; Kostereliogl u, 2016; Ersan, 2018).

2.2.8 Conclusion

In this section, the use of new technologies and media has been discussed and it appears that media and technologies can be integrated into language classrooms. Visual aids have also been discussed; it turned out that they can support learners and teachers (Garcia, 2012; Mannan, 2005). Visuals appear to have a positive impact on the brain and on emotional reactions (Berk, 2009). The theory of multiple intelligences and learning styles have also been tackled and video was found to suit many of Gardner's multiple intelligences and Fleming and Mills's learning styles. Moreover, readers have been provided with advantages of video but also with disadvantages and problems that have to be kept in mind in order to help learners to get as many benefits as possible from videos.

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[4] From: https://www.citrix.com/en-in/glossary/byod.html

[5] Definition: "l'accès libre est un autre mode d'organisation de la classe et des activités. Il s'agit de permettre aux élèves de travailler à leur propre rythme, principalement en compréhension à l'audition et en compréhension à la lecture, en leur donnant un « accès libre » à différents documents" (Simons, 2020-2021).

[6] Information from: http://www.enseignement.be/index.php?page=27203&id=903#:~:text=En%20Belgique%2C%20le%20tableau%20blanc,Ville%20de%20Bruxelles%20une%20cinquantaine.

The following sections will present and discuss each use of video. Afterwards, the importance of video in official documents will be considered. Figure 4 presents a mind-map summarising the uses of video that are going to be discussed.

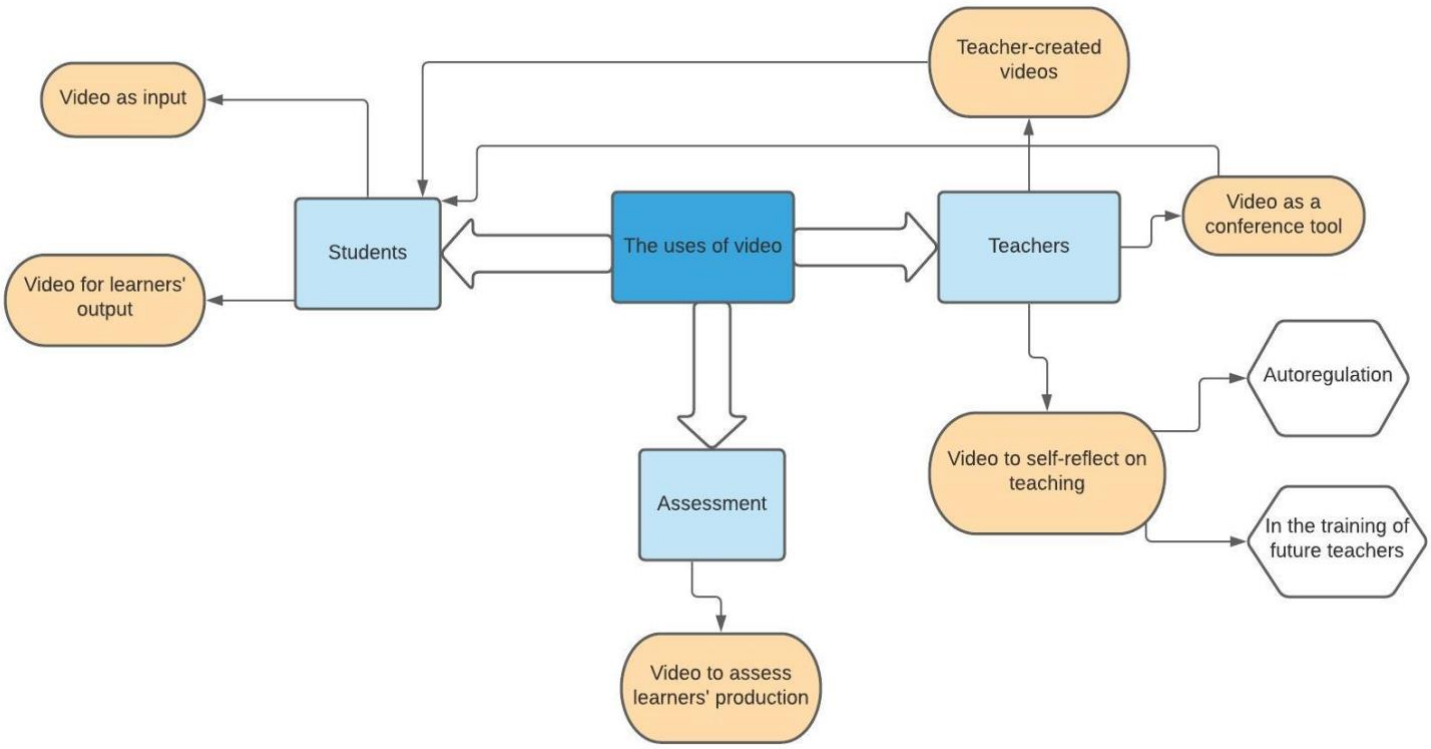

Figure 4: The uses of video presented in this dissertation

2.3 Video as input

The first use that Keddie (2014) points out is video as a way of providing foreign language input. As defined before, within the context of this study input means receiving information in a foreign language. Many researchers wrote on this use (e.g., Weyers, 1999; Tschrinen, 2001; Hofer, 2005; Çakir, 2006; Shrosbree, 2008; Berk, 2009; Woolfitt, 2015). On the basis of these studies, this section will first analyse different forms of video (Section 2.3.1), then advantages of using video as input (Section 2.3.2), and finally problems encountered with this use (Section 2.3.3).

Harmer (2007) claims that video is richer than audio because watchers can see body movements, clothes, locations and these features give clues about the meaning of the message that is expressed in these videos. Harmer (2007) states that video used as input is similar to

listening exercises. So, listening skills and principles also apply to the use of video as input. Video as input is similar to listening to recorded discussions but with more means that help learners understand (Harmer, 2007). In other studies (Čepon, 2013; Fleck et al., 2014; Wang, 2014; Kostereliogl u, 2016…) it is stated that most learners already watch a lot of films and videos on websites. They often use video to receive information even if it is not especially information in a foreign language. Indeed, pupils may watch videos in their mother tongue because these are easier to understand or because they are related to their own culture so they can easily associate what is shown with their own lives.

2.3.1 Forms of videos for input

When using video as input, researchers (Çakir, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Berk, 2009; Keddie, 2014; Hadijah, 2016; Kostereliogl u, 2016) claim that the selection of video is really important. In order to know how to select an appropriate video, one needs to know about the different forms of it. There are two main forms: authentic and non-authentic videos. In this section, these forms will be defined and discussed.

2.3.1.1 Authentic videos

The first form of video is authentic video. Authentic material can be used in language classrooms. Richards and Schmidt (2010) define "authentic material" as:

> "In language teaching, authentic material means the use of materials that were not originally developed for pedagogical purposes, such as the use of magazines, newspapers, advertisements, news reports, or songs. Such materials are often thought to contain more realistic and natural examples of language use than those found in textbooks and other specially developed teaching materials." (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 43)

Woottipong (2014) also points out that authentic material is material designed for other purposes than teaching. She claims that it can take the form of written texts, audio recordings or videos. Sherman (2003) focused specifically on authentic video and defined it as "all kinds of programme you normally see at the cinema, on TV or on DVD: feature films, documentaries, commercials, game shows, educational films… (Sherman, 2003: 1). In other words, the first purpose of authentic video is not to teach a language but to entertain or inform native speakers.

Authentic videos can come from broadcast TV-programmes, from YouTube or other digital video sites, from social media or from films and series[7]. These videos can easily be used in classrooms (Tschirner, 2001). This type of video brings authenticity in classrooms; it is thus linked to Viau's motivational dynamics. Researchers claim that with this form of video, learners can see the spoken language in an authentic way, they see people's behaviour, their body movements, their reactions, their habits and their culture (Stempleski, 1987; Herron et al., 1995; Weyers, 1999; Tschirner, 2001; Çakir, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Shrosbree, 2008; Polat & Erişti, 2019). In *The practice of English language teaching,* Harmer (2007) states that authentic videos provide learners with a "language in use" with paralinguistic behaviour (p. 308). This means that it supplies language input (Çakir, 2006).

2.3.1.2 Non-authentic videos

A non-authentic video is a video which is designed to be used in teaching and learning processes[8].

Unfortunately, I have not found any literature dealing with the benefits of the use of non-authentic videos. Existing studies mainly deal with the impact of authentic videos but I believe that non-authentic videos can also have a positive impact on learning and that it can help teachers clarify a subject or support a lesson (for example in the explanation of a grammar rule or a difficult topic such as a topic in history or politics).

Furthermore, Shrosbree (2008) claims that one can edit, put subtitles or simplify authentic videos to make them suitable for teaching. This can be done by using Krashen's "input hypothesis" in which it is suggested to provide learners with an input that is one level above their own level. By doing so, teachers can adapt videos to their learners. However, this theory is not first aimed at videos but at input in general. Section 2.3.2 will provide more information about this theory. Besides, in Simons's (2019-2020) course notes there is a figure (Figure 5) that shows this process of making material more suitable for learners. This figure is not related to videos, but the process is more or less the same because videos can also be simplified or complexified.

[7] From: https://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/five-tips-using-authentic-video-classroom
[8] Definition adapted from: https://www.tesolcourse.com/tesol-glossary/Authentic-and-Non-Authentic-Materials/

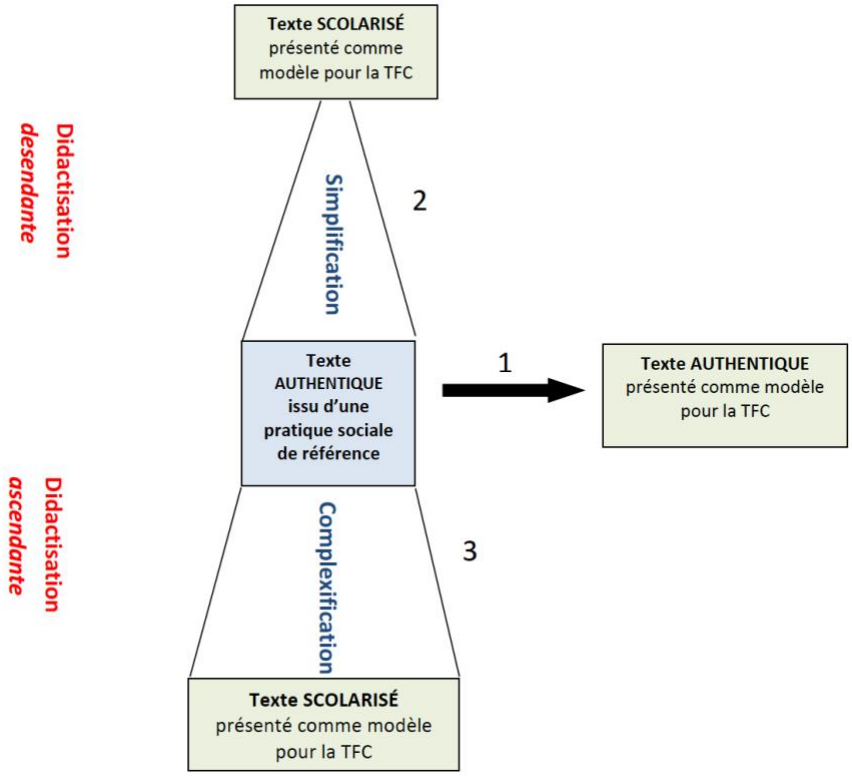

Figure 5: Process of simplifying or complexifying a text in Simons (2019-2020: 180)

Non-authentic videos can thus be more interesting with this process because it can help provide a more appropriate input regarding learners' level. It can also be more suitable for course topics, as it is not always possible to find authentic videos on each class subject. Harmer (2007) also points out that it is not always possible to provide learners with authentic language, especially lower-level learners but he claims that even if teachers use non-authentic material, they have to be careful that the language is as much like "real-life language" as possible.

2.3.2 Advantages in using video as input

In this part, advantages for the use of videos as input will be presented. Some advantages have already been tackled in the previous sections so these will only be shortly analysed and other advantages will be explained.

The first advantage is, as Keddie (2014) claims, that video offers rich resources for language learning thanks to its rich source of grammar, vocabulary, accent. Yousef, Chatti and Schroeder (2014) conducted a study in which they analysed current studies made on video-based learning. They selected 67 peer reviews and examined them in terms of effectiveness,

teaching methods, design and reflection. They concluded that, based on the analysis, video can improve learning outcomes[9] and learning satisfaction (Yousef et al., 2014). Besides, Wang (2014) analysed the use of video materials on the basis of his classroom practices. He found out that video could be a great resource for students to acquire a good pronunciation and other linguistic skills (intonation, stress, sounds). Finally, Harmer (2007) claims that learners must be exposed to different varieties of English in order to be aware that there are differences even in one country and in order to see the culture of the language they are learning. Nevertheless, Harmer (2007) addresses this exposure in the section about listening skills of his book, so he states that it can be done through recorded material and not only through videos.

The advantage of motivation has already been pointed out, but here another element will be added. Indeed, language input, especially the authentic one, can motivate learners but Harmer (2007) states that in order to motivate learners even more, the material should neither be too difficult nor too easy. This is linked to Krashen's input hypothesis as stated above. Krashen (1985) claims that "we progress along the natural order by understanding input that contains structures at our "next" stage" (1985: 80). He states that "i" is the current level and "i+1" is the next level. For Krashen (1985), one is able to understand "i+1" thanks to the context of a text. In other words, Krashen states that input should neither be too simple nor too complicated but it should be one level above the understanding level of many learners (Krashen, 1985). Once more, this is not restricted to videos, it can also be done through recorded audio without visuals. This theory shows that the selection of video is really important: as Keddie (2014) claims, a well-selected video and well-created activities may maintain learners' curiosity and interest.

Another advantage is that, with online videos, subtitles and captions can be used. Subtitles can be translations of the spoken audio for audiences who do not speak the language, but they can also just be transcriptions of the audio. Captions are subtitles of the language in use that describe what is happening as well as what is said. Captions are often created for viewers who cannot hear (Peters et al., 2016). Figure 6 shows an example of subtitles and Figure 7 shows an example of captions.

[9] Yousef et al. (2014) define learning outcomes as: "knowledge, skills and abilities that learners have to achieve as a result of the learning process" (p. 114).

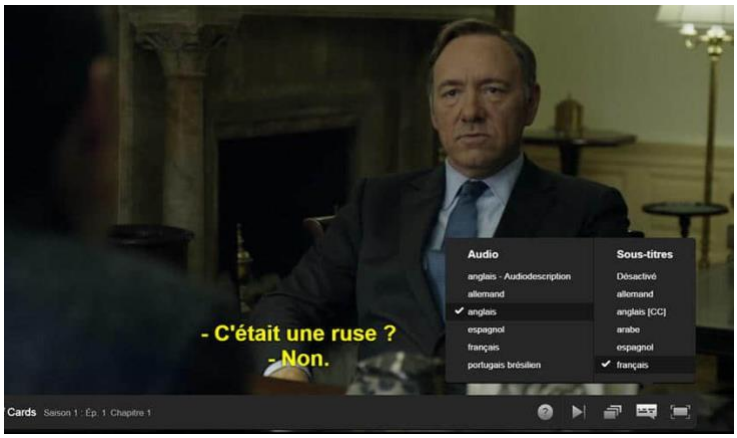

Figure 6: Example of subtitles

Figure 7: Example of captions

Peters et al. (2016) claim that subtitles provide learners with language input thanks to translations and they are also a good way to make foreign language films and videos available for non-native speakers. Captions, as well as subtitles in the target language, in turn, provide input in a written way. Moreover, learners hear what is written, so they have aural input. Peters et al. (2016) carried out a study with two experiments, the aim of which was to determine effects of subtitles and captions in the mother tongue on the learning of vocabulary. They did the same experiment in two different schools (a general school and a vocational school). They showed a video with captions to one group and a video with first language subtitles to another group. They found out that captions and subtitles could help to learn new words. Nevertheless, they confess that the number of words that pupils learned was small. Furthermore, Čepon (2013) points out that above listening skills, thanks to subtitles and captions, reading skills are also practised because students listen to the soundtrack and to the conversations and meanwhile they read subtitles, so these two skills can thus be practiced at the same time with subtitled videos. However, the improvement of reading skills will be less important if subtitles are in the mother tongue. Videos with integrated subtitles or captions can be found on online sites such as Tedtalks or YouTube. Some videos do not have them but, as Shrosbree (2008) claimed, it is possible to edit videos in order to add subtitles or captions.

A last advantage is that video gives the opportunity to stop, rewind and replay (Bates, 2015). Kostereliogl u (2016) also indicated that one can watch a video unlimitedly, which enables a deeper understanding of the video. Again, this can also be done with recorded audio without visuals. Most of the advantages presented in this part also hold for audio material without visuals and this can be an obstacle for the use of video. This obstacle will be explained in the following part.

2.3.3 Problems in using video as input

It seems that there are many benefits in using video as input but one can still encounter problems while implementing this use.

The first obstacle to use video is that some teachers prefer using recorded audio without visuals (CD for example) because they fear that if they use video, students will focus more on the images and not enough on the language or on what they hear (Harmer, 2007). So, most of the advantages stated above apply to the use of audio material. In the analysis of the survey in Section 4 more reasons for the use of audio without visuals will be discovered on the basis of teachers' answers.

Then, another problem is the selection of video. According to Berk (2009), the selection of video should be made in accordance with the age, level, gender, and ethnicity of learners. Furthermore, teachers have to think of the goals behind the use of a certain video and should be careful that the video is not harmful for learners (p. 7). The length of video is important, as well as the learners' background and knowledge. Nevertheless, the process of selection is not easy and Berk (2009) does not provide clues for an appropriate selection. He only states that teachers should know their learners but this statement is problematic because it would mean that if teachers want to show a video at the beginning of the year without knowing students, it would be impossible. Moreover, Keddie (2014) also writes about the content of videos and he states that there are several contents possible. For him, a video can be funny, entertaining, informative or educational. He states that the selection of the content is linked with the aim(s) of lessons.

An issue can also be the role or attitude that learners have while watching video. Harmer (2007) claims that learners should not watch videos passively. He states that there must be a difference between watching a video in classrooms and watching TV or videos at home. There must be good reasons to watch a video and these reasons should be explicitly expressed (p.256). If the reasons are not explicit and if the difference between classroom and home is not made, the danger is that learners can treat the video as they treat watching TV, meaning that they may watch it uncritically and without attention (Harmer, 2007: 144). Hadija (2016) agrees with Harmer (2007) and writes that in order to avoid that, teachers have to fully engage learners in activities and make them active viewers. Techniques to make students more active while watching video will be presented in the practical part of this dissertation. Even though there are techniques for a more effective use of video in classrooms, Çakir (2006) clearly points out that video cannot replace teachers. That is why, as already stated, video is a means that can be used during classes but it is not an approach in itself.

Internet access can also cause problems (Keddie, 2014). Not all school and all classrooms have Internet access, so it is not always possible to show online videos. A solution to this problem would be, as I did during my teaching internship, to download the video (if it is copyright-free of course) and to put it on a memory stick to show it in class. Another solution is to bring a computer and use data tethering[10].

Other problems in using videos are copyrights. The copyright law gives authors and creators the right to protect their work. This law is mainly created to respect the creativity and originality of authors and creators. The Economic Law Code[11] in Belgium points out that everything that is found on the Internet is protected by the copyright law even if the copyright mention or authors are not specified. It is thus normally illegal to download copyrighted material and the sanction is to pay a fine. Nevertheless, this does not stop teachers from using copyrighted material. Article 5 of this law[12] makes exceptions for educational purposes. Indeed, copyrighted material can be used in education under some conditions: the use of copyrighted materials should be done under the responsibility of the institution (school), it must be used within the schools' classrooms in which only learners and teachers can have access and the use cannot be made outside schools. Still, on the website of the Economic Code, they suggest to buy the copyrighted material in order to have it legally. There are also copyright-free materials that can be found on the Internet. So, in order to be sure, the use of copyright-free documents may be wiser.

To conclude, this section has dealt with video as input. There are two main video forms that can be used in classrooms for input: authentic and non-authentic videos. There is little literature available on non-authentic video; many researchers suggest more using authentic videos to enable students to see the target culture and increase their attention. Video as input may have many advantages for learners (motivation, language improvement, helping to understand, etc.). However, there are also some problems with this use and teachers should help learners to get significant input with well-selected videos and well-prepared activities.

[10] Definition of data tethering: using your phone's data to connect another phone, computer or tablet to the Internet.
[11] From: https://economie.fgov.be/fr/themes/propriete-intellectuelle/droits-de-pi/droits-dauteur-et-droits/droits-dauteur/le-droit-dauteur-sur-internet
[12] From: https://economie.fgov.be/fr/themes/propriete-intellectuelle/droits-de-pi/droits-dauteur-et-droits/droits-dauteur/directive-europeenne-sur-le

2.4 Video for learners' output

Another use of video that is pointed out by researchers is language output. As defined earlier, within the context of this study, output means: giving information in a foreign language. It is a production task (speaking and writing tasks). Information can be given by teachers or by learners and a production task can be filmed by teachers or by learners themselves. This section will be based on studies dealing with this subject (e.g., Biegel, 1998; Shrosbree, 2008; Duc Su, 2010; Greene & Crespi, 2012; Green, 2014; Engin, 2014; Naqvi, 2015; Anas, 2019; Annan, Onodipe & Stephenson, 2019; Gajek, 2019; Campbell, Heller & DeMara, 2020; Cowie & Sakui, 2020; Graul et al., 2020). First, the reasons for using video as output will be presented as well as the problems encountered with this use (Sections 2.4.1 and 2.4.2). Video genres of learner-created videos will finally be tackled in Section 2.4.3.

Learner-created videos can focus on content, for example to deepen or explain a subject (Engin, 2014; Greene, 2014; Cowie & Sakui, 2020) or on a specific topic seen during classes, for role-plays, for example (Shrosbree, 2008; Duc Su, 2010; Anas, 2019). The term "content videos" is defined in Darus et al.'s (2014) study, as "lectures that are recorded to create an actual in-class experience" (p. 243). In other words, learners can produce a video to explain a subject to fellow learners or to deal with a certain topic discussed in class (through role plays, interviews, documentaries). An advantage is that videos can be used to provide a model to learners of a future classroom (if learners of next year are supposed to do the same task) for example. These model videos can also be used as "input" because learners see that if other learners were able to realise the task, they can also realise it. There is thus a difference between model/content videos that are used to show content and to be shared with fellow learners and production task videos that are used to practise oral skills (e.g. weather forecast). These types of videos can be assessed by learners and by teachers. Assessment by teachers, as well as peer and self-assessment will be discussed in the following section.

2.4.1 Reasons for using video as output

In Section 2.2, "general aspects of video", many advantages have been presented. Naturally, some also apply for video as output. In this section, advantages and reasons for practising this specific use will be discussed thanks to different studies. Unfortunately, some studies have not been realised in language classrooms but I do believe that the results also apply to language classrooms.

The first reason that is presented in research for using video as output is that it enables learners to be active in their learning. In this use, their activeness can clearly be noticed; students are active in the process as they have to create content for videos; they can themselves or have teachers film them (Greene & Crespi, 2012; Naqvi, 2015; Gajek, 2019; Anas, 2019). Gajek (2019) claims that the creation of videos allows interaction between classroom activities and learners' personal environment. Moreover, Naqvi (2015) conducted a study in which students had to create a content video to teach fellow students a subject in order to see the efficiency of teaching from another tutor. She established three research questions and the first one was about students' perspectives on the role of student-created videos on their affective involvement in language learning (p. 250). She discovered that more or less 70% of students agreed to say that "it was active learning because they were learning while being engaged in various activities instead of being passive recipients of knowledge" (Naqvi, 2015: 250).

Related to the first point, there is also the fact that, in this use, teachers become more like guides or coaches. Greene (2014) states that it is an advantage for teachers because they are the ones who give guidance and learners are the ones who control the project. In fact, in his study, in which 18 students had to create a video to explain learning objectives of a class to other students, he noticed that these students bond tighter with the teacher and that cooperation between them was more positive because they saw the teacher like a guide who helped them realise the task (Greene, 2014).

This leads to the fact that students are more autonomous in their learning. Indeed, Anas (2019) wanted to know how students work on a video creating project. Therefore, he conducted a study in which 41 students were expected to create a video on a specific topic seen during classes. Instructions were given to students; tools were provided and afterwards videos were viewed by teachers first and then teachers and students together. Anas (2019) states that during the creation of videos; students were autonomous, as they had to search for information, search for the content they wanted to include in their video and also look for ways of editing their videos. However, he noticed that some students did not have any knowledge in video-editing. Therefore, these students looked for help, they asked other people to help them edit videos (Anas, 2019: 49).

Besides, if a student asks another student for help (Anas, 2019), it increases social skills. Anas (2019) claims that in his study, the process of asking for assistance allowed students to learn from others because they had social interactions. If students work in groups, they have to collaborate in order to create a video, they are engaged in a cooperative learning (Ting, 2012). The concept of student-created videos encourages thus learners to acquire new knowledge by

working together and collaboratively in front of the problems that they can encounter. This advantage is linked to Vygotsky's socio-constructivist principles (Navqi, 2015). In fact, Vygostsky puts emphasis on social influence and social interactions (Fagnant, 2020). Nevertheless, there can be disagreements within these student groups, and the concept of group-working can create problems (Ting, 2012). This disadvantage will be explained in the following section.

Another advantage that is expressed by researchers is that learner-created videos increase creativity, as stated in Ting (2012), Greene (2014), Annan et al. (2019), Campbell et al. (2020). Annan et al. (2019) carried out a qualitative study in the shape of a flipped classroom[13]. First students were taught the content of chapters with short videos and then they had to create their own videos on other aspects of the same chapters and content. Students had handouts to help them create videos and during each class period they had time to work on their videos. Then, videos were published on an online platform so that their peers could watch them. A questionnaire was provided to discuss their perceptions. In this questionnaire, many students answered positively to the fact that student-created videos encouraged them to think creatively during the process (Annan et al., 2019: 27). Similarly, Ting (2012) also had the same results in his qualitative study where students were asked to create a short-themed video. Then, they answered questions about their opinions on this video-project and a student answered that they could use their creativity while recording videos. However, in order for students to use their creative skills, topics should interest them (Biegel, 1998).

The fact that students have to make research for the content of their videos is included in thinking skills (Annan et al. 2019). Annan et al. (2019) investigated, in their study, the increase of thinking skills through student-created videos. These thinking skills include: analysing, researching, synthesizing, simplifying, explaining, creating (Engin, 2014; Annan et al., 2019; Graul et al. 2020). In Engin's (2014) study, learners had to create a video on various topics (such as: writing a research question, organising an argumentative essay and writing a research proposal). Engin (2014) argues that students can develop their language through researching or simplifying documents. In her study, students reported that researching about the topic and researching resources helped them learn more about the topic, and explain it better.

[13] "The concept of the flipped classroom is a combination of reversed inside and outside classroom activities. Students take the responsibility of the outside-classroom activities through watching videos, visiting course-related websites, listening to audios, reading related references etc. On the other hand, teachers have to create an interactive inside-classroom environment which enhances pair work, group work, hands-on activities and high-level thinking activities." (Alsowat, 2016).

They also reported that the process of simplifying was important because they could not teach the information as they found them, they were obliged to simplify to make it more comprehensible (Engin, 2014). In order to simplify, they needed to understand and then synthesise the documents. Engin (2014) states that these processes gave occasions for learners to practise the target language (p. 18). Even if Engin (2014) presents this in higher education, I argue that some of these skills are also suitable for secondary education, especially in project-based learning for example, in which skills such as researching information, summarising it and synthetising are important features of the process of learning. In order to simplify and synthetise, it is important to use reflective/thinking skills (Annan et al. 2019). Moreover, by producing a video in the foreign language, learners can have a sense of pride.

It appears thus that the use of video for output can also help in the development of language skills, as stated above (by summarising for example), which is another important reason for implementing this use. In Navqi's (2015) study, it is claimed that student-created videos can improve language skills. The second research question of her study was: *what are the students' perspectives on the role of student-created digital video in enhancing their English language skills?* Most of the students (more or less 60%) agreed on the fact that student-created videos enhanced their language skills; regarding their involvement in English learning, their confidence in speaking, their writing skills and their reading skills (pp. 254-255).

A last information to add to this part is that some researchers claim that contend-based videos in which students record themselves to teach a subject to their peers help others understand class subjects better (Greene, 2014; Graul et al. 2020). In fact, in Greene's (2014) study, peers understood better the learning objectives of the classes thanks to student-created videos. Furthermore, the same results appeared in Graul et al.'s (2020) study. In this study, a mid-term exam was replaced by student-created videos in which students explained a specific content of the class. Peers had to evaluate their videos. It is stated that during the viewing of videos, students felt like they learned better than with traditional lessons. However, another research showed the contrary. In Engin's (2014) study it appears that students prefer teachers' explanations rather than peers' explanations; she even states that students had problems with the "trustworthiness" of a peer video. Students even sometimes asked for extra explanation from teachers (Engin, 2014: 20). Similarly, in Abulencia et al.'s (2014) study, they rejected their hypothesis that stated that students learned better through peer explanation because results showed that it was not the case.

2.4.2 Problems with the use of video as output

Despite the benefits that are presented by researches, the current literature also points out problems while using videos as output.

The first problem encountered by learners and expressed by researchers (Ting, 2012; Greene, 2014; Anas, 2019; Annan et al. 2019) is the lack of learners' technical skills. Throughout the literature presented in the previous sections it was stated that learners were mainly good at using technologies. However, in the findings of other studies it seems that learners have gaps in using video editing programmes and in using recording tools. It has already been stated that Anas (2019) discovered that students had difficulties in using video-editing programmes. He also claims that some students did not have knowledge in the use of video recording tools, which made the task even more difficult (Anas, 2019). The majority of the students, in Anas' (2019) study, used their smartphone as recording tools because they knew better how to handle it. Even before Anas' (2019) study, Ting (2012) had the same findings; students confessed that one of the main challenges was to deal with technology and video-editing programmes (p. 445). Linked to this problem, there are also issues regarding Internet access in schools (Anas, 2019). It has already been claimed, in the previous section, that Internet accessibility was an important component to enable teachers to show videos. The same applies for video recordings. These problems can occur at school, when teachers give time to learners to work on the project, as in Anas' (2019) study; students faced Internet connexion problems when they were looking for information to create their videos. Nowadays, with the Covid-19 situation, teachers often hear of Internet problems that happen at home[14]. This raises the problem of digital equality discussed in Cowie and Sakui (2020). It is also claimed that there are inequalities in digital uses between home and study/work spaces (Selwyn & Jandrić, 2020) and that teachers should be aware of these inequalities. Gajek (2019) also points out that these technologies are not available for every student and that it can rise ethical issues for teachers; they have to be careful to the task they give to students (Gajek, 2019).

Another issue is that, for some reasons, there are people who do not like to be filmed and to watch themselves afterwards (Waters, 2011). In Ting's (2012) qualitative study, to the question about "implementation of video project", students gave responses like "*I cannot act!*" or "*I was shocked and afraid because I have never experienced a project like that*" (p. 445). In Greene's (2014) results, a student gave a negative comment to their video creation project by saying that they were "*embarrassed to be filmed and put online for others to see*". Biegel had,

[14] During my teaching internship I also heard about such problems. However, one should be aware that these problems can also be invented by students to avoid following classes.

in 1998, already pointed out this problem by writing about the reluctance of learners to being videoed and having this video seen by fellow learners. He even stated that a way to reduce anxiety would be to put a camera in class more often so that learners can become familiar with it (Biegel, 1998). I do believe that this can still apply nowadays.

A major problem is also the time that the creation of videos takes. Ting (2012), Naqvi (2015), Anas (2019), Campbell et al. (2020), for example, wrote about this matter. In Ting (2012), for instance, students' main complaining is about the time that it took to create, record and edit videos. Naqvi (2015) claims that student-created videos take time to produce and that it does not seem possible to devote class time to create videos. Students have to work outside class hours, at home (Naqvi, 2015). Greene and Crespi (2012) also found out that student-created videos require more preparation than a traditional presentation (p. 273). Linked to the problem of video-editing, Duc Su (2010) states that if students spend a lot of time on editing video to create a high-quality video, the content can be less worked than the form. In order not to overwhelm learners with work and in order for learners to keep their ideas short and not spend a lot of time on the creation, Goldstein (2016) suggests to ask for videos of two or three minutes maximum.

A last problem that has been encountered in Ting's (2012) study is the group work. Indeed, group works can be beneficial, but they can also present issues. In his study, many students complained about disagreements within groups regarding the content or the editing of their videos. Some students also pointed out misbehaviours in front of cameras; some could not stop laughing, for example. One student concluded by saying that if these disagreements did not occur, they could have finished their video earlier than in a two, three or four weeks-time (Ting, 2012). Of course, a learner-created video should not especially be done in groups, it can be done alone, so group disagreements can be avoided.

2.4.3 Video genres in learner-created videos

Learners can produce different genres while creating a video. This section will be based on Goldstein's (2016) video in which he presents different video genres[15]. At the beginning of the video, he defines "genre" as a "type of video". He claims that with new sharing platforms (like YouTube) there are new video genres that emerge all the time.

Goldstein (2016) states that it is important to understand video genres in the same way as it is important to know text genres. In texts, it enables to "read between the lines" and in a

[15] Retrieved from: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SbgZjlOxGKI

video it enables to "look beyond the frame". By knowing genres and by mastering their features, students can act in a specific communication situation (Simons, 2020). For example, we will not read a newspaper the same way we read a novel. Similarly, we will not watch an advertisement the same way we watch a vlog. That is the reason why genres are important. Moreover, Goldstein (2016) claims that understanding genres can help learners create better videos themselves.

He points out certain online genres: "how to" videos, vlogs that are video blogs which, he states; are really popular with teenagers, "do it yourself" videos, react videos[16], also music videos and pranks[17]. There are also teasers, which are shorter trailers. He also mentions stealth advertising videos[18], animations, charity campaigns and video poetry. Moreover, one can also find video memes[19], "bloopers"[20], video art, haul videos[21] or unboxing videos[22]. There are also remixes and parodies, often linked to video clips. Goldstein (2016) claims that these genres are often watched by learners, or even sometimes reproduced. However, he claims that in order to imitate and create videos themselves, learners have to understand the generic characteristics of these kinds of videos. In other words, these genres can certainly be used in class, but if teachers ask learners to create one of them, it is important to help them understand the generic features of them. For example, if teachers ask learners to create an advertisement, the characteristics of an advertisement video should be taught in class before the creation process. Nevertheless, Cowie and Sakui (2020) claim that if students are already used to watch such videos (advertisements, pranks, hauls, etc.), then the learning impact will be minimal because they will not want to keep watching or creating these kinds of videos (p.3). The selection of video genres is thus important; teachers can rely on what learners are used to watch at home (by giving them a questionnaire at the beginning of the year for example) and they can also rely on what is recommended by teaching curricula. For example, advertisements are everywhere so it can be used in class because it is already known by learners. However, following the advice of Cowie and Sakui (2020), the use of already known video genres does not have to be exaggerated in order not to weary learners. Another possible activity is to ask leaners to produce "teasers" of films or books in order to make other learners want to watch a film or read a book.

[16] When someone is watching a video and commenting on what is happening in it.
[17] A prank is a practical joke.
[18] Used by companies to advert people without making them notice that they are watching an advertisement.
[19] "A meme is something such as a video, picture, or phrase that a lot of people send to each other on the Internet." From: https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/meme
[20] Unexpected accidents, mistakes in live broadcasts.
[21] A video in which someone shows what they have bought in a shop and how much it cost.
[22] A video in which someone unboxes what they have bought, the action of unwrapping the item.

To conclude this section on learner-created videos, one can notice that there are different aspects to take into account when asking learners to create a video. After having analysed literature on that matter, it seems that learners and teachers can benefit from learner-created videos. Nevertheless, some researchers also point out problems in using video as output. Goldstein (2016) made a clear video that explains the different video genres that can be found on the Internet. It is thus important to keep in mind that when asking learners to make a video, teachers should give clear instructions and teach them about the genre that is going to be produced.

2.5 Teacher-created videos

2.5.1 Model for learners

In their article, Cowie and Sakui (2020) discussed about teacher and learner-created videos. They pointed out that, with the revolution in digital technology, more and more teachers are creating and sharing their own videos on the Internet (Cowie and Sakui, 2020: 1). They have examined the reasons for teachers to create videos.

In the part "why make and share videos?" (p. 2), Cowie and Sakui (2020), state that teachers can be "role models" for learners. They can create videos in which they show the vocabulary that has to be used, the expected language structures and pronunciation (Cowie and Sakui, 2020). For example, if a teacher asks learners to create an advertising video, they can themselves create an example and show it to learners. This will help learners see what is expected from them. Once more, if learners do not want to watch such videos because they already watch them at home, the outcomes will not be maximal (Cowie and Sakui, 2020). So, there seems to be a contradiction between this research and what has been claimed in other studies. Indeed, many researchers stated that using video genres that learners already know and watch is motivating because we are bringing something from their life in classrooms but Cowie and Sakui (2020) seem to disagree and claim that if the same genres are used at school, it makes them more pedagogic, which can be boring for learners.

Furthermore, Shrosbree (2008) also points out that teachers can make model videos to develop speaking skills because they visually demonstrate what pupils have to do in oral tasks. However, he also claims that poor teacher-created videos can provide negative models because pupils can analyse and use errors that are made (Shrosbree, 2008).

A problem that has been pointed out in learner-created videos seems to also occur in teacher-created videos, which is the lack of teachers' technical skills in creating and editing

videos, as stated in Boté-Vericad (2020). He states that in traditional teaching ways there is no need to create videos, so some teachers do not acquire these skills. With the Covid-19 pandemic, the situation has changed and they had to acquire new skills, which was difficult (Boté-Vericad, 2020). Boté-Vericad and his team made an experiment in which they helped creating and publishing videos with educational content at University of Barcelona. They claim that they had to help teachers make and edit videos because they did not know how to proceed (Boté-Vericad, 2020).

2.5.2 Content videos

Teacher-created content videos have the same basis principles as learner-created content videos. The aim is to explain a class subject (Draus et al., 2014). The same definition can here be used for teacher-created content videos: "lectures that are recorded to create an actual in-class experience" (Draus et al., 2014, p. 243). The term "podcast"[23] can also be used. In Draus et al.'s (2014) study, lectures were recorded and put on school platforms in order to enable learners to watch them.

As stated above, Boté-Vericad (2020) has written an article on online teaching ways that appeared during the Covid-19 pandemic. He claims that, at University of Barcelona, they preferred to create content videos rather than online live teaching because students could have technical issues (Internet access and audio/video quality problems) (p. 400). However, he states that, during his experience of recording educational videos, there were different parameters to take into account such as the length of the video, the speed of speaking and the style of video (Boté-Vericad, 2020). He suggests to record an educational video of five to seven minutes in order to maintain learners' focus on the content of the video (p. 401). Moreover, he says that it may be necessary to add subtitles to some videos. Altaher (2020) conducted a study in which she investigated the use of multicultural videos in English courses. She claims that when adding subtitles to English videos, it can help students to learn new vocabulary words (Altaher, 2020), which is similar to Peter et al.'s (2016) findings.

Draus et al. (2014) conducted a study on instructor-generated content videos. They investigated the influence of these types of videos on students' satisfaction, engagement and performance. In this study, instructors created lecture videos which they recorded at home. This showed students a personal side of their teachers (p. 243). They published these videos online

[23] Definition of podcast: a broadcast that is placed on the Internet for anyone who wants to listen to it or watch it. From: https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/podcast

on the university's platform as well as PowerPoint presentations of the course. They found out that students did no longer use the PowerPoint presentations because videos were enough. In their survey on students' satisfaction, it was shown that students valued instructor-generated videos. Moreover, their grades increased (Draus et al., 2014). This is similar to the system of "flipped classroom", defined earlier. In fact, teachers can publish videos on school platforms and ask learners to watch them and then discuss them in class. This type of organisation can be used for remediation or to enable learners to be more autonomous in their learning[24].

In conclusion, based on the studies presented in this section it seems that learners can benefit from teacher-created videos. However, just as in learner-created videos, there are problems while creating educational videos. Studies suggest to take these issues into account in order to create well-suited videos for learners.

2.6 Video to assess learners' production

Learner-created videos can be assessed by teachers (Shrosbree, 2008; De Marneffe, 2008-2009; Kotula, 2015) and/or by peers and/or by oneself (Conrad and Openo, 2018; Graul et al. 2020), while watching video in class or after classes.

2.6.1 Teacher assessment

Teachers can assess learner-created videos while watching this video in class and provide learners with direct feedback. On the other hand, videos can be watched at home and feedback can be given to learners afterwards. Filming learners can be done for formative assessment and/or certifying assessment. During formative assessment, it will help learners to regulate their language and discourse (Masats et al., 2009; Kotula, 2015). During certifying assessment, it will enable teachers to provide correct feedback to learners (De Marneff, 2009). Although, I have not found many studies about the use of video to assess learners objectively; I have thus decided to interview teachers who implemented this use in their classrooms. These interviews will be examined in the last chapter of this dissertation.

Shrosbree (2008) states that video can lend itself to presentations and public speaking. In his article, he also claims that through videos used to assess productions; students can see what they need to improve in their language. He also states that teachers can watch videos more than once for a better grading (p. 78).

[24] This type of organisation is implemented by some teachers I know.

Masats, Dooly and Costa (2009) conducted a study that aimed to explore the use of video tools in language learning. They also claim that with learner-recorded videos, learners have the opportunity to be confronted to their errors and reflect on their discourse. The authors report that the main goal of filming students to watch them later is not to interrupt them in their discourse. Furthermore, they report that it is an easy way to save students' monologues and dialogues and watch them later to analyse errors correctly. Teachers can watch these videos at an appropriate moment for them (Masats et al., 2009). Ribeaud (2019), in his dissertation, investigated the use of videos to provide feedback. He filmed students in order to watch their videos afterwards. He found out that filming students was a good means for teachers to provide correct feedback with less pressure because they had the opportunity to watch the video several times (p. 12).

De Marneffe (2009) wrote a dissertation on how pre-service teachers give corrective feedback. She carried out a study in which she followed trainees from University of Liege during their internship. She filmed these trainees while giving feedback. She discovered that giving live feedback was not always a significant idea because many pre-service teachers corrected errors that were not committed by pupils. Sometimes, they also corrected the wrong mistakes or even the wrong pupils. She found out that these inconsistencies happened with trainees who did not have a good language level because they made mistakes themselves while talking and correcting errors. Moreover, they did not correct all the errors and the explanation of the mistakes were sometimes not clear for pupils (p. 85). De Marneffe (2009) suggested then that filming students could be a relevant idea in order to avoid such problems. Therefore, she interviewed a secondary school teacher who recorded their pupils in certifying assessments. The teacher explained that pupils filmed themselves while talking, in class, for the assessment and this gave her the opportunity to assess every student within one class hour because then she just had to listen to the recordings at home. This is not possible during traditional evaluation because pupils have to wait for others to take the test and wait for their turn, while recordings and videos can be filmed individually and at the same time. It also gives the opportunity to pupils to receive appropriate feedback for their task. However, the teacher claimed that an important issue in this practice is that the viewing of videos at home is time consuming.

Video is a medium that can be useful to provide learners with correct feedback, as stated above. Kotula (2015) carried out a study on the types of feedback given to learners. In his study, he investigates the role of "technology-enhanced delayed feedback in language learning". He asked 45 students to record a video. These videos were uploaded on a private channel on YouTube and two annotation tools were used to correct mistakes based on Lyster, Saito and

Sato's (2013) work: reformulation[25] and prompts[26]. Then, a questionnaire was completed by students to express which way of correcting was more efficient. In this research, Kotula (2015) claims that, in traditional evaluation, a considerable difficulty is to intervene at the right moment to correct errors and to find an appropriate way of correcting. In this article, it is also claimed that videos are significant sources for students to see the area that needs improvement in their language (Kotula, 2015).

2.6.2 Peer and self-assessment

Learner-created videos can also be used for peer and/or self-assessment. Many studies (Shrosbree, 2008; Masats et al., 2009; Conrad and Openo, 2018; Graul et al., 2020) point out these types of assessments and present their benefits and issues.

Conrad and Openo (2018) wrote a book called *Assessment Strategies for Online Learning* in which they present features of peer assessment. They posit that it can have pedagogical advantages when used at a formative level. Based on Race (2001), they define benefits such as: students getting the chance to learn more about assessment techniques, helping teachers gain time, learners' learning getting increased because they would contribute to the building of criteria and they can learn from others (p. 96). However, they point out that learners do not have the skills to grade peers and do not know how this process works. They do not have the knowledge that teachers do (p. 97). The authors also write that besides peer assessment it is also possible to use self-evaluation. Likewise, Masats et al. (2009), claim that self-evaluation is possible while using recorded videos because learners can reflect on their language in use. Self-evaluation can have benefits because some learners do not like to being watched by others, so watching themselves without others' views can be beneficial to evaluate their own language level and regulate their production. Therefore, teachers should provide learners with an evaluation grid that they can use to self-evaluate themselves and help them to use these grids.

Graul, et al.'s (2020) study has already been explained. In this study they replaced a mid-term assessment by a student-created video project in which they used peer assessment. They experienced this study in physics but they state that it is not only related to physics and can be used in other classes. The method was the following one: students first had to create a draft video, then they received feedback to revise their work (similarly to a formative

[25] Reformulations are defined as: "Reformulations include recasts and explicit correction, because both these moves supply learners with target reformulations of their non-target output." (Lyster, Saito and Sato, 2013)
[26] Prompts are defined as: "Prompts include a variety of signals other than reformulations that push learners to self-repair (i.e. elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition)." (Lyster, Saito and Sato, 2013)

assessment) and eventually, after revising their videos they submitted them for good (for certifying assessment) on a platform. Fellow students watched these videos and delivered feedback and grades. It was beneficial for teachers because they did not have time to grade all videos and therefore, using peer assessment was an alternative for them. Nevertheless, the authors of the article found out that students did not know how to grade or give feedback, which was a major issue, such as in Conrad and Openo (2018). They claim that it is important to prepare students to deliver feedback and grades before using this method. Another issue was that students compared the videos they watched to their own videos while assessing, so the grades were not reliable. Moreover, they claim that "students seem to averse to giving poor grades on a final assessment" (p. 7), which is also another issue that makes the trustworthiness of grades doubtful. They suggest thus to use this kind of assessment only during mid-term assessments or during formative assessments and not on a final assessment, similarly to Conrad and Openo (2018).

To conclude this section, it seems that learner-created videos can be assessed both by learners or teachers. These assessment methods have benefits for learners such as acquiring new skills or for teachers because they gain time as they have to assess less. However, it seems that filming learners to assess them objectively is time consuming and peer assessment may need a training before asking learners to give feedback or to grade their peers.

2.7 Video to self-reflect on teaching

Another way of using video can be done by and for teachers. This use consists of teachers filming themselves in order to see their lessons back and to regulate their way of teaching. It is thus used by teachers for autoregulation. It is also used in the training of future teachers to show them how they teach and the needs of improvement. The majority of the studies (e.g., Thomas, 2010; Gaudin & Chaliès, 2012; Leblanc, Veyrunes, Ria, 2013; Leroy & Beckers, 2015; Navarro, 2016; François et al., 2018; De Souza et al., 2019; Goffin et al., 2012, 2019, 2020; Simons, 2012, 2020) found for this section focus on the use of video in teacher training and only a few of them point out the actual use of video from trained teachers.

The decree[27] that determines the organisation of the training of high school teachers in the French-speaking part of Belgium defines (13) professional skills that a teacher should

[27] Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles (2001) Décret de la Communauté française du 8 février 2001 définissant la formation initiale des agrégés de l'enseignement secondaire supérieur. M.B. du 22 février 2001.

acquire. In this decree the notion of "reflexive practitioner" is placed at the center of the professional identity of a teacher. The 13th skill is :

> "13. Porter un regard réflexif sur sa pratique et organiser sa formation continuée." (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles, 2001: 1)

This skill implies that future teachers should know how to reflect on their teaching. They should acquire self-evaluation and self-reflection skills. It is the reason why, nowadays, universities include this training in their programmes (Goffin et al., 2019). Gaudin and Chaliès (2012) wrote an article about the use of video in teacher training in which they state that current technical advances allow the growing use of videos, even in teacher training (p. 117). They claim that this use helps future teachers forge a bond between university theoretical classes and their internships (p. 115). Leroy and Beckers (2015) posit that this use enables the construction of pre-service teachers' professional identity, as they can be able to analyse their own teaching way and regulate the problematic parts of it. Van der Maren and Yvon (2009) quote :

> "Le meilleur support que l'on peut trouver reste néanmoins la vidéo qui permet de confronter le sujet à la fois à la situation et à sa propre action." (2009: 48)

In this quotation, the authors emphasize the fact that video makes it possible to see the situation and how teachers act in a specific situation. Simons (2012) also states that it is a way to relive the teaching experience. Moreover, Gaudin and Chaliès (2012) posit that video can be a good means to capture the complexity and variety of classrooms (p. 115). However, they point out that beginner teachers have difficulties to reflect on their teaching and state that a training is required in order to find the good way of reflecting.

This training is used at University of Liège (Uliège) during didactics classes. Some instructors of University of Liège wrote, this year, a periodical[28], in which there is a chapter on the use of video in teacher training. The use of video at Uliège is mainly based on Flandin's (2017) definition:

> "Les pratiques les plus courantes d'instrumentation vidéo en analyse de l'activité consistent à filmer les comportements d'un ou de plusieurs acteurs, puis à les faire visionner au(x) bénéficiaire(s) de l'intervention (pouvant être les mêmes ou d'autres que ceux dont les comportements ont été enregistrés)." (Flandin, 2017: 197)

The method is thus to film oneself and watch this video in order to reflect on ones' actions and then show it to fellow students to have different points of view. The name of this method is

[28] Simons, Poffé, Bekers (2020). *Didactique en pratique*, n°6. University of Liège – Centre interfacultaire de formation des Enseignants, pp. 37-95.

auto-hétéroscopie[29]. The name "crossed self-confrontation" can also be used in English to point out this practice. The word "micro-teaching" can also be used but this is more about simulation exercises of teaching.

An important resource for this method is Néopass@ction created by Luc Ria in 2010. Néopass@ction is a website with teaching resources. On this website, one can find videos on classroom situations and comments on the presented situations. The origin of the website is the work on real situations in classrooms. In teacher training in France, they used a method in which they showed novice teachers classroom situations and analysed these situations with instructors on the basis of the crossed self-reflection method (Ria, 2014). Their goal was to "show the real world of beginning teachers" (Ria, 2009). The resources presented on the website are selected in order to fit the needs of the majority of beginner teachers (Ria, 2014).

Goffin et al. (2020) wrote an article in which they point out the use of this technique with students of Uliège in the didactics class[30]. The first step is to analyse the practice of someone they do not know during the class. The goals are to reflect on someone else's practices, analyse these practices, find theoretical explanations for the situation and imagine improvement areas. Then, students have to film themselves during a class hour in their internship, watch this video on their own to write their reflections on a paper and then, choose an extract they would like to show to other students. The next step is to show the extract to fellow students in order to have different opinions. The last step is to write a paper with their reflections on their teaching. In the article, the authors examined students' views on this system and they claim that many students were satisfied and that the method appeared to have benefits. However, it also presented difficulties for students such as the fear of filming oneself and seeing oneself teach. The fear of being judged by fellow students was also omnipresent. The camera was also stressful because it could lead to unnatural behaviours. Moreover, students were questioning about the administrative part of the work (asking the permission to the internship institution for example) and they were also worried about technical problems. Finally, there were also difficulties for instructors to make students analyse only their teaching and not themselves.

Besides the practise of this use in teacher training, already trained teachers can also use it in their classrooms. The name of this technique is autoscopy. It means the use of video by oneself to self-reflect on their teaching without the help of an instructor (De Souza et al., 2019).

[29] This designation is in French because it cannot be translated into English. An equivalent is: crossed self-confrontation (Clot et al., 2000).
[30] The name of the didactics class is "Didactique générale"

In conclusion, one can notice that university classes value this use. There are however difficulties to take into account such as the students' fear in showing their videos to peers and being judged by others. Although, even if university programmes encourage pre-service teachers to reflect on their teaching, it is not sure that teachers practise it during their career. The survey in Section 4 will help clarify this statement on the basis of the ideas of trained teachers about this use.

2.8 Video as a conference tool

The last use of video on which this dissertation focuses is the use of video as a conference tool. The situation of Covid-19 changed teaching methods and teachers have had to adopt and adapt (Dwivedi and Lal, 2021). Schools in Belgium closed during the first, second and third lockdown and teachers have had to adapt their teaching ways. There are two ways of using video as a conference tool: firstly, many schools implemented learning platforms in which teachers could teach online (Microsoft Teams, Smartschool, Google Meet, etc.). Besides, online conference platforms can also be used to chat with native speakers, such as Skype, Facetime or Google Meet for example (Keddie, 2014).

Video as a conference tool used in schools is, as stated before, widespread because of the pandemic of Covid-19. A recent article on this use was written by Dwivedi and Lal (2021) with advantages and challenges of it. A first advantage is the development of educational resources for virtual classes, such as learning/teaching platforms. It is also said that there is an increase in the collaboration between teachers who share documents and help each other use online platforms for instance. However, the authors also present challenges in this use: the first one is the difficulty that teachers can have in adapting to technology and using technology. This challenge is linked to computer illiteracy with difficulties to utilise online teaching platforms. The second challenge defined in this article is "the blurring of professional and private boundaries" (p. 27). The researchers claim that teachers are constantly in touch with learners or their parents. A last disadvantage presented by the authors is that learners and teachers can have (or pretend to have) technical problems, for instance Internet connection issues due to poor Internet connectivity (Dwivedi and Lal, 2021).

Tools for communicating through videos can also be used in foreign language classroom to make students or even teachers communicate with native speakers. Eaton (2010) states that online platforms, Skype in particular in her research, can be used to "connect teachers with other professionals, even internationally". Teachers can thus also benefit from these platforms

(Eaton, 2010). Furthermore, in Thomas and Reinders' (2010) book *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching with Technology*, the authors state that video can help create social presence since learners can see interlocutors through screens. However, they discovered that learners "consider text-based chat to be more relaxed than audio/video conferencing, because it provides more time on task to express opinions and to focus on accuracy" (p. 28). Students have more time to think on their discourse while writing rather than while speaking live with an interlocutor. A more recent study was conducted by Wahid et al. (2015) on the use of Voice over the Internet Protocol (VOIP) in the language classroom. VOIP means utilising the method to make phone calls with an Internet connection so it enables people to have vocal communications (p.10). They made a qualitative study through interviews with instructors and teachers. They discovered that this practice seems to increase oral performances in foreign language (Wahid et al., 2015). They also state that this technique is integrated in the approach to Communicative Language Teaching which advocates a "meaningful and real-world communication" (Wahid et al., 2015). It can thus increase the authenticity of language learning. However, the authors point out that there can also be technical and Internet problems in using online platforms, as stated just above (Wahid et al., 2015). They also claim that it is important to plan these meetings beforehand with learners in order to provide them with a clear structure of how conversations will happen (Wahid et al., 2015).

In conclusion, this section focused on the use of video to communicate with learners through school platforms in order to teach them class subjects. Video as a conference tool can also be used to communicate with interlocutors around the world. This tool can be used by teachers to speak languages themselves, or used by learners to communicate with native speakers. Nevertheless, as in each use, there are challenges and problems to consider while using video as a conference tool.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter was an attempt to show general aspects of video and different uses of video as well as their advantages and disadvantages. The use of technology and visual aids has also been tackled. Multiple intelligences and learning styles have been presented and it has been stated that it was important to take them into account in order to reach a large number of learners. Different classroom equipment has been presented. The goal of this chapter was to show that there is not only one way of using video and that it can be a means that can take various shapes (input, output, model videos, a tool to self-evaluate oneself or even a tool of conference). In

that way, hypothesis (3) "*Video has many benefits for teachers because it is a tool that can be used in various ways (for example: as a tool of self-regulation of the teaching, as a conference tool…)"* is confirmed, since different ways of using video have been shown. One can notice that video is a medium that can be added to classes but it has to be handled carefully in order to provide learners with considerable benefits. Many studies seem to point to advantages of video but disadvantages should not be left aside. Most of the studies claim that the growth of technology has made the use of video easier in the classrooms and that it is more and more used, especially with the pandemic of Covid-19. However, one can think that this constant use can weary learners, so it can be better to use it only as an instrument that helps complete classes. Videos should be used with significant and well-designed tasks.

3 The importance of video in framework of references and curricula of the Wallonia-Brussels Federation

In the French-speaking part of Belgium, teachers follow a framework of references provided by the Wallonia-Brussels Federation (WBF). The WBF publishes documents in which teachers can find what to teach. The framework of references is common to all schools of the WBF, so the three Belgian networks follow a common framework. Nevertheless, each of them is free to present their own educational curriculum by respecting what is recommended in the common framework. The common framework of the WBF is based on the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR). This chapter will analyse these references. The aim of this chapter is to see the importance of video in official documents and also to see which way of using video is advocated in them. There will also be an attempt to confirm or reject hypotheses (6) "*Video is not used in language classrooms because official documents (framework of references and teaching curricula) do not recommend using it."*.

3.1 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001)

The CEFR has already shortly been discussed in Section 2.1. The CEFR "provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum, guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe" (Council of Europe, 2001: 1). As stated before, the CEFR is a reference for all teachers and educational systems in Europe. What is advocated in this document influences the Belgian frameworks of references. The CEFR was published in 2001 by the European Council. The common reference levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2) that are predicted are currently used across Europe as a reference for language learning. It advocates the action-oriented approach presented in Section 2.1. In this section, the importance of video in the CEFR will be analysed. If video is mentioned in this document, it also seems interesting to analyse which use of video is suggested. A more recent version of the CEFR, published in 2018, the *CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors,* will also be analysed in order to see if video is considered in the recent version. The English versions of the CEFR and its companion volume will be used for this part.

The CEFR is a document containing two hundred sixty pages. The word "video(s)" appears ten times in those pages. The term "audio-visual" appears seven times. There is also one occurrence of the word "videophone", "videotape" and "videotext". These terms also point out the use of video and they can be used for different purposes, for example videotapes and videotexts can be used as input and videophone to communicate with natives. Table 1

summarises the occurrences of these terms in the CEFR, and terms such as "communication", "grammatical" and "text" are also presented in order to compare the importance of video with terms that are more popular in language classes.

Terms	Occurrences	Total: pp	Total: %
Video(s)	10	10/260 pp	3,84%
Audio-visual	7	7/260 pp	2,69%
Videophone	1	1/260 pp	0,38%
Videotape	1	1/260 pp	0,38%
Videotext	1	1/260 pp	0,38%
Communication	125	125/260 pp	48,07%
Grammatical	57	57/260 pp	21,92%
Text	220	220/260 pp	84,61%

Table 1: Summary of the occurrences of video in the CEFR compared with "communication", "grammatical" and "text"

Compared to other terms, video and terms related to it occur less. Hence, it is also significant to see where video is mentioned. The first time that "video" is mentioned is on page 71, in the chapter about "langue use and the language user/learner" and in the section about "audio-visual reception". It is said that in audio-visual reception, the user receives auditory and visual input and they give the example of "watching TV, video, or a film with subtitles". This is linked to studies that have been mentioned in Section 2.3 about the use of video as input. The second time that video is mentioned, on page 143, is in the section about methodological options for language learning and teaching, it is said that learners can learn a second or foreign language "*by direct exposure to authentic use of language in L2 in one or more of the following ways: (...) watching TV, video, etc."* Here again, the use that is recommended is input linked with authentic material as discussed in Section 2.3. The authors of the CEFR seem to assume that language is best acquired by exposure to authentic language in use, which means an exposure to authentic video. This fits the view of many researchers presented in Section 2.3.1.1. Afterwards, in the same chapter and the same section, the word occurs twice on page 145 in another question: "*What use can and should be made of instructional media*[31] *(audio and video cassettes, computers, ect?.)"* In the answer to this question: "*in a language/video/computer*

[31] Instructional media can be defined as all devices and materials used in teaching and learning processes. (Matiru, B. et al., 1995).

laboratory mode." In this part there is the mention of media: video is thus defined as an instructional medium (Hansch et al., 2015), as it has been stated in the theoretical part of the dissertation because video is a medium and not a teaching method in itself. In the same chapter, another occurrence is on page 153 in the section on pronunciation. Once more, a question is asked: "*How should learners be expected/required to develop their ability to pronounce a language?"* One of the answers to this question is "*by chorused imitation of video-recorded native speakers."* In this answer, another use is advocated: the use of video model by native speakers. The authors seem to state that imitation is a significant way to acquire good pronunciation in a second language. This is similar to the idea of the audio-visual stucture-global method, which recommended to imitate a model in order to develop linguistic skills. Finally, there are two other occurrences of video on page 195 and 218 in the chapter on assessment. An example of video assessment is provided by the Swiss National Research Council. This example presents "assessment of video performances". However, in Appendix A and B in the CEFR, that analyse the study, there is no explanation about the making of these videos. It only focuses on the assessment of the performances. This might let the reader think that videos are not important in this study, the only important feature seems to be the assessment procedure. The same use of video could already be seen on page 42 in which it is said that *"teachers can be asked to rate previously standardised videos with the grades they normally give their students."* So, there is also the idea of grading students. This designation of video is linked to video assessment discussed in Section 2.6.1 about teacher assessment.

The terms "videophone and "videotape" are used as examples of media on page 94 while the words "videotext" and "audio-visual" are used as an example of educational texts on page 49. The term "audio-visual" is mentioned in the section "notes for the user" in which they question about the access that learners have to coursebooks and materials such as audio-visual aids. Another occurrence is on page 55 "ludic uses of language – social language games", audio-visual is thus seen as a ludic way of using language. Another mention is in the section on "aesthetic uses of language" it is said that *"aesthetic activities may be productive, receptive, interactive or mediating and may be oral and written"* and examples of such activities are *"listening to, reading, writing, and speaking imaginative texts including audio-visual texts"*, which seems to imply that audio-visual materials can be used within the different language skills. It also appears on page 82; it is said that face-to-face material can include media material such as audio-visual materials. Lastly, it appears in the index on page 258. Appendix A presents a table that details each occurrence of video in the CEFR with the page number, quotation and the use of video that is pointed out.

The use of video that is the most advocated by the CEFR is input. Three other uses are also tackled: output, model videos and video for teacher assessment. Model videos are not teacher-created videos but videos made by native speakers. The use of video to self-reflect on teaching does not appear in the CEFR. Finally, the use of video as a conference tool is mentioned a few times and it is mainly recommended as an act of communication with one or more interlocutors. The CEFR claims that learners can participate to online conferences in order to communicate. The use of video as a conference tool is thus linked to learners' output.

To sum up, it appears that video is mentioned in a few cases in the CEFR and that the uses that are recommended are input, output, video as a model, video to assess learners and video conferencing to communicate with native speakers. So, one can say that many uses are pointed out. However, there is no mention of video for teachers to self-reflect on their teaching and there is no mention of teacher-created videos. This might lead us to hypothesize that if video for self-reflection is not mentioned in the CEFR, then it is not important and does not have to be implemented.

3.1.1 CEFR Companion volume with new descriptors (2018)

As stated earlier, the companion volume of the CEFR is the most recent version of it. In this document it is stated that "the Council of Europe has frequently received requests to continue to develop aspects of the CEFR, particularly the illustrative descriptors of second/foreign language proficiency." (p. 21). The authors claim that in response to these requests, they created this extension to complement the original CEFR and "the focus was to update the CEFR illustrative descriptors." (p. 23). Since this companion is the most recent extension of the CEFR, it can be interesting to see how much video is considered in it.

The companion volume contains two hundred thirty-five pages. Table 2 below summarises the occurrences of "video" and terms related to it. There is also a comparison with more popular terms such as "communication" and "text".

Terms	**Occurrences**	**Total: pp**	**Total: %**
Video(s) – Videoed	23	23/235 pp	9,78%
Audio-visual	5	5/235 pp	2,12%
Communication	143	143/235 pp	60,85%
Text	338	338/235 pp	143,8%

Table 2: Summary of the occurrences of video in the CEFR Companion Volume compared with "communication", "grammatical" and "text"

As in the CEFR, compared to other terms, video and audio-visual occur less. The word "video" appears twenty-three times in this document, including the plural form and the word "videoed". The word "audio-visual" appears five times and a section is dedicated to "audio-visual reception" in which "video" is also mentioned. The use that is advocated in this section is input because the authors write about "reception" and state that "reception involves receiving and processing input" (p. 54). Another mention of "video" is on page 92 and the statement is *"Using telecommunications concerns use of the telephone and Internet-based apps for audio and video communication."* (p. 92). This statement implies the use of video as a conference tool so that learners can interact with other interlocutors. On page 111 it is used in the section "processing text in speech" in which it is stated that learners can summarise the main points of a video clip. The use here is output because learners should be able to talk about a video. Then, video appears in the section on sign language. The authors write about video recorded texts for sign language. This use is another use than the ones tackled in this dissertation. "Video" appears in Appendix 5 that deals with "development and validation of the extended illustrative descriptors" and the authors report a study in which they assessed learners' performances in video clips (p. 179) and this use points out output and assessment. Lastly, it is mentioned in Appendix 6 as examples of "mediating a text" such as: summarising a video clip (as stated before), a video-recorded presentation or a video story watched in class.

The uses that are advocated are more or less similar to the ones presented in the CEFR: input, output, videoconferencing to interact with other language speakers and assessing learners with video. Sign language is also associated with video in the companion volume and did not appear in the CEFR.

3.2 Frameworks of references from the WBF

3.2.1 Socles de compétences (2018)

The framework *Socles de compétences en langues modernes* contains one hundred twenty-eight pages. It defines the skills that should be attained by pupils at the end of primary school as well as at the end of their first level of secondary education. It is presented in "Unités d'acquis d'apprentissage" (U.A.A.), which define the aims of each skill (for example: lire pour (s') informer, écouter pour (s')informer, etc.[32]). There are six occurrences of the word *vidéo* in the whole document. Table 3 summarises the occurrences of video in this first framework and compares it with other terms.

[32] I will use these terms in French because I do not want them to lose their meanings.

	Occurrences pp	**Occurrences %**
Vidéo	6/128 pp	4,68%
Communication	78/128pp	60,94%
Texte(s)	19/128pp	14,84%

Table 3: Occurrences of video in Socles de compétences and comparison with other terms

The word *vidéo* occurs less than the word *communication* or *texte(s)*. The first two times that video appears is in the level A1+ for the skill "écouter pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir". Video is given as an example of audio-visual materials. The use that seems to be advocated here is input. Then, it occurs twice for the same skill but in the level A2-. The fifth occurrence appears in the skill "parler sans interaction pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" in the level A2-. The use that seems to be implied here is video as output. The last time that it appears is in the bibliography. The two uses that are advocated in this document are input and output. Video is only presented as an example and not as a main material.

3.2.2 Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités générales et technologiques (2017)

This framework presents the skills that pupils from the general and technological types of secondary education should acquire at the end of the second and third levels. It is also presented in U.A.A. The document contains two-hundred thirty-three pages. Table 4 gives an overview of the occurrences of video and compares it with other terms.

	Occurrences pp	**Occurrences %**
Vidéo (including vidéoconférence)	11/233 pp	4,72%
Communication	108/233 pp	46,35%
Texte(s)	33/233 pp	14,16%

Table 4: Occurrences and uses of video in Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités générales et technologiques

The word *vidéo* occurs nine times and the word *vidéoconférence* appears twice. These words appear less than terms like *communication* and *texte(s)*. Video is mentioned four times in the section "écouter pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" in levels A1+ and A2 within *support audiovisuel.* It is cited as an example of audio-visual materials. The mention of video in this section seems to imply that it can be used as input. Then it occurs in the section "parler sans

interaction pour (s')informer et/ou faire agir" in levels A2 and B1. It is cited as an example of an oral activity which aims to inform. Here, the use that is implied is pupils' production with video. It is also mentioned in the bibliography such as in the previous document. Concerning the word *vidéoconférence*, it is mentioned in the section "parler en interaction pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" in the level A2 and in the section "parler en interaction pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir et/ou exprimer des opinions et/ou des sentiments" in the level B1. Video can thus be used as a conference tool to make pupils interact with others. It is interesting to see that three uses are recommended in this document: input, output and video as a conference tool.

3.2.3 Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités professionnelles et techniques (2017)

This framework is based on the same principles as the one above but it is related to pupils from the vocational and technical types of secondary school education. It presents the skills that these pupils should acquire at the end of the second and third levels of their education. The U.A.A.'s are also present in this document. It contains one hundred sixty-five pages.

	Occurrences pp	**Occurrences %**
Vidéo (including vidéoconférence)	9/165 pp	5,45%
Communication	87/165 pp	52,72%
Texte(s)	25/165 pp	15,15%

Table 5: Occurrences of video in Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités professionnelles et techniques

The word *vidéo* occurs eight times and the word *vidéoconférence* appears once. The first four times that the word occurs is at the same place and for the same levels as in the previous document. So, it is for the use of video as input as well. Then, it occurs in the section "parler sans interaction pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" but for the level A2 only. It is thus recommended for pupils' output. After that, the word occurs twice in the listening section but for the level B1- "écouter pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir et/ou comprendre des opinions et/ou des sentiments", once more the use that is recommended is input. As it was the case for the previous document, video is cited as examples. It is lastly mentioned in the bibliography. The only occurrence of *vidéoconférence* is in "parler en interaction pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" for the level A2: the use of video as a conference tool is to make pupils interact

with others. Since this document is not so different from the previous one about the uses of video, the same comment also applies.

3.3 Teaching curricula

After the analysis of the frames of references, which give indications to all networks in the WBF, it seems relevant to analyse the curricula of the networks. Video is mentioned a few times in the references and the uses that are recommended are quite interesting since they do not only recommend one use. Therefore, it can also be interesting to see which uses are included in the curricula. For the official network a comparison will be made between the old and the new curricula in order to see if the recommendations about the use of video have evolved. The old curricula were created in 2000 and 2002 so they did not follow the frames of references presented in the previous part. Therefore, the skills are not presented in U.A.A. Since the new programmes follow the new frames of references, they present skills in U.A.A.

3.3.1 For the official organised network

The first curriculum that will be analysed is *"Programme d'études des langues germaniques 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités générales et technologiques"* (2000). The curriculum contains two hundred forty-seven pages and it is divided in different parts called *"cahier"* and there are five *"cahiers"* in total. The word *"vidéo"* is mentioned thirty times.

	Occurrences pp	**Occurrences %**
Vidéo (including vidéoconférence)	30/247 pp	12,14%
Communication	126/247 pp	51,01%
Texte(s)	200/247 pp	80,97%

Table 6: Occurrences of video in Programme d'études des langues germaniques 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités générales et technologiques (2000) and comparison with other terms

In comparison with other terms, video occurs less. It appears three times in *Cahier 2* when defining the objectives of a language class:

- pupils realise that language is more than only vocabulary and grammar if they analyse oral interaction in **video**;
- pupils realise that non-verbal communication is important if they evaluate themselves an oral activity on **video**;

- pupils realise that it is important to respect a role (in role plays) if they have the occasion to compare, with a **video**, "good" and "bad" interactions.

These objectives have common principles as the studies analysed in the theoretical outline. Researchers claimed that pupils could see paralinguistic features through video. The use that is implied in the last objective is "model video". Then, video appears in the section *"Une pédagogie de l'interculturel"* in which authentic videos are suggested in order to understand someone else's culture, as stated by Tschirner, 2001; Çakir, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Shrosbree, 2008; Polat & Erişti, 2019. It is also mentioned in Appendix 2 in *"écouter"* because it is claimed that pupils can benefit from visuals to understand, as we have seen in Section 2.2.2 (Mannan, 2005; Berk, 2009, etc.). In Appendix 10 about the organisation of a school exchange, it is stated that pupils can send a video in which they present themselves. This implies the use of video as output. In *Cahier 3* video is used to point out that messages should be used with visuals. Video is then mentioned as *"l'écoute non interactive",* so as non-interactive input and it is suggested to give clear instructions and to create well-suited activities, as stated by Bates (2015). Then, it is also mentioned in formative assessment because videos can be assessed formatively. Video as output appears once more in *Cahier 3* and it is suggested to use it to present the pupils' school in order to send it to a pen friend. It is interesting to see that in *Cahier 5* there is a section dedicated to video. This section presents video and gives indications on how to use it such as: develop oral interaction, introduce a theme, exercise listening strategies, prepare interaction or evaluate pupils' oral interaction (formative assessment). One can notice that this section is in coherence with what has been presented in the theoretical outline of this dissertation. Lastly, the document presents different activities with videos. Video receives much consideration in this document and different uses are pointed out.

Then, about the new version *"Programme d'études des langues modernes 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités générales et technologiques"* (2020); the file contains four hundred and fifty-two pages and the word "*vidéo"* appears forty-five times including the plural form and the word "*vidéoconférence".* Video is mentioned less than other terms. Table 7 below gives an overview of these occurrences.

	Occurrences pp	Occurrences %
Vidéo (including vidéoconférence)	45/452 pp	9,95%
Communication	207/452 pp	45,80%
Texte(s)	115/452 pp	25,44%

Table 7: Occurrences of video in Programme d'études des langues modernes 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités générales et technologiques (2020) and comparison with other terms

It is mentioned as an example for listening activities but also for production tasks. It is stated that pupils can be exposed to a foreign language with online videos. It is also given as an example of material to use in a flipped classroom, in which pupils can watch videos at home (similarly to Annan et al., 2019). Video as a conference tool also appears in the document for the skill "parler en interaction pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" in the level A2+ and in the level B1 for the skill "parler en interaction pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir et/ou exprimer des sentiments et/ou des opinions". This shows that the curriculum follows the frame of references. The uses that are recommended here are thus also the same uses as in the frameworks of references. This document also provides examples of activities that can be used in the classroom, with links of certain online videos so it is really complete. Video is mentioned quite a lot in this document. The major difference with the previous curriculum is that video does not have a section dedicated to it. Even if video is mentioned more in the current version, there are more examples of activities than explanations about the use of it. The previous curriculum explained more how and why video could/should be used.

"*Programme d'études des langues germaniques 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités techniques et professionnelles"* (2002) is the same curriculum as the first one but for pupils from the vocational and technical types of secondary education. The document contains two hundred seventy-five pages and *"vidéo"* is mentioned thirty-two times (11,64%), and it is mentioned less than other terms (e.g. *communication*: 115/275 pp – 41, 81%). All the uses that are pointed out are the same as in the first curriculum: input, output, model video and video for pupils' assessment. There is also a section dedicated to video as well as examples of activities with videos.

The last document is the same as the second one but for vocational and technical pupils: *"Programme d'études des langues modernes 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités professionnelles et techniques"* (2020). It contains three hundred eighty-two pages. There are thirty-one occurrences of the word *"vidéo"* including the plural form and the word *"vidéoconférence"* (8,11%). It is mentioned less than other more popular terms (e.g.

communication 463/382 pp – 121,20%). All the uses that are recommended are the same as in the second curriculum: input, output and videoconference, which is also applied to the level A2+. Teachers following this curriculum are also provided with already-created activities. The same comparison applies here, even if video is mentioned more, there are less explanations on the uses of video. Video is directly put into practice (with examples of activities) in the recent versions of the curricula.

3.3.2 For the free subsidised denominational network

The first programme is for first secondary level pupils: *"Programmes des langues modernes: 1er degré commun"* (2018). It contains one hundred fourteen pages and the word *"vidéo"* is mentioned eight times, including the plural form.

	Occurrences pp	**Occurrences %**
Vidéo(s)	8/114 pp	7,02%
Communication	97/114 pp	85,09%
Texte(s)	115/114 pp	25,44%

Table 8: Occurrences of video in Programme d'études des langues modernes : 1er degré commun and comparison with other terms

It is recommended to use video in listening activities: "écouter pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" in the level A2-, in oral activities without interaction in the level A2- and in oral activities with interaction. The term *"vidéoconférence"* does not occur but it is replaced by *"appel vidéo"*, which means the same. Hence, this word only occurs in a footnote which might mean that the authors do not attach much importance to this use.

The second curriculum is related to second and third secondary level pupils from the general and technological fields: *"Programme des langues modernes I, II, III: 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités générales et technologiques"* (2018). The curriculum contains one hundred sixty-six pages and there are twenty-six occurrences of *"vidéo"*, including the plural form and the word *"vidéoconférence"*.

	Occurrences pp	**Occurrences %**
Vidéo(s) Vidéoconference	26/166 pp	15,66%
Communication	113/166 pp	99,12%
Texte(s)	51/166 pp	30,72%

Table 9: Ocurrences of video in Programme d'études des langues modernes I, II, III: 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités générales et technologiques and comparison with other terms

Once more, in this curriculum the uses that are suggested concern listening activities for levels A2-, A2+, B1- and B1+, oral activities without interaction in levels A2-, A2+, B1- and B1+ and oral activities with interaction in levels A2, A2+, B1- and B1+.

The last curriculum is related to second and third secondary level pupils as well but from the vocational and technical fields: *"Programme des langues modernes: 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités professionnelles et techniques"* (2018). Among the one hundred twenty-nine pages, the word *"vidéo"* appears thirty times, including the plural form as well as the word *"vidéoconférence".*

	Occurrences pp	**Occurrences %**
Vidéo(s) Vidéoconference	30/129 pp	23,25%
Communication	104/129 pp	80,62%
Texte(s)	22/129 pp	17,05%

Table 10: Occurrences of video in Programme d'études des langues modernes I, II, III: 2ème et 3ème degré des humanités professionnelles et techniques and comparison with other terms

Similarly to the two previous curricula, the uses suggested by this curriculum are the ones advocated by the frames of references. There is the use of video in listening activities in levels A1+, A2-, A2+ and B1-, the use of video in oral activities without interaction in levels A2- and A2+, and the use of video in oral activities with interaction in levels A2- and A2+. Appendix B presents a table that summarises the occurrences and the uses of video in teaching curricula.

3.4 Conclusion

Video appears to be valued by official documents. It occurs many times in the CEFR and in its companion volume, even if it occurs less than other terms that are more used in language classes. It is also mentioned in Belgian frameworks of references as well as in teaching curricula. All the uses advocated by the CEFR do not appear in the frames of references but the

three uses that come the most along in the French-speaking part of Belgium are: input, output and videoconferencing. The only difference is the level at which these uses should be practised. It is normal since the frames of references and curricula are related to different publics with different ages and levels. In the old curricula of the official network there was also the mention of video assessment but this use does not seem to appear in new versions. A use that is never pointed out in these frames of references and in teaching curricula is the use of video to self-reflect on teaching. This might let the readers think that it is not important for teachers to self-regulate. Consequently, hypothesis (6): "*Video is not used in language classrooms because official documents (framework of references and teaching curricula) do not recommend using it"* is not confirmed. In fact, frameworks of references and teaching curricula recommend to use video and they even point out different ways of using it, even if all the uses defined in this dissertation are not present. Some of the teaching curricula even present already created activities with videos in order to enable teachers to use them in their classrooms. The analysis of the survey will help us further understand if teachers follow what is recommended in these official documents.

4 Survey on Belgian teachers' uses of video

In order to go further in the analysis of the uses of video in the French-speaking part of Belgium, it seemed relevant to collect declarative data on the uses that Belgian teachers, from Wallonia, make of video. Therefore, I conceived a questionnaire to collect qualitative and quantitative data from teachers' actual practises. The results of the questionnaire will be discussed in this section and the detailed questionnaire can be found in Appendix C. This chapter is also an attempt to confirm or reject hypotheses (1), (2), (4), (7) and (8)[33].

4.1 Method

The aim of the questionnaire was to collect declarative data on teachers' uses of video in their classrooms. The questionnaire was created online because it was easier to send it to teachers. The construction of the questionnaire is based on Zoltán Dörnyei and Tatsuya Taguchi's book *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, Administration and Processing* (2010). It was also developed following the advice of Professor Germain Simons and Ph.D. student Audrey Renson who explained us how to design a questionnaire and have people answer it. She also gave us tips to analyse data. We are seven students writing their dissertations in the didactics field. Six of us worked together in order to design a large questionnaire that brought together our individual questionnaires. As Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) state, questionnaires are helpful because they can be administered to many people and can be used in a variety of topics, as we decided to do by including all six dissertation subjects. We put all the questionnaires in one file in order not to send teachers six different emails with six different links. However, by putting our questionnaires together, the time of completion of the survey was lengthened. In fact, Dörnyei and Taguchi suggest that, in questionnaires, "less is more" and if the survey is too long it can become "counterproductive" (2010: 12). Therefore, they recommend a completion limit of 30 minutes (2010: 12). If the survey is too long it can lead to "fatigue effect" and respondents may start to give inaccurate answers (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010: 9). Unfortunately, our questionnaire lasted more or less 40-45 minutes and our pre-testers told us that it was too long. In order to partially solve this problem, we decided that some answers would allow respondents to shorten the questionnaire by accessing only certain parts of it.

[33] On page 3 and 4.

Since the first part about the respondent's profile[34] was common to everyone's questionnaire, we worked together to create it with "factual questions to find out about who the respondents are" (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010: 5). We agreed on the questions we wanted to ask and then we sent them to Professor Simons for his approval. Then, we worked on our individual questionnaires. Professor Simons corrected them several times and we revised them following his comments. When he approved the questionnaires, we put them in a common file on Google Form. We wrote an introduction to explain the aim of each students' questionnaire, the content of it and how long it would take to answer the whole questionnaire. In my introduction I wrote that if teachers did not use video, they were directly sent to a specific question in order for them to shorten the questionnaire and in order for me to collect answers from people who are not necessarily partial to my subject. We also informed participants that their answers would remain confidential (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). After having finalised the survey, we sent the link to Professor Simons who sent it to the three assistants of the foreign language didactics department of the Université of Liège for a pre-test stage: Alain Segatto, Julie Van Hoof and Florence Vanhoof. We also asked six other teachers to pre-test our questionnaires. Finally, after the pre-testing, Professor Simons sent the questionnaire to language teachers with whom the didactics team collaborate. On our side, we put the online survey on Facebook groups with teachers in order to have more answers[35]. We specified that the questionnaire should be answered in one time because it was not possible for teachers to save their answers and return to them later. Moreover, respondents had to answer all the questionnaires and not only one on a specific subject because Google Form does not offer this option. We also wrote that the survey took more or less 40-45 minutes to be completed. Since the survey was really long, we did not expect too many answers but we still had fifty-six answers to it, which is quite significant for a long survey like this. Besides, with six different questionnaires, we would certainly have had less answers.

4.1.1 Pre-test stage

As stated before, the three assistants of the foreign language didactics team of the Université of Liège pre-tested our questionnaires. We also took contact with our internship supervisors and secondary school teachers to ask them if they were available to pre-test the survey. Six of them agreed on the pre-testing. Following the advice of Professor Simons, we contacted teachers of

[34] The questions in the respondents' profile refer to: the number of years in teaching, languages that they teach, the classes in which they teach, etc. The answers to this part can be found in Appendix E.
[35] The Facebook message can be found in Appendix D.

different networks to pre-test the questionnaire. In our email, we ensured the teachers that their answers were not important for the pre-test stage, their comments about the content and technical issues were what mattered. These teachers could not answer the questionnaire again afterwards in order not to distort the results. All the teachers gave us comments about the mistakes or the inconsistencies that they found. In my questionnaire they found some technical problems related to some questions. For example, in a question I claimed that several answers were possible but I did not activate the option so only one answer was possible. The pre-test stage enabled me to modify my questionnaire thanks to relevant comments.

4.1.2 Questionnaire design

In this part I will explain how I designed my questionnaire and which questions I put in it. Following the advice of Professor Simons, I made different sections for the different uses of video so that it was clearer for participants to follow my questionnaire. In each section I asked questions on how and why they practised (or not) this specific use. There were 30 questions in total with sub-questions. There were different types of questions: yes and no questions; multiple choices questions, one choice questions and rating scales of frequency (never, sometimes, often, always or more precise frequencies). These types of questions were sometimes followed by empty spaces in which respondents could give free comments or justify their answers. These spaces were created in order to give them the opportunity to provide their opinion on one or another use. I sometimes used the Likert scale: *strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree*. This scale is used to ask respondents whether they agree or disagree with a series of statements (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010: 27). Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) argue that the Likert scale is made of five features but the neutral component has been cancelled in our questionnaires in order to avoid answers in which respondents do not position themselves. The original questionnaire is in French but since this dissertation is written in English, I will translate the questions for the sake of uniformity[36].

The first question was a general question in which I asked whether teachers used video in general[37] in their classrooms. If they answered "yes" they could go on with the whole questionnaire and if they answered "no" they were sent to a question in a table form, in which they had statements about the reasons of their non-utilisation of video and they could answer with a Likert scale. This question pointed out specific uses: video as input, video as output and

[36] The French questionnaire is in Appendix C.
[37] No specific use was pointed out.

video to self-evaluate the teaching. I only chose these uses because I wanted to confirm or reject my hypotheses on the basis of the teachers' views.

If the answer to the first question was "yes", they accessed the second general question which was presented in a table form with a Likert scale. In this question, respondents had to agree on statements about the moment of teaching in which they use video and the use that they make of it, such as: *I use video to introduce a new topic, I use video to provide input (listening comprehension), I use video to clarify a grammar point,* etc. The aim of this question was to have a first sight on teachers' practises.

Then, there was the following section, which was about video as input in listening comprehension. The aim of this section was to collect information about how and why teachers use video as input. The next section was on the use of video as a conference tool. The third section was about the use of video to self-evaluate their teaching. The fourth section dealt with the use of video to enhance learners' oral production. The fifth section was about the use of video to assess learners' production more objectively during certifying assessments. Eventually, the last section was about the use of recorded material without visual aids. The table below is summarising the questions of each section, the possible answers and the aims of each question.

Questions	**Possible answers**
Section 1: video as input in listening activities	
1) I use video as input for my … class(es)	German – English – Spanish – Italian – Dutch – Other
The goal of this question was to see whether there is a language in which video is more used and in which it is easier to access video material.	
2) I use video for listening activities because I think that visual aids can facilitate comprehension.	Likert scale
3) I use video for listening activities because I think that visual aids are motivating for learners.	Likert scale
These two questions were asked in order to see whether visual aids are important for teachers in the use of videos.	
4) I use video to keep up my own language.	Likert scale
The answer that respondents gave to this question determine whether teachers use videos for themselves, outside schools.	

5) I use video to teach a complicated subject to learners (e.g. a grammar point)	Rating scale of frequency
The aim of this question was to determine whether teachers use video as input for other tasks than listening activities.	
6) How often do you use video for listening activities?	Rating scale of frequency
7) What kind of video do you use in the classroom, for listening activities?	Authentic videos – non-authentic videos – both
With this question it was possible to see which material teachers use.	
8) Do you think it is necessary to provide teachers with pedagogical support in the use of video for listening activities?	Likert scale
The goal of this question was to know whether teachers attach importance to being formed in the use of video as input.	
Section 2: video as a conference tool	
1) Do you use video as a conference tool to practise foreign languages yourself, as a teacher, with native speakers?	Yes - No
2) If yes, how often?	
3) Do you think it is necessary to provide teachers with pedagogical support in the use of video as a conference tool?	Likert scale
4) Do you think it is necessary to provide teachers with technical support in the use of video as a conference tool?	Likert scale
5) Do you think it is necessary to provide learners with technical support in the use of video as a conference tool?	
As videoconferencing was used more and more over the last year, I wanted to know how teachers felt about themselves using this tool but also about their learners using this tool.	
Section 3: self-evaluation of my teaching	
1) I use video to film myself while teaching in order to improve my way of teaching.	Likert scale
2) I feel comfortable while filming myself.	Likert scale
3) I feel comfortable when watching myself afterwards.	Likert scale
4) Do you think it is important to receive pedagogical support for this use?	Likert scale
5) Justify your answer briefly.	

The aim of these questions was to know whether teachers practise this use, if so or if not, I wanted to know why.	
Section 4: video to enhance learners' oral production	
1) I use video to make learners produce a message in the target language (role plays, debate…) and let them watch themselves afterwards.	Likert scale
2) I use video to make learners evaluate the production of fellow learners.	Likert scale
The aim here was to find out about the practise of learners' assessment.	
3) I film learners and keep their videos to show them to other learners as examples of what is expected from them.	Yes – No
4) If yes, how often?	
This question is about model videos. It seemed interesting to ask whether teachers use model videos from learners to show what they expect.	
5) Learners feel comfortable while being filmed.	Likert scale
6) Learners feel comfortable when watching themselves afterwards.	Likert scale
These two questions are similar to the ones in the previous section. The goal was to have teachers' points of view on how learners feel about being videoed.	
7) Do you think it is necessary to provide teachers with pedagogical support for this use?	Likert scale
8) Empty space in which teachers could give a free comment on this use of video.	
Section 5: video to assess learners' production more objectively during certifying assessments	
1) I film learners during certifying oral assessment with interaction (e.g. dialogues, role play, debate..) in order to watch their videos afterwards and evaluate learners more objectively.	Yes – No
2) If yes, how often?	
3) I film learners during certifying oral assessment without interaction (e.g. presentation, weather forecast) in order to watch their videos afterwards and evaluate learners more objectively.	Yes – No
4) If yes, how often?	
There was a difference between oral assessment with and without interaction. The aim of these questions was to know whether teachers practise this use.	

Section 6: the use of recorded material without visual aid	
1) Do you use recorded material without visual aids instead of videos?	Yes – No
2) Justify your answer briefly.	

Table 11: Questions of the questionnaire

The last section was made for teachers who answered "No" to the first question *Do you use video, in general?* The suggestions of possible reasons to not using video are presented in the table below.

Video as input in listening comprehension activities	Likert scale
1) Video is just a way to entertain and not to teach. 2) I do not think that video can maximize students' learning. 3) I do not use video because classrooms lack technical material. 4) I do not use video because there are too many technical problems.	
Video to enhance learners' oral production	Likert scale
1) I do not practise this use because it is time consuming. 2) I do not practise this use because learners do not like to be videoed. 3) I do not film learners because with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDRP) we have to ask permission to parents in order to film their children.	
Video to self-evaluate my teaching	Likert scale
1) I do not practise this use because it is time consuming. 2) I do not practise this use because I do not like to see myself on a screen. 3) I do not practise this use because I do not feel able to evaluate myself.	

Table 12: Questions of the last section of the questionnaire

Finally, after having answered the questions, participants came to the final page of the questionnaire. On this page, I thanked them for contributing to my dissertation. As stated by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010), the final "Thank you" is important because respondents did us a favour; they define it as "basic courtesy" (p. 21). I also wrote my email address on which participants could contact me if they found the research interesting. There was also an empty space that gave the respondents the occasion to express themselves about the topic.

4.2 The respondents

As Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) point out, the description and selection of participants is important for the analysis of a questionnaire. The target audience were foreign language teachers who teach in the Wallonia-Brussels Federation. I was not only targeting English teachers but all language teachers, because seeing the uses of video in other languages was also interesting for this dissertation. Between the 15th of February and the 28th of May, we collected fifty-six answers for the respondent's profile part. These people also answered my personal questionnaire.

In the respondent's profile, we did not ask about the age or gender of the participants because we considered it was not relevant for our studies. We rather asked about how long they have been teaching languages. The number of years varies from 5 to 40 years. We presented five categories with a specific number of years and a category "other". Figure 8 bellow summarises the answers to this question. Even if teachers seem to be evenly distributed, the most common category is teachers who have been teaching between 11 and 20 years, as shown in the figure bellow.

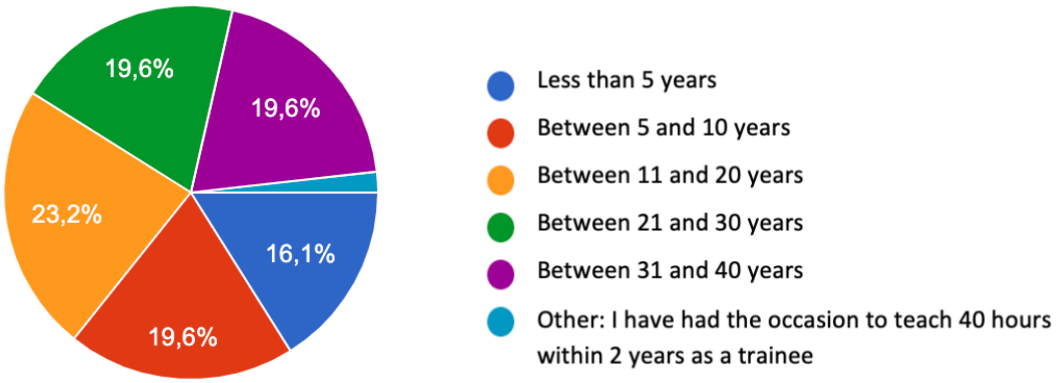

Figure 8: Results of question 1 – How long have you been teaching?

Then, there was a question on the networks in which respondents are teaching. The most common answer is the free subsidised network (denominational) with 62,5% (i.e., thirty-five) of the respondents. The second popular one is the network organised by the WBF with 30,4% (i.e., seventeen) of the respondents. The third most chosen answer was the subsidised public school network with 8,9% (i.e., five) of the participants and finally, one participant (1,8%) chose the free subsidised network (non-denominational). These results correspond more or less to the real distribution of learners in the different networks in Belgium.

In the next question we asked teachers in which level of education they taught. The respondents could choose more than one answer. Most of the teachers teach at the upper level

of secondary education. Then, many teachers teach at the lower level of secondary education. Three people teach in “promotion sociale”. Two people teach at primary and to others teach in higher education. One person teaches in “entreprise”. Figure 9 presents the results to this question.

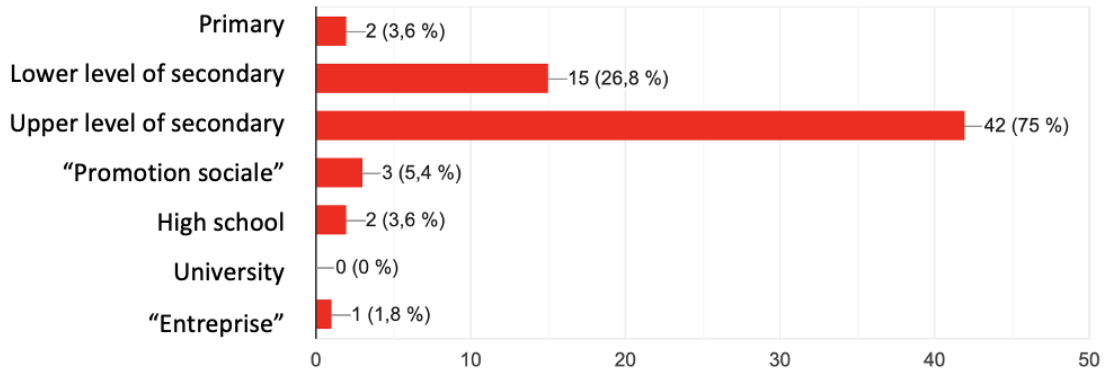

Figure 9: Results of question 3 – In which level are you teaching?

Within these responses, six people answered that they teach both at upper and lower levels of secondary education. Two people teach both in “promotion sociale” and at the upper level of secondary education. Finally, one person teaches both at the upper level of secondary education and in “entreprise”.

Afterwards, in order to have a clearer view of the teachers’ profiles, we asked them about the type of education in which they teach. They could give more than one answer for this question. The figure below clearly shows that the majority of the respondents teach in “général”. Fifteen teachers work in “technique de qualification”. Nine teachers work in “technique de transition”. Seven teachers work in “professionnel”. Then, there are a few teachers who work in other types of education.

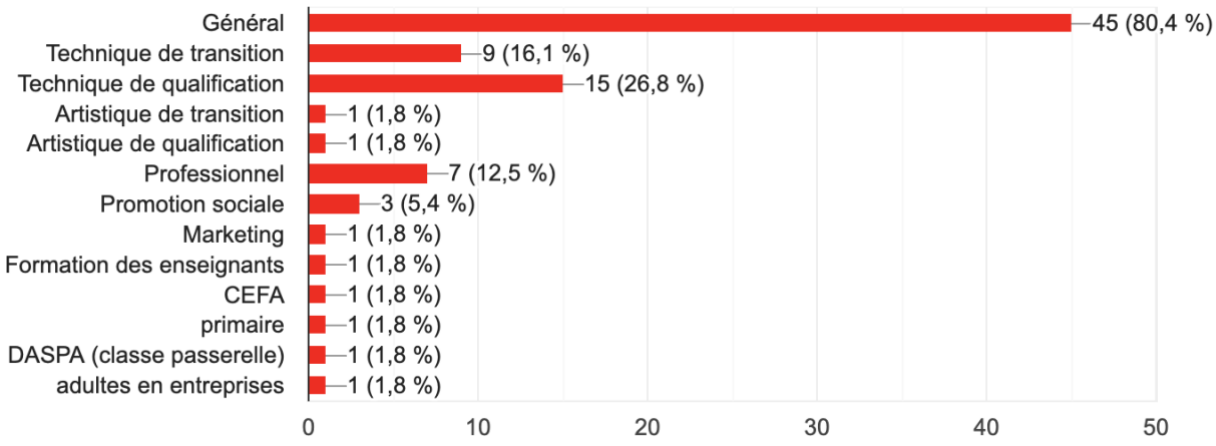

Figure 10: Results of question 4 – In which type(s) of education do you teach?

In the fifth question we wanted to know which languages were taught by the participants. The majority of the respondents, forty-three (76,8%), teach English. Thirty-seven (66,1%) teach Dutch. Seven of them (12,5%) teach Spanish, followed by five (8,9%) who teach German. One of them (1,8%) teaches Italian and another one (1,8%) teaches FLE (French as a foreign language). As stated before, this repartition of languages is interesting because it will enable me to see how different language teachers use video in their classrooms.

The last question in the respondent's profile was on the classes in which teachers work this year (e.g. English / Dutch / Spanish as first / second / third foreign language). The answers to this question are quite diverse and the analysis of the data would be too long. So, I will only use these responses if they are relevant to clarify some of the results presented in the next section. Consequently, we can notice that the group of teachers who answered this first part is quite diverse, which is interesting because it means that we managed to reach a varied public. The analysis of the results will thus be interesting.

4.3 Analysis of the results

In this chapter, I will try to interpret the results and then draw a conclusion. All the results of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix F.

As mentioned in Section 4.1.2, the first question was a general question in order to see whether teachers used video (in its general aspects) in classrooms: *In general, do you use video in your classroom?* The question was answered by fifty-six people, forty-five of them (80,4%) answered "yes", while eleven (19,6%) answered "no". The majority of the respondents could thus continue the normal questionnaire and the minority who responded "no" was sent to the last question in order to understand why they did not use video. I will first analyse responses of those who use video and then analyse answers of those who do not use it.

After having answered "yes" to the first question, respondents could answer the second question. Table 13 summarises the answers to this second question.

In general, I use video…				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
To introduce a new topic or a new sequence	11,5%	8,2%	60,7%	19,6%

To provide input (listening comprehension)	8,2%	6,6%	54,1%	31,1%
To clarify a grammar point	19,7%	29,5%	41%	9,8%
To make pupils realise a production task (formative assessment)	23%	29,5%	41%	6,5%
To make pupils realise a production task (certifying assessment)	41%	29,5%	24,6%	4,9%
To film myself in order to regulate my teaching	73,8%	23%	1,6%	1,6%

Table 13: Results of question 2: In general, I use video…

The results of this question show that teachers use video for different purposes. As I expected, it is used a lot to introduce a new topic or a new sequence and also to provide input in listening comprehension. However, I did not expect that so many teachers used video to make pupils realise a production task whether it be for formative or certifying assessment. For the last statement, the majority of teachers do not use video to film themselves, as I expected. Only two of them answered "agree" and "strongly agree". As there is a section dedicated to this use in the questionnaire, it will help to deepen teachers' feelings about it.

In the first section on the use of video as input and the first question *I use video as input for my … class(es)*, the majority of teachers answered that they use videos for English classes (75,6%). Dutch is the second language is which video is the most used (46,7%). It is followed by Spanish (13,3%) and by German (8,9%). Finally, two other languages in which video is used are Italian and FLE (French as a foreign language), with one person (2,2%) for each of them. The results of this question confirm my thoughts that English is the language in which videos are more used. This can raise questions on the availability and suitability of video material in other languages than English. The second question was about teachers' views on visual aids: *I use video for listening activities because I think that visual aids can facilitate comprehension.* For this question, many teachers seem to "strongly agree" (48,9%) or "agree" (44,4%). In total, only 3 people "strongly disagree" or "disagree" with this statement. The results are in agreement with what I expected, and more importantly, with what has been presented in the theoretical background, as many researchers claim that visual aids can facilitate comprehension.

The next question was the same but regarding motivation: *I use video for listening activities because I think that visual aids are motivating for learners*. Everyone agrees with this

statement: “strongly agree” (60%) and “agree” (40%). This is not surprising because, as mentioned in Section 2.2.2, researches point out the motivational aspects of visual aids.

Afterwards, many teachers claimed that they use video to keep up their own language. Indeed, twenty-five (56,8%) “strongly agree” and thirteen (29,5%) “agree”. Six other people “disagree” or “strongly disagree”. This shows that video is even often used by teachers themselves.

The next question was about the frequency on the use of video to teach a complicated subject. Nineteen teachers answered “sometimes” and eleven answered “often”. Surprisingly, fourteen answered “never” and only one answered “always”. It is surprising because I would have thought that many teachers use video more often to teach a difficult subject point (e.g. a grammar point), but it is not really the case.

Then, there was a question on the frequency of the use of video for listening comprehension. The answers for this question are quite diverse. All the suggestions have been chosen at least once. Still, the most common suggestion is “once a week” (12 people). This shows that video is used quite often in classrooms. Figure 11 below summarises the responses.

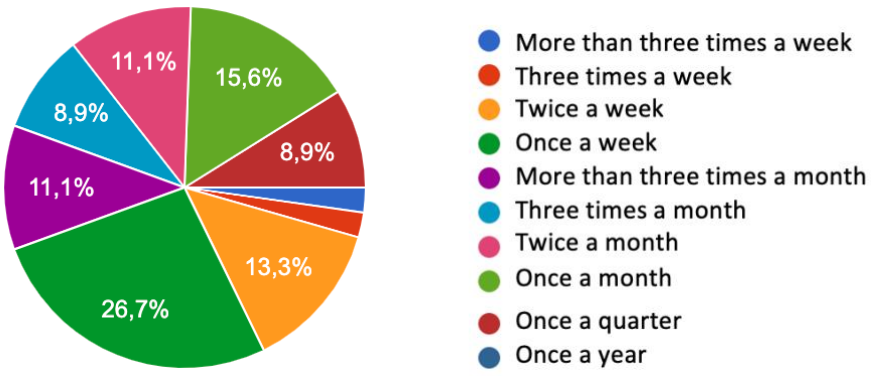

Figure 11: Results of question 8 - How often do you use video for listening activities?

In the next question I asked about the type of video they use to provide learners with input. They could choose between authentic, non-authentic videos or both. Following the results, many teachers use both types of videos, in total thirty-six of them answered “strongly agree” and “agree”. The results of this question reveal that not only authentic videos are valued. So, even if we have seen that there is not much literature on non-authentic videos, their utilisation seems to be important for the sample of teachers who answered my questionnaire. The last question of this section was about the need of pedagogical support for this use: *Do you think it is necessary to provide teachers with pedagogical support in the use of video for listening activities?* Fourteen people (31,8%) answered “strongly agree” to this question, twenty-six

people (59,1%) “agree”, while four people “disagree”. There was no mention of “strongly disagree”. These results imply that teachers need to have pedagogical resources and support in order to work with videos. I also think that if teachers do not work with videos, it is because there is a lack of pedagogical support in that field, so the results are not surprising.

The second section was, as stated before, about the use of video as a conference tool. There were five questions. The first one deals with teachers’ use of video-conference to speak themselves with native speakers. Thirty-nine (80%) teachers answered “no” and nine (20%) answered “yes”. These results might make us think that video as a conference tool is not much used outside school purposes. Out of the nine people who answered “yes”, eight mentioned the frequency of this use: some use it once or twice a week to speak with their families or friends living in another country (or in Flanders), others mentioned once a month or every two months and some mentioned that they used it with colleagues, so, for school purposes. Then, Figure 12 shows the results of the question on the need of a pedagogical support for teachers to use this tool. The majority of teachers chose “strongly agree” (17,8%) or “agree” (71,1%). In total, five teachers answered “strongly disagree” and “disagree”.

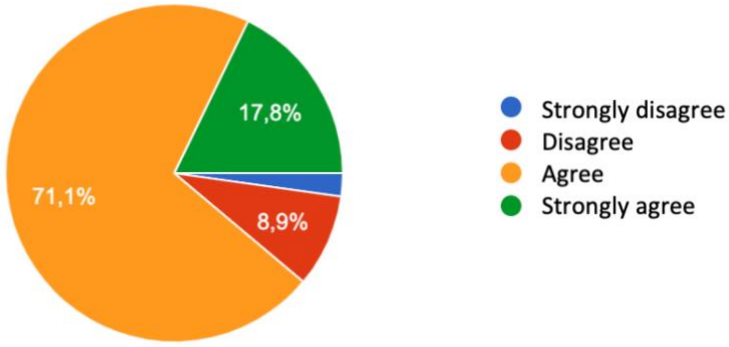

Figure 12: Results of question 13 - Do you think it is necessary to provide teachers with pedagogical support in the use of video as a conference tool?

The next figure shows the results for the following question on the need of technical support for this use, in which forty teachers chose “strongly agree” and “agree”, while only five people answered “disagree”.

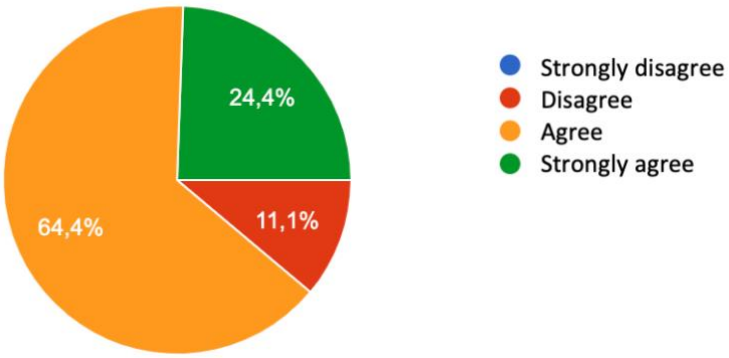

Figure 13: Results of question 14 - Do you think it is necessary to provide teachers with technical support in the use of video as a conference tool?

These responses might show that teachers are not quite at ease with the use of technology and technical tools. The following figure shows the results of the last question on the need of technical support for learners for this use.

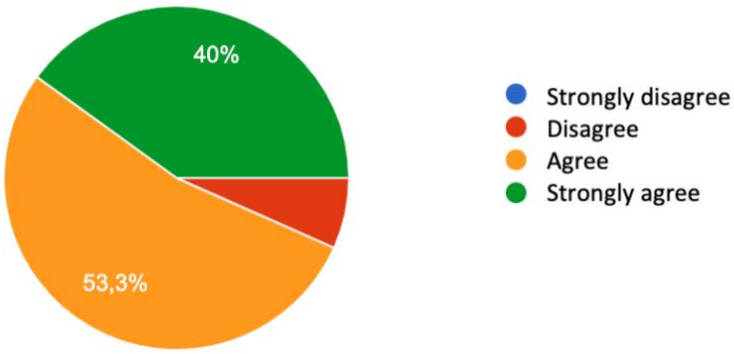

Figure 14: Results of question 15 - Do you think it is necessary to provide learners with technical support in the use of video as a conference tool?

In total, forty-two chose “strongly agree” and “agree” and only three people chose “strongly disagree”. In disagreement with researchers who claim that learners are good at using technology, this might show that learners actually lack competences in the use of technology and technical tools.

The third section was about the use of video to auto-regulate the teaching. The first statement was: *I use video to film myself while teaching in order to improve my way of teaching*. All respondents answered “never” to this statement, even if two people answered “strongly agree” and “agree” in the table at the beginning of the questionnaire. This is conflicting with what I expected because I did not think that none of them practised this use. I still hoped that some of them would answer “yes”. In fact, we learn about this use at university during

"didactique générale", so I thought that maybe some of them who went at Université of Liège kept practising this use.

In the next question I wanted to know how teachers felt while being filmed: *I feel comfortable with filming myself,* twenty-five (55,6%) answered "strongly disagree" and nine answered "disagree". However, still nine people "agree" with the statement and two "strongly agree". The next statement is linked to the previous one: *I feel comfortable when watching myself afterward*s. Not surprisingly, the results are nearly the same: twenty-five people chose "strongly disagree" (the same people as in the previous statement), ten people "disagree", nine people "agree" (sill the same ones as in the previous statement) and only one person "strongly agree". I expected these results[38]. In the next question I asked if, from a pedagogical point of view, it was important for them to be familiar with this tool. The majority of teachers answered "agree" (47,7%) but there are still eighteen of them (40,9%) who answered "(strongly) disagree". This might imply that this use is not important for teachers, and it is maybe a reason for them not to practise it. Lastly, I left a blank space in which they could justify their answers. Some people state that it is important to film oneself to help regulate their teaching (gestures, body language, posture). Some state that learners' feedbacks are enough for them to regulate their teaching. Others claim that filming oneself makes them anxious and they are more under stress while teaching with a video camera in class. Some also state that it is time consuming and that they do not have the appropriate technical materials to film themselves. We can conclude by saying that teachers seem to have good reasons for not using video to auto-regulate their teaching. It would thus be interesting to show the importance of this tool to every school so that they can provide teachers with appropriate materials. Besides, maybe a more important awareness to this tool can be made in teacher trainings, not only at universities but also in high schools.

In the fourth section and the first question *I use video to make learners produce a message in the target language (role plays, debate…) and to let them watch themselves afterwards,* seventeen teachers (37,8%) "agree" that they use video to film learners. However, fourteen teachers (31,1%) answered "strongly disagree" and eleven (24,4%) "disagree". So, in total, there are more teachers who do not film their learners than teachers who do. For the next question, the majority of teachers "strongly disagree" (46,7%) and "disagree" (31,1%) on the use of video for peer evaluation. Only eight (17,8%) "agree" and two (4,4%) "strongly agree". For the following question on the use model videos to provide learners with examples, forty

[38] I thought that if teachers do not use video to improve their teaching ways, it is because they are not comfortable with being filmed and watched (by themselves or others). I felt the same way when I had to film myself for "didactique générale".

teachers (88,9%) answered “no” and five (11,1%) answered “yes”. This shows that only a few teachers use model videos to show learners what is expected from them. The ones who answered “yes” also answered the question on the frequency; most of them show model videos once or twice a year. The next questions were about the feelings that teachers had about learners filming and watching themselves. Figures 15 and 16 show the results for these questions.

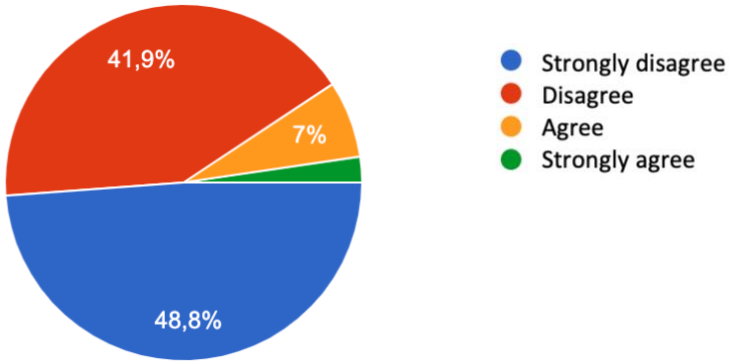

Figure 15: Results of question 25 - Learners feel comfortable while being filmed.

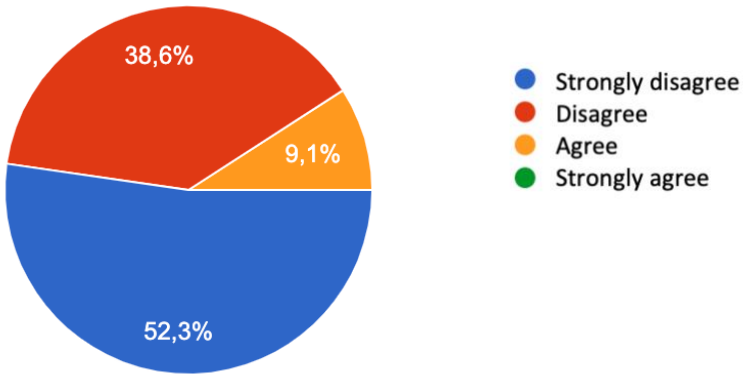

Figure 16: Results of question 26 - Learners feel comfortable when watching themselves afterwards.

The results clearly show that teachers have the impression that learners do not like to be filmed or to film themselves and that they do not like to watch themselves afterwards. This is in agreement with the studies that were analysed in Section 2.4 in which students stated that they were not at ease when filming themselves. Once more there was a question on the need of pedagogical support for teachers in this use. The majority “agree” (47,7%) and “strongly agree” (13,6%). However, thirteen (29,5%) “disagree” and four (9,1%) “strongly disagree”. This might lead us to think that there is not much pedagogical support to practise this use at school. The last question of this section was an empty space to enable teachers to give their ideas on this

use. One teacher stated that it was time consuming and another one pointed out the problems of rights to the image, which is also an important component to take into account while implementing this use.

In the fifth section, there were two main questions on learners' oral assessment with video. One was about oral production with interaction and the other without interaction. Figures 17 and 18 present the results of these questions.

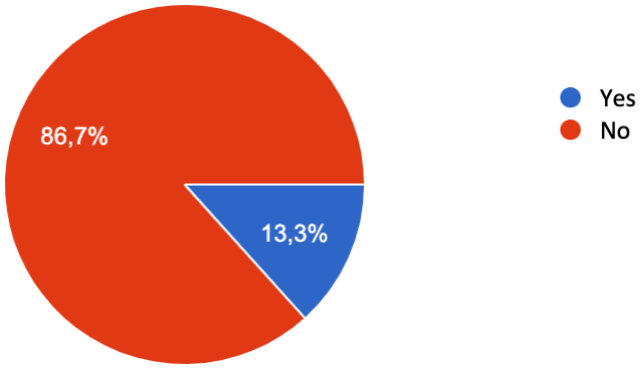

Figure 17: Results of question 29 - I film learners during certifying oral assessment with interaction (e.g. dialogues, role play, debate..) in order to watch their videos afterwards and evaluate learners more objectively.

As shown in the figure, only 6 people answered "yes". These people also answered the question on the frequency of this use; the most common answer is "once or twice a year" or "rarely".

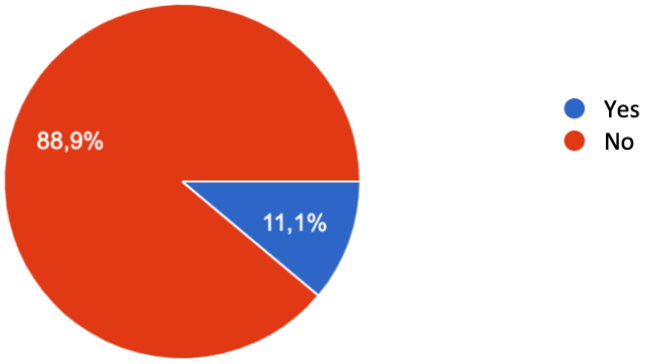

Figure 18: Results of question 31 - I film learners during certifying oral assessment without interaction (e.g. presentation, weather forecast) in order to watch their videos afterwards and evaluate learners more objectively.

Not surprisingly, the results here are more or less the same. Only five respondents answered "yes". Similarly to the previous question, the most common answer about the frequency of use is also "once or twice a year". The results of these questions show that this use is not widespread. Even if teachers practise this use, it is not quite often. Moreover, the teachers that

I have interviewed stated that there was not many teachers practising this use in their schools and the main reason for this non-utilisation is that it is time consuming[39]. Besides, in the interviews that I made; two teachers claimed that they prefer using recordings instead of videos in order to assess learners because video is too stressful for learners. One of them also claimed that video needs more preparation and more material.

For the first question of section six about the use of recorded material without visuals, the majority of the respondents (95,6%) answered that they used them instead of videos. The reasons for using recorded material without visuals instead of videos are quite diverse:

- Students can concentrate on the message instead of the visuals
- Teaching habits
- No IWB in classrooms/ no appropriate materials
- Easy to access
- Important in order to only practise listening comprehension
- Textbooks provided with audio and not video

Teachers are likely to use audio material because they want students to focus on the message and not only on the visual components of videos, as it has been discussed in Section 2.3.3. Furthermore, some teachers seem to be used to audio materials. Teachers seem thus to have good reasons for using recorded material instead of videos.

The last section of the questionnaire was for teachers who do not use videos. However, I think that there was a misunderstanding of the question because only eleven people answered "no" to the first question *In general, do you use video in your classroom?,* but more or less forty-one people participated in this section of the questionnaire. So, the results will not be relevant, as people did not really understand the aim of the last section. Even people who use video answered this section. Therefore, I will try to deeply analyse the results and find the answers of the eleven people who answered "no" to the first question. The tables below present the answers of this last section[40].

	Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
Video as input in listening comprehension activities				

[39] The interviews are in Appendix G and H.
[40] All answers, included the ones of people using videos.

Video is just a way to entertain and not to teach.	65,91%	27,27%	6,82%	0%
I do not think that video can maximize students' learning.	56,82%	34,09%	9,09%	0%
I do not use video because classrooms lack technical material.	34,15%	31,71%	17,07%	17,07%
I do not use video because there are too many technical problems.	31,71%	24,39%	34,15%	9,75%

Table 14: Results of section 7 – video as input in listening comprehension activities

The results here show that many teachers think that video can be used as a tool during listening activities. The results of the third statement are surprising because I thought that teachers did not use videos because of classroom equipment, but it is not really the case here. This might lead us to think that, nowadays, classrooms are well equipped, as stated in Section 2.2.7. However, technical problems seem to be an obstacle to use video. When analysing the results in depth, I could see individual answers and I looked for the respondents who answered "no" to the first question *In general, do you use video in your classroom?* in order to verify their answers in this section; between these people one "agree" with the first statement and three "agree" with the second statement. Four people "disagree" with the third statement and six people "agree" and "strongly agree". Eventually, five "agree" to say that there are technical problems. The reasons presented in the table seem thus to be good reasons for teachers not to implement this use.

	Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
Video to enhance learners' oral production				
I do not practise this use because it is time consuming.	27,66%	19,15%	42,55%	10,64%
I do not practise this use because learners do not like to be videoed.	10,64%	23,40%	29,79%	36,17%
I do not film learners because with the General Data Protection	12,79%	20,93%	27,91%	38,37%

Regulation (GDRP) we have to ask permission to parents in order to film their children.				

Table 15: Results of section 7 – video to enhance learners' oral production

The reasons for not practising this use are here clear. Teachers agree that this use is time consuming, that learners do not like to be filmed and that asking the permission to parents is also an obstacle. Within the eleven people who answered "no" to the first question, the results are the same. However, four teachers still answered "disagree" to the last statement, which is unexpected because I thought that it would be a main reason for not filming learners. The main reason seems thus to be the fact that it is time consuming.

	Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
Video to self-evaluate my teaching				
I do not practise this use because it is time consuming.	10,20%	28,57%	26,53%	34,70%
I do not practise this use because I do not like to see myself on a screen.	11,11%	31,11%	26,67%	31,11%
I do not practise this use because I do not feel able to evaluate myself.	23,27%	39,53%	18,60%	18,60%

Table 16: Results of section 7 – video to self-evaluate my teaching

The answers here are quite diverse, but the results are not surprising. Teachers seem to agree that they feel able to evaluate themselves. The main reason for not practising this use seems thus to be the fact that teachers do not like to see themselves on a screen, as I expected. I analysed if the results to this question depended on how long teachers have been teaching until now but it is quite diverse; some teachers have been teaching less than 5 years, others between 11 and 20 and others between 31 and 40, so it is not a matter of years of experience.

At the end of the questionnaire, teachers could give their idea about the subject. Some of them stated that the subject was interesting and others explained briefly how they use video in their classrooms.

4.4 Limitations of the study

Even if Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) claim that the most common way of collecting data is to use questionnaires, there are still issues in the use of our questionnaire. First of all, the questionnaire was created in French but it was translated in English for this dissertation. Therefore, nuances and elements in questions and in teachers' answers can somewhat be different. However, I tried to be as precise as possible to respect the signification of each question and each response.

Then, the questionnaire was administered online. Even if it was the easiest way to send it to teachers, I was not present to answer possible questions[41]. I tried to create clear questions, and even though it was pre-tested, teachers' perceptions of the questions could still be different and misunderstandings could appear. Moreover, the length of the questionnaire can also be seen as a disadvantage (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010). As stated before, the survey was long, so it can influence the respondents' motivation and thus, their answers. All the questions were not compulsory because otherwise the questionnaire would have been too long, but this can also be a disadvantage because respondents could have left out some questions, by mistake or because they did not like them (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010). The fatigue effect, linked to the length of the questionnaire, can also play a role in the unreliability of answers. I did not get much feedback at the end of the survey so this may lead to think that they were tired of answering questions. Another disadvantage pointed out by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) is "Social Desirability (or Prestige) Bias" which means that respondents do not always give responses that apply to themselves but rather responses that are socially popular, or that allow them to be socially accepted (p. 8). This bias can raise questions on the reliability of answers. Indeed, the answers can present what teachers say they practise in their classrooms instead of what they actually practise. Then, the "Acquiescence Bias" (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010) can also play a role because teachers can tend to agree with sentences they do not really understand (p. 9), and as I was not present, teachers could not ask questions.

Finally, it must be noted that the results presented in this survey cannot be over-generalised because only a sample of people answered the questionnaire and many biases can pose a problem. A larger study should be conducted in order to have more accurate responses on teachers' uses of video in the WBF.

[41] Or to tell them that the last section of the questionnaire was only made for teachers who do not use videos. It would have helped not to distort the results.

4.5 Conclusion

Relying on the results of the questionnaire, it seems that most teachers are likely to practise one or another use in their classrooms. Some uses are less practised than others. This section enables me to confirm hypothesis (1) "*Video has many benefits for learners in that observing video can improve input comprehension (receiving information in a foreign language), such as the development of listening skills or the increase of motivation",* as the use of video for input activities is common to teachers; the respondents think that video is motivating for learners and visuals are valued. However, most of them also use audio materials without visual aids because they claim that it is easier to access. Hypothesis (2) "*Video has many benefits for learners in that creating videos can enhance production skills and language skills",* is not confirmed. Since not many teachers practise this use, one can think that the outcomes are not maximal. Then, hypothesis (4) "*Language teachers do not use video for other purposes than for input comprehension"* is not confirmed, as the questionnaire shows that teachers do not only use video as input but they still use it for learners' oral production or as a conference tool. Hypotheses (7) "*Teachers do not use, or use very little, video to enhance language learners' production skills",* (7a) "*Video is not used for output because language learners do not have self-confidence"* and (7b) "*Video is not used for output because language learners are afraid to watch themselves afterwards"* are confirmed because this use is not implemented by a lot of teachers and many of them agree on the fact that learners do not like to be videoed and watched afterwards. It is one of the main reasons why this use is not widespread in language classrooms. Afterwards, hypothesis (8) *"Language teachers do not use video as a tool to self-evaluate their teaching (autoscopy)"* is confirmed because none of the teachers film themselves to auto-regulate their teaching. However, hypothesis (8a) "*Video is not used to autoregulate the teaching because teachers do not feel at ease with this use"* is not confirmed because I thought that teachers did not feel able to evaluate themselves but the results show the contrary, they seem at ease to evaluate their own teaching. Finally, hypothesis (8b) "*Video is not used to autoregulate the teaching because teachers do not feel at ease when they see themselves afterwards"* is confirmed because the main reason for not practising this use seems to be the fear of seeing themselves on a screen. To conclude, we can say that even if this last use is not practised by the respondents, video still seems important for teachers.

5 Suggestions for teaching with video

In this chapter, I will provide some guidelines that different authors have established in order to use video appropriately in language classrooms. This chapter will be divided into sections to point out to each use of video for which I have found recommendations of use.

First of all, it is important to keep in mind that, while viewing video, learners should be active in the process (Harmer, 2007). The viewing of video can be used as input, but also to make learners talk about a specific topic. In order to make learners active. Different techniques can be used such as:

- silent viewing (without sound) to discuss what they see and try to guess what is said or, on the contrary;
- playing the audio without image to try to imagine what speakers look like or;
- freeze frame to pause video and predict what can happen afterwards (Harmer, 2007: 144).

However, the images of the video must be explicit enough in the technique of viewing without sound because otherwise students may come up with many different and irrelevant answers. Besides, if it is not possible to practise these techniques while viewing video, White and Nam (2014) claim that the discussion after the viewing is also really important to integrate students in the activity.

5.1 Methods to use video as input

Firstly, Harmer (2007) states that there is a need to use well-suited viewing and listening tasks. Stoller (1993) and Deubelbeiss (2011), state that activities around video, used as input, should be divided in 3 stages: pre-viewing, viewing and post-viewing activities. They define pre-viewing activities as activities done before watching video and the purpose is to give interest to the topic of the video. The viewing activities are tasks done while watching video, learners have to focus on important features of the video so that they are active while watching. The post-viewing activities are done after the viewing, to focus on vocabulary and language use. Stoller (1993) claims that if these stages are covered, video will have more effects on learners.

Then, Harmer (2007) presents more techniques to practise prediction, he first writes about "fast forward" which is a method in which teachers show video really fast and ask learners to tell what it was about. He then writes about "partial viewing" in which teachers show a part of the screen and cover the rest of it and ask to tell what is happening, which is interesting because learners discover the situation gradually.

Eventually, another suggestion that many researchers (Harmer, 2007; Berk, 2009; Deubelbeiss, 2011; Garcia, 2012) make is to keep videos short in order to maintain students' attention. On average, they suggest to use videos of 30 seconds until 4 minutes. They state that even with short videos it is possible to create great activities and engage learners in the learning process.

5.2 Methods to use video as output

Keddie (2014) states that when teachers want learners to be videoed, they have to first ask permission. The permission can be obtained by learners themselves if they are adults or by parents if learners are minor. Keddie (2014) claims that teachers should clearly explain their intentions and the learning benefits of filming learners. He also points out that some schools ask parents to sign a form at the beginning of the school year in order to obtain their permission to film or photograph their children, which is quite interesting because it would mean that we do not have to ask the permission each time we want to film learners.

Another advice given by Keddie (2014) is to make learners collaborate with each other. Teachers should only be seen as guides in the process. The instructions of the task should therefore be clear.

Naqvi (2015) suggests to publish learner-created videos on online platforms because she states that it motivates them to do their best, as there is a goal to their production.

An important advice given by Biegel (1998) for shy learners who do not like to be filmed is that they can be directors or scriptwriters in order to participate to the task but not be filmed.

Equipment is also important to take into account. Researchers claim that teachers should give the opportunity to use materials that are known by learners because they can use them properly; smartphones, tablets, computers, etc.

5.3 Methods to use video to assess learners' production in certifying assessment

As I have not found much literature on that subject, the methods presented here will rely on the interviews that I have made with two teachers using video for assessment purposes.

One of the teachers suggest to make learners produce their videos at home and then send it to their teachers in order to be assessed. The teacher watches the videos at home and evaluates them. This can be a good method as it gives time to learners to work on their videos appropriately and gives the teacher time to assess them correctly. He also uses another method; he claims that when he films learners during classes it is only to help them be aware of the

features of a good oral production. He films thus pupils during an oral production task (e.g. a dialogue) and shows the video to fellow students and analyse it together in order to find the appropriate strategies for oral tasks. The first method is used for certifying evaluation and the second one is not assessed.

Another teacher explains that she films students during classes and that she watches their videos at home in order to take time to assess correctly. She claims that it is helpful because she can pause during the viewing and add more appropriate comments. She posits that it is difficult to do this in class during live oral tasks because it goes fast and she does not have time to write all the comments she wants. She suggests to use the same evaluation grid as the one used during formative assessments so that learners are already used to it. She finally states that students can also watch their videos in order to become aware of their strong and weak points. Finally, she suggests to invest in good filming material if we want good quality.

I have also interviewed two teachers who use audio recordings instead of videos and they both suggest to leave learners some time to prepare their monologues or dialogues and then record themselves in class to send the recordings to their teachers afterwards. They listen to the recordings at home and they can also pause or rewind in order to make better comments on the production. So, it is more or less the same techniques as for the use of videos.

5.4 Methods to use video to self-evaluate the teaching

The method of Goffin et al. (2020) is used at University of Liège. The method consists of future teachers filming themselves during a class period and then watch the video at home in order to choose an extract to show to fellow students. They have to first self-reflect on their teaching way alone, at home and then they show the extract at university to other students. They reflect together on the good and weak points and give advice on how to progress. We can thus imagine the same scenario for teachers during their career; they can film themselves, watch the video first for self-analysis (autoscopy) and eventually show their video to colleagues in order to have other points of view on their teaching.

Another suggestion is to use the platform Néopass@ction (Ria, 2010) on which teachers can find classroom situations to reflect on. They can use these videos to see other classroom practises and then autoregulate their own teaching.

Conclusion

Including video in didactic sequences can be beneficial for learners and for teachers. Video can have major advantages on teaching and learning.

This dissertation was an attempt to present various ways to use video. I have confirmed or rejected the hypotheses presented at the beginning of this dissertation. Many researchers have written on the uses of video in classrooms. The use of video can enhance motivation and language skills if video is used as input and for learners' production. Video can be used to assess learners' production and it can enable teachers to provide better feedback, as they have more time to reflect on the productions. A self-analysis of teaching can be done with video. Video as a conference tool can also have benefits, as it enables learners and teachers to interact with native speakers. It is still important to keep in mind that video is not an approach in itself but it is rather a tool that can be added to classes or that can be used to improve teaching ways.

It was observed that video receives consideration in the frameworks of references and in teaching curricula in Belgium. Video occurs many times in these documents; even if all uses presented in this dissertation are not mentioned. The most common use that is recommended is to provide learners with a large language input so that they can enhance language skills.

The results of the survey addressed to teachers of the French-speaking part of Belgium show that many of them use video for different purposes in their classrooms. Most of them use video as input. Some of them ask their pupils to film themselves for oral production tasks. However, there are teachers who do not practise this use because they claim that pupils are shy and do not feel comfortable when watching themselves on a screen. Not many teachers film their pupils to assess them afterwards because it is time consuming. None of the respondents use video to autoregulate their teaching.

Eventually, teaching suggestions for some of the uses have been presented in the last chapter of the dissertation and it is thus clear that video can be used in different ways in second language teaching. The main thing is to organise and create well-suited activities to enable learners to take profit of the various uses of video.

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