

Using videos as stimuli to increase students' confidence in speaking in the German language classroom

Anna Maly

A Research & Development Project

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First Name	Anna
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1. Introduction

A parent at a recent parents' evening announced that "German is an old-fashioned language" and questioned whether anyone even spoke the language these days. Not only did this parent insult my native language, but they also seemed to be uninformed about the potential of studying German to enrich their child's intellectual, social and cultural life:

German is spoken as a first language by over 100 million people, (...). Germany is the UK's most important trading partner and remains the powerhouse of the European Union; contacts with Germany are of ever-increasing importance for the governments, businesses and citizens of the new Europe. (...) 18% of the books published worldwide each year are in German. German-speaking writers, thinkers and artists have long been and continue to be at the forefront of intellectual life, and German literature, art, cinema and philosophy is influential worldwide. (Online, the University of Oxford, 2020)

As the description above makes clear, there are many reasons to teach this important language in England's schools. The parents' evening incident left me speechless, but, nevertheless, it made me think about how we promote and teach German at my school.

England's isolationist politics and its idea of English as a language being 'enough' in a globalised world, might be reasons why modern foreign languages are becoming less popular (Collen, 2020). On top of that Brexit has not had a positive effect on thoughts of learning modern languages, since some students or parents find it pointless to learn a language (Tinsley & Dolezal, 2018; Collen, 2020). Moreover, limited time to learn a language in Key Stage 3 and poor transition from primary to secondary could also be a reason why students are not motivated to learn another language (Tinsley & Board, 2017; Tinsley & Dolezal, 2018).

Increasing the numbers of students taking German at GCSE has been a priority of mine for the last couple of years. My colleagues and I have been trying to find methods to motivate students to be

more enthusiastic about languages, and particularly, German. I was thinking of tasks and activities that my students enjoyed the most and found myself coming back to videos and films over and over again. In the past, I have exposed my language students to many videos, some of them with music, some of which were just for fun, others depicting daily life in the German-speaking world, and some of which were of explanatory nature. Usually, at the end of summer term, I have shown DVDs in the remaining two lessons as a ‘treat’, without any further lessons planned. However, I have observed that students were always enthusiastic about them. Students were staring at the screen, figuring out the meaning behind it or trying to listen closely to challenge themselves if they were able to understand some German. Videos have also been an option if I wanted to bring in change or if my explanation of a particular topic was not enough. In addition to that, they have become apparent to be entertaining and useful, something I enjoy myself. Another observation of mine was made within my family. My cousins’ children, who are teenagers, watch YouTube videos rather than any TV channels and one of them dreams of becoming a famous YouTuber. Videos and films are said to be motivating (Herrero & Vanderschelden, 2019). When applied well, videos can improve students’ listening, reading, writing and speaking skills and more importantly they can educate students about cultures and create an awareness of different cultures (Tuncay, 2014; Montero Perez et al., 2013; Siska, 2015; Chan & Herrero, 2010; Council of Europe, 2001; Landis et al., 2004). Therefore, it appeared natural to adopt videos and embed them in the curriculum to not only motivate students but also to improve their confidence in speaking and other skills. Moreover, it seems as if videos are a part of this generations’ daily life - so why should they not be implemented in lessons?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Learning a Foreign Language in Britain

This section provides insights into how foreign language learning in Britain has developed over the years and the situation today.

In order to understand language learning in modern British schools, one must look closely at the historical background. French has always been the most popular foreign language in Britain; this might be due to the Norman conquest in 1066 whereby French became the dominant language of the ruling classes of Britain. An additional influence is likely to be geographical location, France being very close to Britain. German was the second most popular foreign language for study, this interest in learning the German language began in the eighteenth century due to a close relationship between the countries' monarchies. Even after the Second World War, German was taught in schools and Britons did not lose interest in learning the language. Spanish has grown in popularity in the late twentieth century as a result of the rise in tourism in Spain, which started around the 1960s. Spanish has overtaken German as the 'second' foreign language in Britain. According to Mclelland (2018) this might be because of its easy syntax or commercial value. Since then Spanish has overtaken German for the uptake for GCSE in Britain (Long et al., 2020). Nevertheless Britain was, compared with other European countries relatively *bad* at learning a second language. According to Milton and Meara (1998) British students are not "bad" or less able, other factors play a role. One factor is that the national curriculum in Britain appears to be problematic, which other authors agree with (Collen, 2020; Tinsley, 2019) and the little time spent on learning a language at school might be another reason why students in Britain seem to do much worse than other European countries, when it comes to language learning.

Although it was mandatory for students to learn a language for their General Certificate in Secondary Education (GCSE) up until 2004 (Bower, 2019; McLalland, 2018) the British Government made learning a language in Key Stage 4 (14-16 year olds) optional. This had a definite impact on the numbers of students studying languages at GCSE level, which was "down to 47% of

entrants in 2007” (McLelland, 2018:13), and the same decrease was visible for the uptake of foreign languages in A-levels and universities. In 2011, the government tried to reverse this effect by introducing the English Baccalaureate (EBacc). It is a performance measure and would be one of five subjects which learners would take for their GCSE. The EBacc had a positive effect on the uptake of languages, but not as much as the government had hoped (Tinsley & Board, 2013, 2015). The issue of uptake for languages at examination level at the age of 16, remains to be tackled by the government. According to McLelland (2018) two problems which hinder the increase in uptake for languages at GCSE, might be the lack of suitable qualified teachers and the “loss of momentum in the transition from primary to secondary school language learning” (McLelland, 2018:13). As Bower (2019:46) has summarised, there might be far more underlining issues, such as:

(...) the lack of a coherent national language policy based on a sound philosophical approach (Evans 2000; Macaro 2008); curricula with content perceived by learners to be irrelevant (Coyle 2000; Bell 2004); and a subject perceived as difficult and unimportant by many learners (Jones and Jones, 2001; Dearing and King, 2007)

Looking at Figure 1 from a recent review by Long et al. (2020) for the House of Common Library, the data reflects the significant drop in 2004 and the slight rise when the EBacc was introduced in 2011. Unfortunately, numbers have been dropping since then. Tinsley (2019) published similar numbers covering trends until 2018, showing that since 2014 French and German dropped by 30% whereas Spanish only recorded a decline of 2% since 2014.

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Figure 1: Entries in Modern Language GCSEs in England (Long et al., 2020:29)

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A similar picture is presented in Key Stage 5 (16-18 year olds) (Long et al., 2020); it presents a far steeper decline than in Key Stage 4, especially for French and German, this has been visible since the mid-1990s according to the Tinsley (2019). However, Spanish entries have increased.

Figure 2: Number of Entries in Modern Language A-Levels (Long et al., 2020:30)

The British Council (2014:19), who regards the ability to speak another language vital, claims that: “The resulting language deficit, if not tackled, is a threat to our competitiveness, influence and standing in the world, as well as to our citizens’ ability to play a meaningful role in the global economy and an increasingly network and interconnected world.” The Common European Framework (CEFR) has defined on how language should be taught across Europe, with important aspects to include being linguistic, culture, its educational aspect across Europe and their protection and promotion of European cultural heritage are important aspects to include when teaching languages (Council of Europe, 2011).

2.2. Motivation in Language Learning

There are numerous reasons why one would want to learn a foreign language. While Gardner and Lambert (1972, in Graham, 2014) claim that motivation is essential for being a successful language learner, Eccles (1983) and Ryan (2000, in Graham, 2014) suggest that the direction of causality is reversed, meaning that motivation develops when a student is successful in their learning. Weiner (1992:17) defines motivation as “the study of the determinants of thought and action – it addresses *why* behaviour is initiated, persist, and stops, as well as what choices are made.” Dörnyei (1998) talks about the “what”, “how” and “by what means” meaning *what* motivates language learners,

how does this motivation affect their learning and *by what means* can it be sustained. Additionally, he adds that motivation is dependent on time and context, meaning it can fluctuate (Graham, 2014). The following section provides a brief overview of the most relevant motivational theories in the context of British schools before I move on to discuss Willingness to Communicate (WTC) and films.

The main motivational language learning theory was coined by Gardner, which is the ‘socio-educational approach’, that addresses why students want to learn a second or another language. It explores *integrative orientation* – people learning a language to feel closer to a foreign language community; as well as *instrumental orientation* – people learning another language due to its use in future prospects. Gardner and his colleagues have based their studies mainly in Canada, which has a large French community. However, since the UK does not consist of bilingual places such as Canada does, integrative orientation is rather unlikely to be found in Key Stage 3 students in Britain. Graham (2014: 176) points out that “school-aged learners have little choice until they get to a certain age as to whether they study a language or not, so that we might be better off considering instead the factors that influence levels of persistence and effort during language learning.” Therefore, expectancy-value theory, attribution theory, self-efficacy, or situational and task motivation might be more relevant when talking about motivation in Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) lessons in the UK. Being integrated in a foreign language community is less likely to be a strong motivator for most students in the UK context as they are unlikely to have regular contact with a German-speaking community (Crooks & Schmidt, 1991). Nevertheless, Gardner’s approach can be compared to many modern approaches, since the main idea of ‘what motivates students to learn another language’ has not changed.

2.2.1. Expectancy-value and ideal-self theory

The first “*expectancy-value frameworks* theorise that individuals’ motivated decisions to engage in particular tasks and their performance and persistence can be explained by their expectations of

how well they will do on the task and how much they value its achievement” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:13-14). Stables and Wikeley (1999) and Court (2014, in Graham) claim that students who have negative attitudes towards languages do not find them useful for their future. Although studies (Fisher, 2001; QCA, 2014, in Graham) have shown that students know the importance of languages, they find them too difficult to study. Graham (2014) suggests that some students in the UK have low self-confidence (Erler & Macaro, 2011) or are highly influenced by their peers (Bartram, 2006; O’Reilly Cavani, 2000), which appears to be a negative influence when choosing their GCSE options.

According to Graham (2014:181), the *ideal self theory* is closely linked to self-efficacy (discussed below) since it reflects upon “one’s sense of identity”. Some students might want to feel integrated in the target language community or can picture themselves mastering the language.

The ideal self involves the individual’s own vision for him or herself, while the ought self involves someone else’s vision for the individual- the latter may therefore bear little resemblance to one’s own desires or wishes or the possibility of ever attaining them. (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:82)

2.2.2. Self-efficacy and attribution theory

Self-efficacy theory, “refers to people’s judgement of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:16). According to Bandura, who developed the theory, “efficacy beliefs are the foundation of human agency.” (cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:16). In other words, if people do not feel confident in their ability to learn languages, they may feel threatened and give up, contrary to people who have a high self-efficacy belief, who think that they can overcome obstacles and “sustain effort in the face of failure” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:16). Graham (2014) highlights two aspects, crucial for a positive self-efficacy belief, which Bandura (1995) has mentioned. He talks about the *mastery experience*, achieving success, which was rather difficult to obtain; and *social persuasion*, which is praise and encouragement from others. There are also two other aspects of Bandura’s theory, which Akhtar (2008) summarised, firstly *vicarious*

experiences, when people see their role models succeed they feel more confident in believing they can succeed as well; and secondly the *emotional and physiological states*, such as stress and happiness can either have a negative or positive effect on one's confidence. Bandura's (1993,1995) self-efficacy theory connects with Weiner's (1979) *attribution theory*. "The main principle of attribution theory is that the causal attributions one makes of past successes and failures (...) have consequences on future achievement strivings" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:15). For example, if students recognise that they did succeed because they did not use an effective revision strategy, they are less likely to be demotivated the next time, since they have control over their future revision strategies. However, *attributions* beyond one's control are more problematic in motivation: for instance, poor teaching or being 'bad' at languages. The latter example is internal but if the student sees their ability as something that is stable and beyond their control this is a problematic attribution for their future motivation. Macaro (2003:115) claims that in order to improve motivation within languages, one has "to start with the self-efficacy issue" (Graham, 2014) One way to do this might be to teach students strategies to overcome problems that occur in MFL lessons. This increases the likelihood that they will have an experience of mastering the language that they can attribute to their own effort and strategic approach. This form of 'problem solving' has been investigated in studies by Macaro and Erler (2008), who gave students the right tools to improve their reading ability in French, or Graham and Macaro (2008) who achieved a similar positive effect by improving students' listening skills. These studies suggest that *social persuasion* needs to occur in the form of positive feedback and encouragement in order to improve self-efficacy and motivation in the language learning classroom (Graham, 2014). These studies were conducted in the context of schools in England and are therefore highly relevant to my study.

2.2.3. Self-determination theory (SDT)

Deci and Ryan's (1985) *self-determination theory (SDT)*, not only discusses *extrinsic* and *intrinsic* motivation, but also the concepts of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Intrinsic motivation

is based on accomplishing a task for the sense of satisfaction or merely to experience pleasure and joy; it is for its own sake. On the contrary, extrinsic motivation, on the contrary, is for the sake of a reward, for example good grades, or to avoid punishment (Graham, 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Graham (2014:182) claims that intrinsic motivation fosters learners' autonomy and adds that learning a language in the UK appears to have no lasting intrinsic motivation since it imposes studying MFL on learners. Furthermore she says "(...) negative attitudes towards language learning were more closely associated with learners viewing languages in term of the extrinsic rewards they might bring, (...)". SDT is usually focussed on the individual but humans are unavoidably influenced by external factors, therefore the theory is not simply explained by extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Ackerman, 2020). "People will be more self-determined in performing a particular behaviour to the extent that the social environment supports the following human needs"(Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:25), which are: autonomy (humans have a need to control their lives and behaviour), competence (humans need to find ways of dealing with their environment and to become proficient in tasks they find useful), and relatedness, which simply highlights humans' needs to feel connected with somebody and adapt to their environment (Ackerman, 2020; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). "The concept of human needs turns out to be extremely useful because it provides a means of understanding how various social forces and interpersonal environment affect autonomous versus controlled motivation"(Deci & Ryan, 2008:183).

2.2.4. Contextual influences

According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013:25) "environmental dimensions have a certain amount of influence on one's cognition, behaviour and achievement." Therefore, motivation needs to be put into the context of a language learning classroom.

"Learning activities, instructional materials, and even individual tasks can motivate students(...). Teaching and learning can be experiences either as motivating or demotivating. This is particularly important because teaching is the component that can easiest be modified" (Julkunen, 2001:29).

When talking about *contextual influences on motivation*, it is being divided into two main areas. First, the *instructional context*, which includes task and materials used in lessons, evaluation and structures of groups. Secondly, the *social and cultural influences*, which include teachers, family, peers, school itself and the culture and society the student is in (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Short term motivation can be generated via specific tasks whereas cultural influences develop over a certain period of time.

There are three main instructional context factors that affect students' motivation: Firstly, *task motivation* which can motivate students in instructional contexts and can depend on intrinsic (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002) and past experiences but also on situational interest (Krapp, 2002). Secondly, *evaluation practices* which motivates students according to their academic abilities. Thirdly, the *structure of student groups*, which is divided into another three main ways of learning:

- Competitive (where the focus is on how students perform relative to one another);
- Individualistic (where the focus is on individual learning goals);
- Cooperative (where students work together to achieve a shared goal)

(Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:27)

According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013), in competitive learning, only high achieving students are motivated in competitive learning, whereas individualistic and cooperative learning may be more likely to promote self-efficacy.

The factors that form social and cultural influences are firstly teachers, who play a major role in students' motivation. Analysing teachers' influence on students' motivation is complex, but it is clear that enthusiasm, competence and teachers' attitude are considerable influences. Peer groups can be another factor that influences students' motivation, especially during adolescence when friendships can become more important than family. Peer groups can have a negative or positive impact on individuals. The third factor is schools, according to Maehr and Midgley (1991, in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:29), "schools vary in their general climate and policies", and factors such as school stress, student expectations or the level of authority within the school can make a difference. Fourthly, parents and family can influence students' motivation from very early on. As

stated by Eccles et al. (1998, in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013:30), four family factors have been identified to shape a student's motivation:

- Developmentally appropriate timing of achievement demands/pressure;
- High confidence in one's children's abilities;
- A supportive affective family climate;
- Highly motivated role model.

Finally, the culture and society in which students grow up can have an influence on their motivation.

2.2.5. Conclusion

In conclusion, motivation is a widely varied and complex concept of trying to understand why students like or dislike languages. Hence the purpose of this brief overview, aimed to highlight the most important concepts as to what can influence learners' motivation, such as whether students are already motivated language learners, or they develop their motivation when transitioning to secondary school and find tasks more interesting than in primary school. It could be a mixture of all different types of theories and approaches that define a student's motivation. Nevertheless, it is important to be aware of such a variety of motivational theories.

2.3. Speaking out Loud

The National Curriculum in England (DoE, 2013:2) states that students should be able to “express and develop ideas clearly and with increasing accuracy, both orally and in writing” and “speak coherently and confidently” by the end of Key Stage 3 (KS3). Moreover, students should be able to “communicate confidently” and do this “spontaneously and fluently” (DoE, 2015:3).

Teachers might find these requirements rather demanding, as the limited number of lessons per week in KS3 might not allow that many verbal interactions (Tinsley & Board, 2017; Tinsley & Dolezal, 2018). In addition, research (Christie, 2016; Harris et al., 2001) has shown that a smaller class size would be ideal to practise speaking and spontaneous classroom talk. However, this turns out to be difficult due to large class sizes. Nevertheless, Christie (2016) and Harris et al. (2001)

conclude that “teachers’ willingness to give students opportunities to speak spontaneously, valuing this time to experiment and develop L2 learning, careful task choice and scaffolding are essential in order to build up students’ confidence gradually to speak spontaneously” (Maly, 2019:5).

With this in mind, teachers might succeed in supporting students’ speaking skills and enable them to speak confidently by the end of KS3. Needless to say, it is also up to the students to be open minded and willing to practise speaking and communication in the language classroom. The following section explores the Willingness to Communicate (WTC), the issue of anxiety in the field of speaking in the second language (from now on L2) and strategies that promote speaking in the language classroom.

2.3.1. The Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

Willingness to Communicate (WTC) is, according to MacIntyre (2007:567), “the probability of initiating communication, give choice and opportunity”. MacIntyre (1994) shaped research in this field with the WTC model (Figure 3). After researching (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996) WTC in L2 it emerged that one’s willingness to communicate is dependent on far more variables than initially assumed (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2017).

The figure originally presented here cannot be made freely available via ORA because of copyright. The figure was sourced at MacIntyre, P., Dörnyei, Z., Clement, R. and Noels, K. (1998). Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in a L2: A Situational Model of L2 Confidence and Affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(4), 545

Figure 3: Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC in MacIntyre et al. (1998:547)

The WTC is best explained with the WTC model by MacIntyre et al. (1998:547), which is presented in Figure 3. The model is structured into two groups, which consist of a total of six layers. The first three layers focus on situational context, and the last three layers concentrate on more stable influences, such as personality.

Most elements of MacIntyre's et al.'s (1998) model of WTC is self-explanatory. It is, however, important to mention that box three focuses on the desire of whom we want to talk to; therefore, physical attraction plays a role. Boxes four and ten are linked, MacIntyre et al. (1998) differentiate between situational and state anxiety and competence. State anxiety finds its root in prior negative experiences, while situational anxiety is not consistently present. State competence is similar to state anxiety and "is based on prior experiences; when students encounter similar situations and feel therefore confident in mastering these" (Maly, 2019:6).

Box ten, communicative competence, consists of a linguistic and discourse variable, which means being able to understand grammar and syntax. Layer four is also interesting, being defined by individual motivation (box five), which is driven by one's control over the situation and one's motivation of wanting to interact in the L2 with others. Intergroup motivation (box six) depends on affiliation and the attitude one has towards another group. Box seven, L2 self-confidence, merely displays a general belief in one's communicative abilities in the L2. Box six and seven "are closely linked but also highly specific depending on one's character" (Maly, 2019:6).

At this point, it needs to be said that many layers interact with each other and some layers appear to be more dominant than others. Moreover, layer one or box eleven, for example, assume that learners of a L2 want to be integrated in the L2 community. In the context of England, this may be less likely than in countries where there is regular contact with L2 speakers beyond the classroom walls.

2.3.2. The issue of being unwilling to communicate

Not wanting to talk in the L2 is very common, and this issue can stem from a variety of reasons. As shown in Figure 3, anxieties could derive from social situations (box nine), self-confidence (box seven) or talking to a specific person (box three). Researchers have highlighted the reasons for an unwillingness to communicate, these include the following: anxiety, which Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2017) classify as pre-dominant; embarrassment towards peers or teachers (Yoshida, 2013); mispronunciation (Baran-Lucarz, 2014); one's feeling of competence (Baker and MacIntyre, 2000); and finally situational anxiety, which De Saint Leger and Storch (2009) discovered is a reason why students are unwilling to communicate in the language they are learning.

According to De Saint Leger's and Storch's (2009) study, discussions with a whole class saw a rise in anxiety, while the results of discussions in small groups were mixed. The reasons for anxiety in whole class discussions were reported to predominantly be the judgment by peers. On the other hand, in small group discussions, some students enjoyed communicating in the L2, while others felt uncomfortable and embarrassed to talk to peers in the L2. Students in this study felt that group discussions were inauthentic and stated that someone would always switch to the first language (from now on L1). Cao and Philp (2006) had similar results in their research study. Their study and Barton's (2006) mentions that group-size has a major impact on WTC. In addition, Baran-Lucarz (2006) found that students who show a higher intergroup motivation (which is box six in Figure 3) are more willing to communicate in the L2. Moreover, if students were familiar with each other, their anxiety was lower. Another interesting discovery was that if students were interested in a certain topic, their communicative interaction was higher.

Yoshida's (2013) study exemplifies a positive impact of group work on WTC. Two of three participants showed embarrassment and anxiety when asked to talk in the L2. They overcame their anxiety by practising within a group over a longer period of time. Not only Yoshida (2013) but also Bernales (2016) mentions that confidence in speaking in the L2 develops over a longer period

of time. High expectations, clear rules and encouraging students to picture themselves speaking in the L2 leads to higher motivation. However, Bernales' (2016) study found that students were not unwilling to communicate but rather unable to express themselves, which was frustrating. Students reported that if they had had more time to think about their answer, they would have wanted to speak in the L2. According to MacIntyre and Doucette (2010), hesitation and anxiety go hand-in-hand, and anxiousness creates lower L2 confidence. Maly (2019:8) believes that students' "hesitation might be influenced by situational anxiety and the communicative competence."

A research study by Clark (1995) found that boys participated more frequently in lessons than girls did, a conclusion shared with teachers and both female and male students came to this conclusion. She adds that in one Year 11 class, in which seven boys and twelve girls were learning a foreign language, the boys interacted 36 times with their teacher whereas girls had only 22 interactions. Clark's (1995) study focussed on why boys underperformed in languages compared to girls in spite of their relatively high levels of participation. The study also found that girls and boys need to see a purpose in why they are learning a language, but more boys than girls found that using the language in the target language country makes learning purposeful.

The MacIntyre et al. (2003) study focusses on the first three years in secondary school. They found that students who are more motivated and have a positive attitude towards the language are "more willing to communicate, have higher perceived competence, communicate more frequently in the L2, and have lower communication apprehension." (MacIntyre et al., 2003:156). Moreover, students who are in year 7 are less likely to communicate in the L2, because they might not have enough experience compared to students in year 8 and 9 students. Furthermore, the research found that girls' WTC rises and their anxiety decreases from year 8 to 9, while boys' WTC and anxiety levels were consistent across the three year groups. This could be due to puberty and an increase in self-consciousness, which girls experience earlier than boys. Year 9 girls might therefore show higher levels of confidence and are more willing to communicate. MacIntyre et al. (2003:144)

summarise that “sex likely interacts with age to influence L2 communication variables because of difference in boys’ and girls’ developmental paths during adolescence.”

2.3.3. Creating a supportive and safe learning environment

In order to support students and to create a safe learning, and in this case, speaking environment, investigators have come up with useful teaching techniques to support students. Zarrinabadi (2014:294) has found six ways that can enhance students’ WTC:

- Negotiated topics
- Students’ choice
- Focus on student knowledge
- Awareness and adaptation of error correction
- Allotment of time for consideration and reflection prior to answering questions
- Creating a supportive learning environment through verbal and non-verbal communication strategies on the part of the teacher.

Wait-time was especially considered as vital in order to support students’ WTC. Students might need to think about a specific word, or syntax, and is henceforth a distorted image of their unwillingness to communicate. Teachers should be aware of wait-time, since students do not always feel as anxious as their teachers believe they are, as a study by Levine (2003) has shown. Teachers should also value students’ flawed answers, as immediate correction can lead to an uncomfortable atmosphere (Wen & Clement, 2003; Kang, 2005, in Zarrinabadi, 2014). Additionally, body language was found to have a positive effect on students’ WTC.

Another way of counteracting speaking anxiety is by codeswitching, which means to use a balance between L1 (English) and L2 (German). Codeswitching is described by Daily-O’Cain and Liebscher (2009:131) “as a systematic, alternating use of two languages or language varieties within a single conversation utterance”, and Macaro (2009:38) says that “optimal use is where codeswitching in broadly communicate classrooms can enhance second language acquisition and/or proficiency better than second language exclusivity”. With the correct balance between L1 and L2,

teachers construct a supportive learning atmosphere, which would be difficult to create if teachers only speak in the L2. Moreover, it is said (Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Franklin, 1990) that using the L1 is helpful to build a rapport with students, to explain complex grammar concepts, and to manage classroom behaviour. When teachers use the L2 and students are familiar with this situation (Macaro, 2009), students become less afraid of speaking in the target language (Levine, 2003).

In conclusion, it is important that teachers are role models (Harris et al., 2001) and should make use of the L2. Barton (2006) suggests that praising students or modelling answers can help them gain confidence. Furthermore, group work can be a useful tool to enhance WTC (Yoshida, 2013; Cao & Philp, 2006) and teachers can establish a supportive learning environment for this (Chang, 2010).

2.4. Films and Videos in the Language Classroom

One way of motivating students to continue studying or to simply enjoy language lessons and teach them in a different way is the inclusion of film or video clips in the classroom. Employing moving images is a different method of teaching, but also a more and more vital part of the process of learning a second or foreign language (from now on FL) and its culture. It is also another way of promoting interest in teaching, researching and learning from films due to their cultural richness and visual communication. Using moving images to learn a new language provides the benefit of improving one's intercultural competence. (Herrero & Vanderschelden, 2019). According to Donaghy (2019:15), "the moving image is rapidly becoming the primary mode of communication in the world." The British Film Institute (BFI) (2015:3) has concluded their project on films in language lessons with the following words: "The overwhelming finding of this project is that work with short film motivates children and young people to engage with foreign language and foreign language cultures in ways that few other classroom experiences do."

Students are enthusiastic about films, videos, television series and computer games, hence schools should embrace visual media. However, the educational system has been responding slowly to these

new demands and media hype. The BFI (2019, in Donaghy) and the New London Group (1996) stress the point of the importance of film in teaching and its educational purpose in literacy. The educational system needs to address the impact of visual communication and should react accordingly. Donaghy (2019:16) emphasise that filmmaking develops skills which are required and valued in today's workplaces, such as "(...) collaboration, decision-making, conflict resolution, critical thinking and creativity (...)". In addition, the Education Endowment Foundation of Durham University in the UK (cited in Smith & Conti, 2016:282) bases its research on technology in general and concludes that "studies linking the provision and use of technology with attainment tend to find consistent but small positive associations with educational outcomes."

2.4.1. The benefits of using films and videos in the language classroom

According to Donaghy (2019), the benefits of using film in the language classroom are intercultural competence (Chan and Herrero, 2010; Council of Europe, 2001; Landis et al., 2004), as it communicates a target language's attitudes, beliefs, another culture's values and customs (Donaghy, 2019:16); more diversity in the language classroom and teaching tools for teachers. This is also believed by Mallinger and Rossy (2003) who claimed that films do not only open a window to many different cultures but that it also motivates and stimulates retention. "Students today have become accustomed to learning through multimedia and are easily bored or distracted by more traditional pedagogies" (2003:609). This motivation could be increased with a film project (Donaghy, 2019; Kidron, 2012), which lets students create their own films (Donaghy, 2019; Goldstein and Driver, 2014).

The benefits mentioned above have been observed by numerous researchers (Swaffar & Vlatten, 1997; Pegrum et al., 2005; Rogers, 2007; Pegrum, 2008; Vanderplank, 2010). One reoccurring benefit that has been mentioned by all these authors is the component of *authenticity*. Donaghy (2019:6-7) states that:

another vital benefit of using films in language education is that they are a source of authentic language as films are authentic materials and provide students with genuine input in which they can see and hear the foreign language being used in 'real' situations. Film also provides with authentically interactive language.

Baddock (1991:16) defines authentic material as "materials, that is, produced by native speakers for native speakers' use". However, he says that films are scripts, hence they do not tend to be real life situations but that it is the teachers' role to identify "good reflections of life, language and relationships" (1991:16). Gilmore (2007:98), on the other hand defines authenticity in these words, "(...) authenticity can be situated in either the text itself, in the participants, in the social or cultural situation and purpose of the communicative act, or some combination of these." He concludes that defining authentic material is quite difficult to characterise as it depends on many factors.

Baddock (1991: 16) gives students credit for "(...) being trained to become 'cultural translators' – prejudice-free mediators between cultures" and continues that "Indeed, an insight onto the thinking and behaviour of the foreign culture is nowadays seen as part of communicative competence." He adds that students have to 'deal with' the lack of understanding of cultural background knowledge, such as jokes or class differences. Students "(...) transfer 'native' communicative skills to the task, such as recognising significant features of behaviour (gestures and body language) or deciding what kind of meaning a half-heard utterance must have had" (Baddock, 1991:17). Despite the difficulty of understanding foreign films, a very positive aspect is that non-native speakers, who watch a film in another language, bring different experiences into the mix. This differs, however, being highly depending on the student. Authentic materials also depend on students' attitudes and what they make of the material given to them.

A study by Herron et al. (2002) has shown that foreign cultures can be learnt and understood through the introduction of cultural *practices* and *products*. In their study students of intermediate French became more aware and understanding of the Francophonie practices through exposure to videos dealing with practices and products. Their findings are a guideline of how culture can be taught in

FL lessons. These are a guideline of how culture can be taught in FL lessons. Cultural practices, or little “c”, refer to aspects of lifestyle: for example, patterns of behaviour and communicating in a cultural context; whereas cultural product, or big “C”, refers to civilization, for example: institutions, cultural achievements, literature or religion (Herron et al., 1999, 2000). There is also a third classification which is “culture as a social discourse” (McCarthy & Carter, 1994:151-152, cited in Herron et al., 1999:519) which refers to usage of silence or conventions of politeness. In Herron’s et al. (2002) study, students recalled more practices than products. The study emphasises that the use of videos can lead to enhanced cultural knowledge. A similar study by Herron et al. (2000) was conducted with first-year learners of French. Their study looked at little “c” and big “C” components and found that their little “c” component was much higher compared with pre and post-tests. Again, videos benefitted students’ progress and are said to be effective at teaching culture, and the research of Herron et al. (1999) supports this.

Authentic materials can benefit students to improve any of the four skills or reading, writing, listening or speaking. This is suggested by the following studies and mentioned by Willis (1983) to be beneficial when exposed to films and videos. Tuncay (2014) revealed that the exposure of feature films helped English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students in terms of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Moreover, students of this study claimed to have improved their English for specific functions, in social exchanges and for authentic expressions. In addition, students believed that they learnt new vocabulary and became able to differentiate between natural and artificial usage of the English language. King (2002, cited in Tuncay, 2014:61) “claims that ‘exposing learners to authentic materials, however, is a necessary stage in the learning process to help students master listening strategies.’” Writing skills are another benefit to support students’ learning of a foreign language. Subtitles are a tool for students to acquire vocabulary, this field has been well researched according to Herrero and Vanderschelden (2019). Frumusela’s (2019) study reveals that using captioned and subtitled films for colloquial expressions “show increased comprehension, increased vocabulary acquisition and enhanced speaking and listening skills (...)”, so did Montero Perez’s et

al.'s (2013) guided learning; their study focussed on subtitling colloquial expressions, and appeared to be successful. In addition to these studies, Cokely's and Munoz's (2019) investigation into using captioned videos for vocabulary retention and visual prompts had a positive effect on students' learning. According to Alonso-Perez's (2019) study on using a subtitling project to enhance student motivation, students' wish to speak Spanish fluently was 100% by week four of the project. However, her project concluded that rewards played a major role in motivating students and special considerations need to be adhered to when it comes to summative assessments. Nevertheless, Alonso-Perez (2019) says that using a project such as subtitling films might be a new form of assessment, with which Huet's and Reid's (2020) teacher seminar agrees with.

In terms of speaking benefits, Siska (2015), for example, noted that Chinese students in the research study were observed participating in more speaking activities. They tried to pronounce words from the film, had discussions and had high self-confidence. Moreover, in general, students were 80% more motivated and had a positive attitude when exposed to films. In Herron's et al. (1999) aforementioned study, which was mentioned earlier, students claimed that they had learnt how to communicate more effectively, also Herron et al. (2000) claims that films are potentially enhancing student's language skills, in particular speaking and, again, listening.

Another positive example for films being a beneficial tool in the language classroom is Dubrac's (2019) research project. Although it only lasted over 15 hours, French students were able to imitate gestures and verbal communications in English. Dubrac (2019) focussed on re-enacting and reinterpreting an English language film in a French school. She describes that the use of films and moving images is challenging for teachers in France as most schools do not have access to computers or TVs in the classrooms, hence, planning for such events is time-consuming. However, she ran her qualitative study over 10 weeks, 15 hours in total and concludes that re-enactment of films can support learners to develop their gestural and verbal communication in English as a foreign language. Some students in this study needed reassurance and guided rehearsals. As this

was a very short study, it only shows extracts of its full potential. Dubrac (2019) says that students need to be able to identify themselves with the film, or at least parts of it.

2.4.2. Disadvantages of using films and videos in the language classroom

Needless to say, all practices can contain disadvantages, which are important to highlight.

One drawback of using films as a teaching tool is how time consuming it can be to prepare appropriate tasks that support lessons in which film or videos are implemented (Pisarenko, 2017).

Another drawback that occurs, especially when using feature-length films, is if films are not provided with pre, during and post learning materials. Hence, why students will not improve in any language skills. Non-captioned films might be hindering learning opportunities. Teachers must be aware of not unnecessarily interrupting during films, as this can be demotivating and lead to normal 'in-class teaching' (Tuncay, 2014).

A further disadvantage is the understanding of language or authentic material (culture), which might be problematic when not scaffolded correctly. Baddock (1991) mentions that, for example, French film makers did not want to address German-speaking or English-speaking audiences; they made their film for a French-speaking audience. This could lead to demotivation, as students do not feel included and cannot identify themselves with the pictures or text they are confronted with. However, Baddock (1991:17) reassures that this is the case for any material and "every film will be unattractive and unmotivating to some students." A study by Edasawa et al. (1992) was not successful to improve students' listening comprehension. The researchers observed that their partial- transcription of the text was a hindrance to practise listening. Furthermore, the difficulty of the film was an issue, as were the teaching methods. Participants in a study by Pegrum et al. (2005) stated that they were most concerned about not understanding the language or its cultural context. However, 95% believed that being exposed to FL films would benefit them linguistically, especially with their speaking. In general, Pisarenko (2017:17) emphasises the difficulty due to it being in a different language and the investment of time: "it is the simultaneous perception of the phonetic,

grammatical, lexical, cultural and other types of materials. It is quite difficult and may cause additional challenges for students. Removing these constraints will require additional time.”

A study by the BFI (2015) has shown that if students cannot identify themselves with the film or find it difficult to understand the content, they do not see the point and feel demotivated.

2.4.3. Putting films into practice- Know (-) how!

While the advantages of films are vast, the disadvantages show that if teachers want to integrate films in their practice, it needs to be done thoughtfully. Firstly, teachers need to select a relevant film, video clip or short film, which is age-appropriate, could fit in the syllabus and matches students’ interests or backgrounds. Teachers should also differentiate between feature-length films, short films and video clips. A benefit of feature-length films is the exposure to excessive use of an authentic language which students might pick up on. Unfortunately, feature-length films are usually shown in one or two lessons, which might lead to lack of concentration. It is also important to include before, during and after activities to integrate the film meaningfully into the syllabus and make it easier for students to digest the content. Video clips are very useful and YouTube, for instance, provides a vast amount and variety of videos with specific content. Due to the short length of video clips, they can be viewed over and over again and quickly accessed. Short films are also effective, even more than feature-length films and video clips as they seem to have the perfect length, are more interesting, creative and are usually produced independently. Donaghy (2019: 17) states “(...) as many modern short films are silent or have very little dialogue, comprehension is much easier. The teacher can get the students to supply the dialogue by imagining what the characters are thinking or what they would say.” Huet’s and Reid’s (2020) teacher training course focussed on short films and mirrors these advantages mentioned by Donaghy (2019).

Another important consideration, teachers need to be aware of is the language level, since it can interfere with students’ comprehension. Teachers should think of these factors when choosing a film:

- A lot of dialogue and relatively little action;
- More than one character speaking at the same time;
- Loud soundtrack, which make the dialogue difficult to understand;
- Complex storylines.

(Donaghy 2019:9)

Factors, which support students' understanding are the following:

- Dialogue with a high degree of visual support and a close connection between speech and action;
- Clearly enunciated speech;
- Only one character speaking at a time;
- Clear, conventional storylines;
- Titles, graphics, animations.

(Sherman, 2003; Donaghy & Whitcher, 2015; in Donaghy, 2019: 9)

The third consideration for teachers, in order to implement films or videos successfully, is, before, during and after activities to clarify content, reflect or promote critical thinking. Huet's and Reid's (2020) course focuses extensively on these activities and also strongly reflect

The figure originally presented here cannot be made freely available via ORA because of copyright. The figure was sourced at Huet, M. and Reid, M. (2020). Short Film in Language Teaching. Online course accessed via the FutureLearn platform. British Film Institute and Into Film

*Image 1: Activity Sheet - Film, Music and Mood - French (Huet & Reid, 2020)
Reproduced with permission from BFI (2020)*

Swaffar's and Vlatten's (1997) five

strategies for teachers to successfully integrate films or videos in language lessons. The first strategy is "How genres tell stories in initial silent viewing" (1997: 177) to mute videos and look at the images themselves, analyse obvious things such as the abbreviations of the days of the week in a weather forecast. By contrast, Huet and Reid (2020) explored the opposite activity, namely, listening to sound and music and using adjectives to describe emotions and mood (see Image 1). In order to highlight a cultural difference, students should focus on, for instance, different means of

transport or different types of housing. This strategy, called “Identifying cultural differences in visual relationships” (1997:179) is still embedded when videos have been muted. Huet and Reid (2020) have taken a similar approach; depending on the film, students should focus on signs and clothing.

In order to understand the language itself, teachers need to scaffold the content. This starts with the

The figure originally presented here cannot be made freely available via ORA because of copyright. The figure was sourced at Huet, M. and Reid, M. (2020). Short Film in Language Teaching. Online course accessed via the FutureLearn platform. British Film Institute and Into Film

strategy of “Verbalizing visual themes” (1997:180). Students are exposed to the sound for the first time and only listen to single words or phrases at first. Match up activities and written support should help students to

Image 2: Tell Me Grid (Huet & Reid, 2020) reproduced with permission from BFI (2020) comprehend more phrases and some of the content. They could, for example, start identifying which character has problems, who has a certain occupation or who is talking about a specific topic. Huet and Reid (2020) make use of the “Tell Me Grid” (see Image 2), for which students can use simple words or sentence structures but which helps analysing and understanding a film better. The fourth strategy “identifying minimal linguistic differences as difference in meaning” (1997:181) is more in-depth and lets students focus on, as the title says, minimal differences. For example, being able to select which of these phrases has been said *Sie fahren später* (they leave later) or *Sie fährt später* (she leaves later) (1997:181). This can be done by using a written version from which students choose, these minimal differences could also be identified by watching the video; in case of the example, it would be who is addresses, is it she or they. This strategy is ideal for beginner language learners as it “does not require conversational production skills” (1997:181). In Huet’s and Reid’s (2020) course on *Short Film in Language Teaching*, students could, for example, use connectives to use in

writing and to understand a storyline, they could also use the future tense to predict what is going to happen next or use the past to conclude. The last strategy “Information as the basis for student perspectives” (1997:181) is about verbalising the phrases they have learnt by acting out different scenes, rewriting the plot or doing role-plays. These tasks can be done with a language or cultural practice in mind. Interestingly to note, is that although Swaffar’s and Vlaten’s (1997) strategies to introduce films and videos meaningfully in the language lesson date back to over 20 years, many of these strategies can still be found in modern literature, for example, in Huet and Reid (2020). This suggests that students today still learn and retrieve information in the same way.

Thirdly, teachers need to keep in mind that film projects are time and energy consuming. Therefore, Dubrac (2019) suggests, due to her study’s conclusion in her study, that working in small groups when filming projects is crucial. Before a group-task begins, students need to be aware of the structure and what is expected of them, students should be given roles within their groups to avoid any friendship issues or exclusions (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003).

Finally, teachers need to consider that film making projects could motivate students even more, as films engage students (Donaghy, 2019; Kidron, 2012; Goldstein and Driver, 2014) and are a wonderful resource to start a project (Willis, 1983). An example could be the film chronicles by Donaghy (2015) where students would begin their filming at school, moving onwards to their family and further to the wider community and extending their project. Teachers should assist students when writing their scripts, help with pronunciation and rehearsing, remind them of body language and facial expression and evaluate their projects. The benefit of such a personal project is that the student is the focus, he or she tells us about themselves and their community. Huet and Reid (2020) mention the convenience of accessing students’ progress when integrating films or videos in language lessons. Depending on the students’ level of proficiency, these assessments could focus on pronunciation, vocabulary recall, or using the target language in order to summarise a film.

2.5. Conclusion and Research Questions

The literature suggests that films and videos can be useful teaching tools which can develop students' listening, reading, writing, and speaking skills. Moreover, studies have shown that the use of videos improves students' intercultural competence or simply raise their awareness of a different culture has risen. All in all, it appears that any kind of moving image can be effectively integrated into the curriculum. This might be necessary to motivate students since the uptake for studying languages at Key Stage 4 has decreased over the years, especially German. It is, however, crucial to consider *how* teachers integrate films or videos in their lessons so that students make progress.

In my own school context, I want my students to become more confident in speaking. According to MacIntyre et al. (1998) being willing to communicate in the language classroom depends on many factors, such as situational antecedents or motivational propensities. I also considered more generic literature on motivation, in order to understand the many facets of motivation itself (Graham, 2014). The review of the literature has led me to investigate whether videos used in the German classroom can benefit students' speaking and confidence when speaking German due to creating their own video. I hoped that positive engagement and master experiences with speaking in response to German videos would lead to increased engagement and uptake of German GCSE. These interests led to the following research questions:

RQ1: How can videos best be used to stimulate students' speaking?

RQ2: Does the creation of a short video increase students' confidence in speaking German?

RQ3: Following the intervention has there been an impact on students' intentions to continue with German?

3. Methodology Part 1: Overview

3.1. Research Content and Samples

The practitioner research was conducted in a comprehensive mixed-sex secondary school in Oxfordshire. The participants, 25 in total, started their third year of German in the academic year of 2019/2020 and were therefore in Year 9 (henceforth referred to as *Class X*), which marks the end of Key Stage 3. This is a crucial year at this school (henceforth referred to as *School OX*), as Year 9 students pick their options for their GCSEs between March and April. First of all, it is essential to understand what setting students learn languages at *School OX*. Students at *School OX* start with one language, either French or German, in Year 7, which they study within their form group, which can be classified as a mixed ability group. In Year 8 they are introduced to the other language, either German or French, and they are allocated a set, which *School OX* distinguishes as: *bottom set*, *lower middle set*, *higher middle set*, and *top set*. The sets, however, are according to students' mathematical skills, not their foreign language skills. Each set consist of two classes, for example, a Year 8 *top set* first year German and one Year 8 *top set* second year German. Needless to say, students who have been, for example, in Year 8 *top set* first year German have a different scheme of work than Year 8 *top set* second year German. This scheme continues in Year 9 until both classes start with the GCSE content in term 5 and they follow the same scheme of work but remain in their allocated set. Although foreign language teachers can intervene if they believe a student should move to a different set, sometimes *lower or higher middle sets* can include very able linguists, who would benefit from moving up a set, but it depends on their math scores. The reason why *School OX* has decided to put students into sets like these is due to time-table management but has often been criticised by teachers and students.

The first reason why I chose *Class X* to participate in my research project was because they are a *higher middle set* with able linguists. Since the department has noticed that students from *middle sets* tend not to choose a language at GCSE, it was a good reason to focus on a *higher middle set* cohort rather than a *top set*. In addition, we really hoped to recruit some GCSE Germanists from

this very high-attaining *middle set* who had three years of experience with German and so were well-positioned to take their learning further. German at *School OX* has seen a decline in uptake from 54 students taking German for GCSE in 2016 to just 38 students in 2019, which mirrors the national picture (Tinsley, 2019). The second reason why I chose *Class X* to participate in the research project was simply familiarity. I had taught *Class X* in the academic year of 2018/2019, and I was familiar with the students' interests and their prior attainment.

3.2. Ethics

In every research study that involves human participants it is essential to adhere to ethical guidelines (e.g.: Bell, 2005; Cohen et al., 2018; CUREC, 2020). In order to grant students' safety and anonymity I followed BERA's (2011) guidelines on ethics and I adhered to the Central University Research Ethics Committee (CUREC, 2020) policy on personal data. Participants need to know at all times what the research is about, its purpose of it and that they can withdraw from it at any time (Bell, 2005; Cohen et al., 2018; CUREC, 2020). Therefore, participants were informed about their right of withdrawal every time before data was collected and that their anonymity was granted. Further comments on specific ethical issues addressed in relation to my data collection instruments can be found within the later sections of this methodology.

3.3. Timeline

Due to a global pandemic, I was unable to complete my original research plan. This section displays a timeline of the initial research project and the events of COVID-19 and other issues, which emerged along the way.

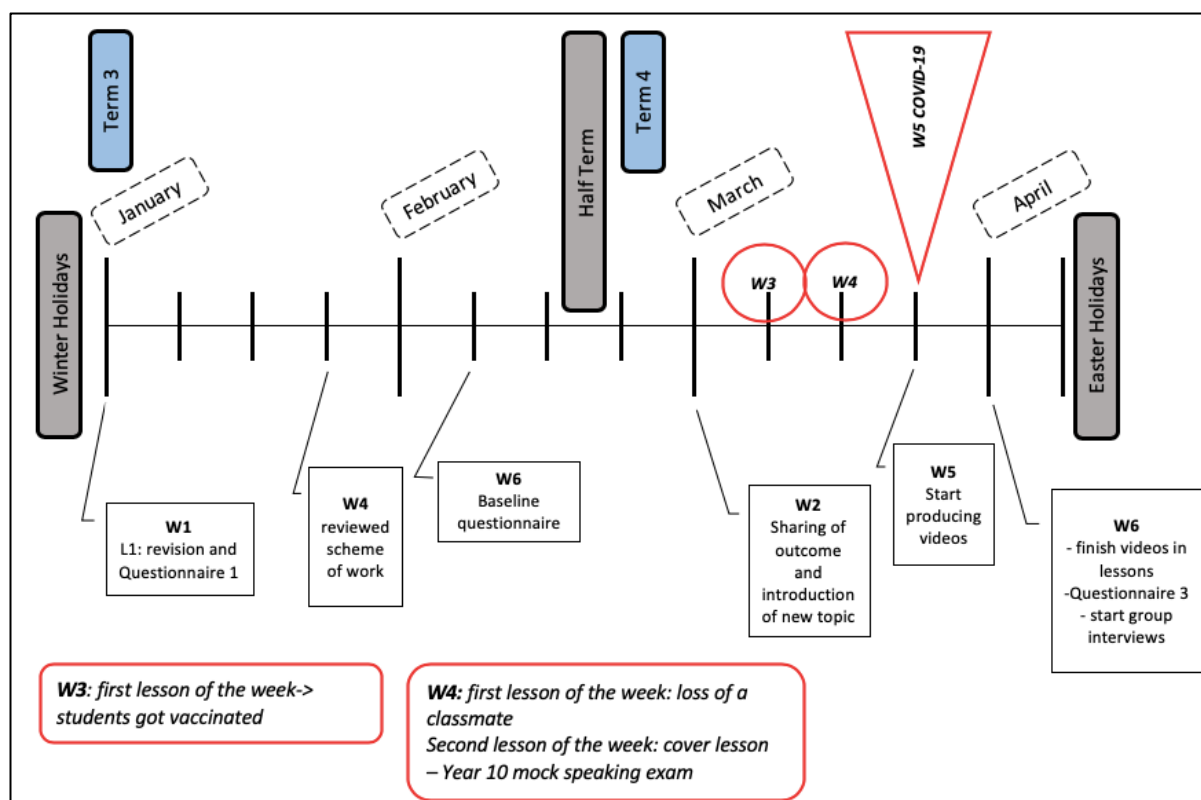


Figure 4: Timeline of initial research project, unforeseen events and COVID-19 school closure

The research project started in term three in January after the Winter holidays and is referred to as the *trial phase*. A scheme of work for term three was created and approved by the Head of Department (HOD) in December (further details on this scheme of work are discussed in section 5.2). As indicated in Figure 4, in the first week students revised content from term two and took part in a short questionnaire. In the same week students were made aware about being chosen to participate in the research project. In the second week of term three, the new topic was introduced. Before I reviewed the scheme of work in week four, I consulted my supervisor and the decision was made to conduct a written questionnaire (referred to as: baseline questionnaire) at the end of the *trial phase*; the reason for this will be discussed in section 4. As Figure 4 shows, the baseline questionnaire was conducted in the last lesson of term three. Based on these results, a scheme of work for term four was created, which marked the start of the *intervention phase*. The baseline questionnaire data was a key finding from the *trial phase* and shaped the focus of the *intervention phase*.

In week two of term four, I shared the results of the baseline questionnaire with *Class X* and explained the final learning outcome, the video project, and arrangements for the group interviews. The scheme of work would have continued with extensive speaking practise (examples of which can be found in section 5.1). As shown in Figure 4 students would have started developing their own videos two weeks before half term. The final lesson would have included the presentation of videos and questionnaire 3. Throughout week six, group interviews would have taken place during break and lunch times. In total, the data collected to evaluate my intervention would have consisted of three written questionnaires (questionnaire 1 and 3 would have been the same) and group interviews, as indicated in Figure 4.

Unfortunately, I was confronted with unforeseen events that altered the course of the research project. The first change was in term four in the first lesson of week three. Due to Year 9 vaccinations the majority of *Class X* was not present and therefore the planned lesson could not go ahead. The second change was a tragic event in week four when one member of *Class X* sadly passed away. The grieving over a classmate made it inappropriate to teach as usual; the student's form group and closest friends were not present in lesson as the school supported them. The third change was in the same week and was due to Year 10 mock speaking exams, which could not be changed. I had to set cover-work for *Class X*, which consisted of reading task. Finally, in week five the UK government announced the closure of schools from the 18th of March due to the world-wide pandemic of COVID-19. Needless to say, I was neither able to continue with normal lessons nor was I able to set the work I planned.

3.4. Research Methods

This section discusses the different types of research methods used and the reasoning behind my decisions. The research consists of two out of three successfully conducted quantitative questionnaires. As already outlined in section 3.3., the reason why the third and fourth questionnaires did not take place was due to the COVID-19 school closure. Although the group

interviews, which would have generated qualitative data, could not take place, the qualitative research method will be presented as well. An example of all questionnaires mentioned can be found in the appendices.

3.4.1. Quantitative Questionnaires

The first questionnaire was administered in hard copy at the beginning of term three (see Figure 4). The questionnaire was completed anonymously and consisted of only two questions. The first question was whether students had thought about taking German for GCSE; they had to choose between *yes*, *I am not sure*, and *no*, which is a categorial form of questioning (Bell, 2005). Cohen et al. (2007) says that this type of questioning is useful for younger participants since they might not have formed an opinion yet. By contrast, the second question was open-ended, merely asking students to explain their answer to the previous question. I wanted to give students the opportunity to justify their opinion to the previous question and this produced some rich data that could help me to understand their responses (Bell & Walters, 2014). One advantage of using open-ended questions is to overcome limitations of previous questions. However, one disadvantage of using this style of questioning is that answers given can be pointless or difficult to interpret or analyse (Cohen et al., 2007; Bell, 2005). Nevertheless, the main purpose behind questionnaire 1 was to collect baseline data about students' intentions that could later be compared to their responses to the same questionnaire (questionnaire 3) at the end of the research project to see if students had changed their minds about taking German for GCSE. In order to grant anonymity and still make it possible to compare the two questionnaires, students used a code only they knew, which was written on the questionnaire instead of their names. I hoped that this would help them to answer honestly and avoid any self-censorship to please me as their teacher. Unfortunately, as already mentioned, only one of these short surveys was conducted.

The baseline questionnaire aimed to highlight students' opinions about the implementation of videos (question one and two). It highlighted students' areas of confidence (question three),

anxieties (question four) and their wishes (question two, five and six), which helped me tailor the scheme of work for term four. This was done in a brief and anonymous manner in order to minimise the impact on students' learning and encourage honest completion.

As shown in Figure 4, the baseline questionnaire was conducted in term three, week six. This was also a pen and paper questionnaire, which consisted of six questions. The first question asked students what they enjoyed most about term three during German lessons. This was done by ranking their answers. Ranking identifies priorities and “enables a *relative* degree of preference” (Cohen et al., 2018:479), however, the options students rank must be fair and simple. Since I wanted to compare variables, I opted for this main type of data collection in this survey (Cohen et al., 2018). Students' options were the following: *watching videos, talking about the culture, using German to describe videos, and giving my opinion on videos we watched*. The second question focussed on students' interests and what they would like to do in term four. Their options were the following: *use videos to find out about German culture, use German to describe videos, write subtitles for a video (in German), and shoot a video and act it out in German*. The following three questions focussed on students' confidence and anxieties. Question three asked students to tick one of the four skills (these are *listening, reading, writing* and *speaking*) to indicate which they feel most confident about when using German. The fourth question asked pupils to tick the skill about which they feel least confident when using German. The fifth question asked students in which skill they would like to feel more confident in, this was worded as the following: *understanding German in listenings, understanding German when reading, writing in German, and speaking in German*. Finally, students were given an open question, which asked about their suggestions for working with videos in term four. At this point it is vital to mention that all types of data collection face the issue of reliability. According to Bell (2005) answers and opinions are dependent on time and situation and are subject to change.

3.4.2. Qualitative Research – Group Interviews

Due to the pandemic, the interviews did not take place. However, in this section I am going to outline what the purpose of these qualitative interviews was, what questions I would have asked, and potential drawbacks and issues that could have emerged from this type of research method.

The main interviews would have been semi-structured qualitative group interviews, including not more than three people at a time (see questions in the appendices). Qualitative studies are useful for gaining an in-depth understanding of complex issues such as learning and motivation (Cohen et al., 2018). Laws (2003:299) highlights how beneficial group interviews can be when in-depth information is desired “about how people *think* about an issue – their reasoning about *why* things are as they are, *why* they hold the views they do” (cited in Bell, 2005:162). Hayes (2000:395, in Bell, 2005:163) states that group interviews need to be especially carefully balanced when it comes to age, sex and ethnic status, as some might feel anxious within the group. He adds that single sex or same age groups have a more positive outcome on the overall atmosphere. Hence, this is why I would have asked students in *Class X* to do the group interviews with someone they get along well with. Since I taught *Class X* last year, I knew that all students have at least one or two friends in this class, which meant that no one would be left out.

An advantage of group interviews is their time-efficiency. Asking, for example, 25 students individually is time-consuming whereas group interviews save time and might “generate a wider range of responses than in individual interviews” (Cohen et al., 2018: 527). According to Arksey and Knight (2018, in Cohen et al.) another advantage of group interviews is that a cross check of answers and adding ideas to someone else’s answer can lead to a more cohesive and reliable response.

A disadvantage is that group interviews might not leave enough space for honest and personal answers and can lead to vagueness (Cohen et al., 2018). Another pitfall of group interviews might be a dominant personality. Cohen et al. (2018) and Bell (2005) agree that sometimes strong

personalities can possibly overtake or influence an interview. In order to deal with strong characters during group interviews asking questions such as ‘Does everyone agree with xyz?’ might be a reasonable approach (Laws, 2003:300, in Bell, 2005:163). Finally, Bell and Walters (2014:210) state that interviews are “a highly subjective technique and therefore there is always the danger of bias.” Analysing answers can be problematic, so can be the wording of questions. She says when researchers have strong views on a subject, they need to question their practice over and over again in order to omit bias and to grant objectivity.

Since interviews are time-consuming and demand a lot from the interviewer (Bell, 2005; Cohen et al., 2018) I would have intended to audio record the collected data. The advantage of this is that when attempting content analysis, the investigator is able to listen to each recording more than once in order to identify a category. However, audio-recordings can be intimidating and might prevent honest answers (Bell, 2005). In order to create a safe space, I would have reassured students that they can withdraw from the interview at any time, that I would put the recordings on a password saved file, which I would have deleted after I had written down the important parts of the interview. I would have emphasised that I would not have used their names during the recording, nor would I have used them in any written form either. In addition to that I would have made them aware that I would not take their answers personally, as I fully respect their opinion and would appreciate their honesty (see appendices).

In general, the research method of interviews is attractive due to its adaptability. The interviewer can always follow up with ideas and questions can be changed if the interviewee does not understand them. However, the questions should not be leading, offensive or presumptive, alike a written questionnaire. The order of questions can be adjusted accordingly to the situation. Moreover, questions can be added or omitted, which gives the advantage of in-depth questioning (Bell, 2005, Cohen et al., 2018). According to Oppenheim (1992) the involvement and motivation in interviews leads to a higher response rate compared to written questionnaires. Additionally, interviews are better for managing difficult and open-ended questions. However, when interviewing

it is crucial not to favour one's outcomes and to stay critical, to regularly examine one's practices and to stay as objective as possible (Bell, 2005). I would have been prepared to ask students 18 questions, aiming to answer the research questions, and follow up questions such as why or why not. Although I would not have necessarily asked all the questions in the order I typed them, I would have started my interview with general questions about the video project, these would have been worded in the following way: *What did you think of making your own film?*, or *What did you enjoy most about it?* Since I would have wanted to answer my research questions I would have asked about the subjects of motivation, self-reflection, practical proficiency, culture and anxieties when speaking. For the first subject, motivation, I would have asked students questions from Schmidt and Watanabe (2001:353-354), for example: *Do you enjoy learning this language?* The question on self-reflection would have been formulated to address this specific research study, for example, *Do you think the speaking tasks during this term have prepared you well for the film project?* I would have given students time to think of their progress and formulate their answers. The practical proficiency question would have also been adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe (2001: 355) and adapted. The subject on culture would have used questions from both Tognozzi (2010:86) and Schmidt and Watanabe (2001: 355). For instance: *Are there any characteristics of the German culture that you think are similar to your culture?* Finally, the subject of anxiety when speaking would have included five questions adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe (2001: 354), Levine (2003) and Maly (2019). One of these questions would have been: *Do you feel comfortable when speaking in this class?*

3.4.3. Students' Videos

An additional source of data would have been the students' videos. This would have been a wonderful opportunity to assess students' speaking, and to see if they achieved the learning outcomes. These focused on grammar and speaking (see section 5.1). Huet and Ried (2020) mention that student-made films are a brilliant example of how useful filmmaking can be for teachers to

assess students' progress when learning a language. The two questions I would have been able to answer would have been, firstly: Have they progressed in their speaking? Meaning, does it sound fluent and does the pronunciation sound correct? As I would have been present during practise time in lessons, I would have been able to draw comparisons between practise time and their end product. The second question I would have tried to answer, would have been: Were they able to use the conditional tense correctly? This would have been simply by listening to the videos closely and taking notes. Through their videos and the answers they had given me in their group interviews, I would have been able to understand whether they think they progressed and found the video enjoyable or useful. In short, their perception of their progression could have been analysed.

4. Trial Phase and Baseline Questionnaire Results

In this section I will briefly describe the scheme of work in the trial phase (during which I introduced several videos) and then I will analyse the data gathered from the baseline questionnaire.

4.1. Term 3 Trial Phase Scheme of Work

The *trial phase* was important to see how students would react to the videos and what the actual focus for Term 4 would focus on; namely, either students creating their own videos, writing subtitles for scenes or a completely different approach. My HOD was happy for me to follow my own scheme of work, but I had to base everything on 'Musik ist mein Leben' (music is my life) (Hawkes & Spencer, 2014) since all third year German students had to do the same assessment at the end of term (this scheme of work can be found in the appendices). The videos in the lessons were authentic material, two of which originated from the German text book (Hawkes & Spencer, 2014), one from a German game show (Schlag den Star, 2016), numerous German and Austrian music videos, and finally promotion videos for music festivals (all videos listed in the scheme of work are in section 8.). Authentic material lets students see the language in 'real' situations (Donaghy, 2019) or it is a piece created "by native speakers for native speakers" (Baddock, 1991:16). Even if students do not

understand much, they still can read the body language and gestures (Baddock, 1991). The chapter on music was a fantastic opportunity for students to present their opinions, for which I created short speaking tasks. Harris et al. (2001) found that giving students the right tools for speaking tasks in combination with group or pair work leads to higher motivation and confidence; hence why I included a bigger group project in the scheme of work. In order to consolidate the grammar point on comparisons I included a brief project for students in week four and five. *Class X* were asked to research about two German-speaking musicians, gather the musicians' details and compare them. In the end students presented this to each other in small groups; the same presentation and speaking technique had already been used successfully with *Class X* in Term 2. In general, *Class X* were presented with a variety of different videos and had the chance to give their opinion in forms of speaking or writing tasks. In addition to that students practiced their aural skills by listening to German music and they practiced their comprehension by reading song lyrics and researching on German-speaking musicians. In the final lesson, students completed a questionnaire, which offered valuable data about students' engagement with the videos that informed my planning for Term 4.

4.2. Baseline Questionnaire Results

The baseline questionnaire has helped in two ways. Firstly, I was able to understand in which skill students felt most and least comfortable with and where they wanted to improve. Secondly, I asked what their interests were in order to plan the scheme of work for the intervention in Term 4.

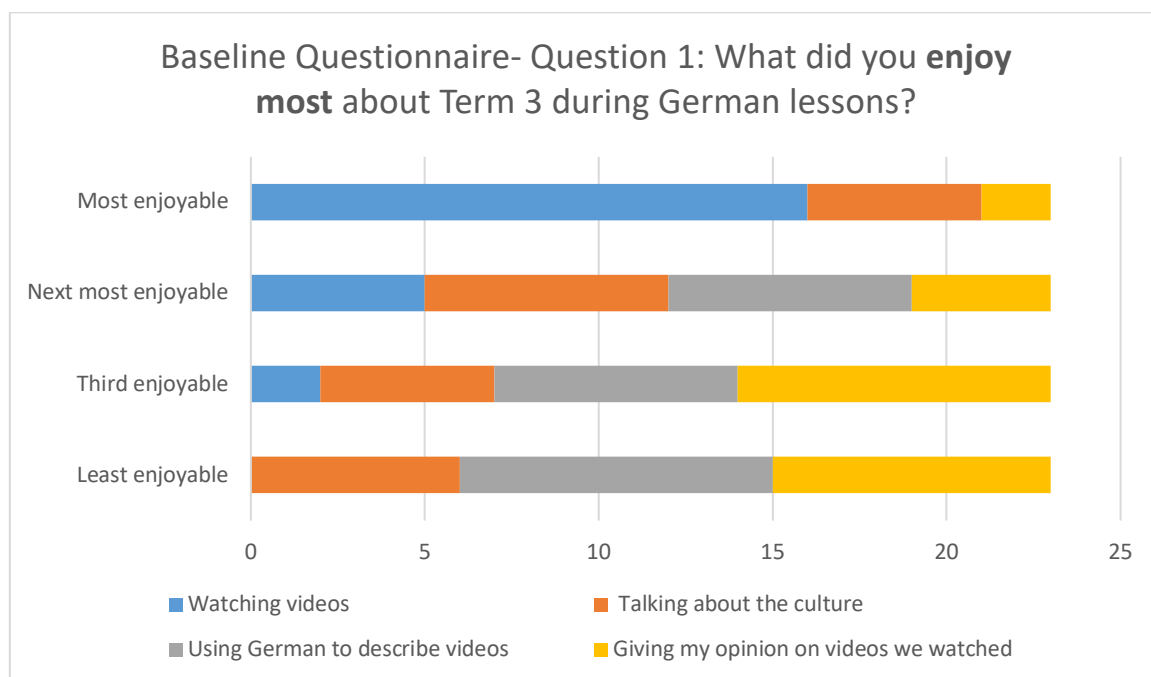


Figure 5: Baseline Questionnaire- Question 1: What did you enjoy most about Term 3 during German lessons?

Question one on the baseline questionnaire asked students what they enjoyed most about Term 3 during German lessons. Figure 5 displays students' choices and the number of students who opted for one of the four different tasks. A majority of 16 students opted for *watching videos* as their *most enjoyable* task in Term 3. The reason being could be simply the fact that films and videos are enjoyable to watch for students (Herrero & Vanderschelden, 2019) and it breaks the routine since students can become easily bored when exposed to traditional pedagogies (Mallinger & Rossy, 2003). Surprisingly, no one chose *using German to describe videos* as their *most enjoyable* task, which might be due to the lack of vocabulary knowledge (Harris et al., 2001). The *next most enjoyable* task was both, *using German to describe videos* and *talking about the culture*, a total of 14 students opted for one of these answers. *Giving my opinion on videos we watched* was the *third most enjoyable* task, a total of nine students chose this answer. Giving opinions about a film's or video's content can have a positive effect on students' motivation and therefore be interesting or

motivating for students as Siska (2015) has shown. Another nine students chose *using German to describe videos* as their *least enjoyable* task in Term 3. Eight students opted for *giving my opinion on videos we watched*, and six students opted for *talking about culture* as their *least enjoyable* task during Term 3. No one opted for *watching videos* as their *least enjoyable* task in Term 3.

The results show that watching films was the dominant choice students made, while the other options are rather evenly spread. At this point, it is essential to mention that I always gave students time to think about their answer or talk it through with their partner before discussing it in form of a speaking task with everyone in class. The reason being was simply because pair work can influence the WTC positively (Yoshida, 2013; Cao & Philp, 2006) and a teacher's wait time can be crucial, if not given it can lead to an unwillingness to communicate (Zarrinabadi, 2014). For some students, speaking in front of peers can be intimidating and might be attributed to self-confidence or the social situation (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Cao & Philp, 2006) since some students might feel judged when presenting their opinion or frightened about making mistakes (Leger & Storch, 2009). This might be why it seems as if this cohort found expressing their opinions and using descriptive language less enjoyable. However, with the right tools and scaffolding, students might become more motivated as a study by Harris et al. (2001) has shown. Moreover, students can be easily overwhelmed if the majority of words they are dealing with are unknown.

Talking about culture has been chosen for each category by between five and seven students. Students were exposed to authentic video material (see 5.1) which might not have been discussed or explained thoroughly enough; if the music videos' cultural backgrounds, shown in Term 3, would have been analysed, some students might have felt overwhelmed and lost interest. If students cannot identify themselves with a culture they might feel demotivated (Baddock, 1991) but it might have also been interesting for some students to be exposed to authentic material (Herrero and Vanderschelden, 2019) and students' lack of background knowledge can be something positive as they try to compare the foreign culture with their own, which can create interest (Baddock, 1991).

	<i>Listening</i>	<i>Reading</i>	<i>Writing</i>	<i>Speaking</i>
Q3: most confident	5	11	4	3
Q4: least confident	6	2	4	11
Q5: confidence wish	6	2	4	11

Table 1: Baseline Questionnaire Results from Questions 3,4, and 5

Questions three to five on the baseline questionnaire, focussed on the 4 skills, reading, writing, listening and speaking. When asked about what skill students think to be *most confident* in, a total of 11 students feel most confident in *reading* German. Only three students feel most confident in *speaking*. Therefore, it is no surprise that the majority of students opted for *speaking* as their *least confident* skill in German. Although I have not attempted to measure students' motivation with questions three to five, I do, however, believe that students' answers reflect their motivation and how they approach future language tasks. As motivation has something to do with past experiences (Bandura, 1995; Bolster, 2009; Krapp, 2002; Weiner, 1979), one explanation for question three's result might be that students have had reading tasks in a majority of assessments and most students obtained high results. Therefore, students feel most confident in this skill. On the contrary, students feel least confident in their speaking ability, which might derive partly from the fact that there have not been oral assessments in which students were graded. Moreover, students might feel anxious about speaking, which is the most common reason for an unwillingness to communicate according to Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2017). MacIntyre et al., (1998) differentiates between state (from past experiences) or situational (depended on situation) anxiety. Reasons for anxiety could be embarrassment (Yoshida, 2013) or making mistakes (Baran-Luczarska, 2014). Interestingly, answers for question five have unchanged numbers when compared with question four. 15 students

opted that their least confident skill should be the skill they would like to be more confident in, which would mirror students' self-efficacy (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). The remaining eight students choose a different skill they would like to be more confident in than what they chose for question four, which might show that students accept their weakness but feel that another skill would be more useful to improve in, if they could. Students have, perhaps, an intrinsic motivation, or belief in their abilities to improve in their speaking skill. Students might have a high self-efficacy and have to think to overcome problems. Social persuasion in the form of positive feedback, which students have experienced in reading assessments, might be crucial for their motivation to become more confident in speaking (Graham, 2014). Finally, the results indicate that students require support in their speaking and listening skills, a finding that influenced my planned intervention using films and videos, since studies have shown that these can help to improve oral interaction skills (Tuncay, 2014; Herron et al., 2000; Herron et al., 1999; Siska, 2015).

Question two asked students about what they would like to do in Term 4. It revealed that 11 students would have wanted to *shoot a video and act it out*, which correlates positively with Donaghy's (2019, in Herrero and Vanderschelden) claim that film making projects can motivate students immensely. This has been shown in studies by the BFI (2015) and Ruble and Lysne (2010). Nine students would have been interested in *using videos to find out about German culture*, which might imply that the authentic videos they already saw were interesting them and they wanted to find out more. Students might have found them valuable and useful for their future and expected to broaden their horizons (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). While two students would want to *write subtitles for a video in German*, only one student opted for *using German to describe videos*. The reasoning behind these answers could be students' lack of vocabulary to express themselves in the same levels as they would in English. At this point I cannot conclude that students are more motivated to learn the language when shooting a video, but it shows that this creative task has created some kind of interest and it would have been a task they might have enjoyed. However, it can be speculated that this is sheer task motivation (Krapp, 2002). It could have become a task, in which students would have

motivated each other and their self- efficacy could have been improved (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Since students would have worked in groups, this could have led to more self-confidence in speaking (Harris et al., 2001), which is the skill that most of *Class X* felt least confident about. The last question on the baseline questionnaire was an open question, which asked students to suggest ideas for working with videos in Term 4. Only four students answered, three of which were related to the question. The first statement asks for “learn about German films” a general approach to films, which could be done in the future with Huet’s and Reid’s (2020) lesson material on films in general. The second statement “more videos explaining the language” indicates a more linguistic implementation of videos, which perhaps aims to educate the student on how the language works rather than explaining the culture. This student might have a high self-efficacy, they might value the language itself and know that his or her improvement can lead to success or they simply have an intrinsic motivation (Graham, 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). The third statement emphasises the wish to create a video in the student’s words “make our own video.” This student might want to emphasise ownership, which links to the self-determination theory, in which learners’ autonomy plays a key role in their motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013).

5. Methodology Part 2: School-Based Teaching Sequence

This section discusses the scheme of work for Term 4, the *intervention phase* (the scheme of work can be found in the appendices).

5.1. Scheme of Work

Term 4 was the *intervention phase* which addressed students’ needs raised in the baseline questionnaire. The majority of *Class X* found their weakest skill to be speaking, hence why I

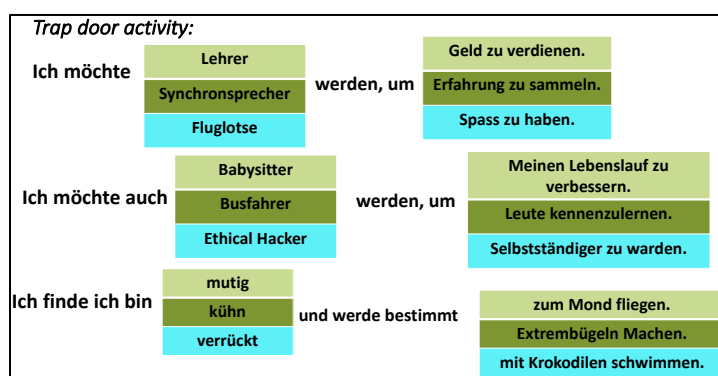


Image 3: Trap Door Activity Example

decided to put a strong emphasis on speaking activities. Again, I created a scheme of work which had to be based on ‘Meine Ambition’ (my ambitions) (Hawkes & Spencer, 2014) and focussed on the conditional tense, because all third year German students would have had to complete the same assessment at the end of term. In week two of Term 4 students began with the new topic. As already mentioned, Term 4 focussed more on students’ oral skills in order to address their weakness and prepare them for their video project in weeks five and six. The oral activities included listen and repeat tasks, which were teacher lead, question and answer tasks, which were mostly teacher lead and trap door activities¹, which were pair work. The trap door is a wonderful way to practice pronunciation and fluency (AQA, 2020).

The first videos presented were only a stimulus to get students talking about unusual activities they would or would not want to do; the structure was repetitive. Sometimes videos are used to stimulate a student’s interest and to make the atmosphere in class more exciting (Li & Wang, 2015). One video was an authentic promotion video of an Austrian waterpark in the Alps, the follow up task consisted of the same structure used in the previous lesson. Another video showed students different types of jobs, again the activity afterwards was designed to promote speaking. I also included two videos of a YouTube channel called “Easy German”, their videos always include German and English subtitles and are therefore very suitable for German language learners. It is known that subtitles help students understand words or context (Herrero & Vanderschelden, 2019; Montero Perez et al., 2013; Li & Wang, 2015), as it connects the visual and verbal world (Baumgarten, 2008). A study conducted by the BFI (2016, in Herrero) found that 94% of participants in their research project had wanted to watch more subtitled films in the future. One of the videos, which should have been done in week three, served as an example for the phrase “Würdest du lieber...” (would you rather...), students would have listened to the phrase repeatedly, as the video shows an

¹ Trap door activity: Work in pairs, students get a text. In every sentence, there are 1 or 2 tables with different options of words. The student who reads the text has to guess the correct word, which the partner has secretly chosen, from the table. He or she has 3 options. When the student gets it right, he or she can continue reading, if the student does not guess the right word he or she has to go back to the start. This is repeated as long as the reader finishes the text by guessing all words correctly. Then students swap roles. (See Image 3)

interview with different people and different “would you rather...” phrases. The follow up task would have been to work in pairs by asking each other prepared “would you rather...” questions. The other “Easy German” video would have been a homework, for which students would have listened to the different types of jobs which they had to write down in English and German. They would have also listened to the conditional tense of such as “ich möchte” (I would like) again. Finally, the last two weeks of Term 4 would have been spent focussing on creating a video. Not only was this what the majority of students requested according to results of the baseline questionnaire, but students would also have practised their speaking, which most students wished to improve. The self-made video would have been two to four minute-long, in which students would have created characters (e.g. drawn or printed) and voiced over a scene. Students would have used the conditional tense and based the video on a German dating show. Since Huet and Ried (2020) mention that videos as an end-product are a great opportunity to assess their progress, I would have been able to assess these, as I mentioned earlier.

The reason why students could make their own video was due to the baseline questionnaire findings and literature (Donaghy, 2019; Ruble & Lysne, 2010; BFI, 2015). I would have shown students two videos. The first would have served as an example of what the setting and acting could have looked like. It would have been important that students understood that they do not physically stand in front of a camera but that they lend characters their voice. Video one was made by a second year *lower middle set* German, who had done the video on a different topic in February. This might have helped students to see that the task is achievable, which reflects the expectancy-value theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013) in which students decide how well they want to do and how much they value it. Students could also have started comparing themselves to the other language class and within their groups a competitive or cooperative side of motivation could have become the reason for performing well in this task (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). For the second video, students would have watched a short clip from a German dating show. The dating show ‘Herzblatt’ combined authenticity and the conditional tense, which made it the perfect choice for the project. Furthermore,

students would not only have watched the two videos, but they would have also received an example script which they could have used or changed. In the first lesson of week five students would have had to decide their groups, who was playing which role and whether they would change the script or not. The second lesson would have focussed on practicing the script or re-writing it for most of the lesson and only a short amount of time would have been spent on drafting the stage and characters. *Class X's* homework would have been to prepare the scene or setting in order to ensure that the time in class was focussed on issues of language whilst students had me there as a resource. In week six, students would have done the filming and editing of their video and the final lesson would have been spent presenting the videos and completing questionnaire three (Figure 4). Throughout the final week of Term 4, *Class X* would have participated in the group interviews during lunch or break times.

5.2. Collaborative Work

The sharing of teaching materials and videos has always been practised in the languages department of *School OX*. Therefore, collaboration took place regularly. At this point, it is vital to mention that the languages department consists of six teachers (including myself), three of whom focus on the French and three on the German language. Bell and Walters (2014) mention that when doing a research project, early collaboration is important to avoid complications later on.

I had the first meeting with the head HOD and the head of German in the beginning of September. We decided which set was the most important one to focus on and discussed scheme of works. At the end of this meeting we decided that I could tailor the scheme of work to my needs but had to deliver the standardised content to ensure that all students at the school had equal learning opportunities. As I have already mentioned in section 3.3, students in the same year group have to do the same end of term assessments since this is also important for their GCSE exams. In December I sent a draft scheme of work to my HOD and head of German to ask for their approval. The scheme

of work was accepted and was considered for adoption by the department in the next academic year if the research was successful.

The second meeting with HOD and head of German was on the 6th of January and a brief meeting on *Class X*'s first questionnaire took place. The outcome was shared with the German teachers and HOD. I met with one of the German teachers almost every week to share videos and reflect on what went well and what needed improvement. During a meeting on the 16th of January I told my colleague about the motivational effects of letting students create their own videos (e.g. Herrero & Vanderschelden, 2019). I informed her that I was planning on letting students create their own videos in Term 4. my colleague advised me about possible pitfalls, such as students who do not want to take German for GCSE might do the bare minimum, the quality might be bad and that some groups might not complete it. However, she also assured me that students who are willing to do well, would produce a good video.

Two weeks before half term, I met with my colleague again and we were discussing that nowadays students do not like to stand in front of cameras anymore, since social media has made them more self-aware. She showed me her idea of using cut out figures and backgrounds which reminded me of the research by Ruble and Lysne (2010:38) (see Image 4). Although students in Ruble and Lysne's (2010) research used the films they produced to explain environmental problems in a Japanese setting, participants had great enjoyment learning about a culture in a different way. Interested in this, I tried it with another cohort and was confident that this technique of filming might work for *Class X*.

The figure originally presented here cannot be made freely available via ORA because of copyright. The figure was sourced at Ruble, J., and Lysne, K. (2010). The Animated Classroom: Using Japanese Anime to Engage and Motivate Students. English Journal, 100(1), 37-46

Before I conducted the second questionnaire, I showed the HOD and head of German a draft, which was accepted. On the 20th of February, I shared my outcomes with my department via email (see appendices) and also attached an article by Swaffer and Vlatten (1997) on how to use videos in language lessons. Unfortunately, I did not receive any feedback on the data or article from my

department. Maybe this was due to the stressful nature at school, as teachers started to prepare for the mock speaking exams and Year 9 and Year 10 parents' evening in March.

A different form of collaboration took place online during a professional development course on *Short Film in Language Teaching* (Huet and Reid, 2020), which I completed at the end of April. I decided to continue developing my knowledge on films in the language classroom after school closures. The content of the course was created to use in lessons and reflect on it with others online. However, like many others, I was unable to make use of the material since schools were closed. Nevertheless, I was able to share and read about experiences on the usage of films in language lessons with teachers from different countries.

If the research would have taken place as intended, I would have requested to share results in a departmental meeting. In the future, I would like to ask for permission to complete my research project next academic year with another Year 9 class as I thoroughly enjoyed teaching with these schemes of work. Furthermore, I would implement some of the teaching techniques I learnt in the professional development course and I would like to share the resources of the course with my colleagues. I am certain that I will continue sharing practises and resources with my colleagues and beyond as collaboration has already proven to be useful during this investigation.

6. Findings and Discussions

Since the main data collection did not take place, the research questions cannot be discussed thoroughly or even answered when there is little or no data. It is obvious that this is a limitation of the investigation. Nevertheless, the available data offers some insights into my research questions, as discussed below.

6.1. Research Question 1

How can videos best be used to stimulate students' speaking?

Huet and Reid (2020) have produced some interesting video-related tasks in order to stimulate students' writing, which can be easily adapted for speaking tasks. For example, predicting the storyline, describing the character or outfit, or using the 'tell me' grid, which can have various types of focus. Unfortunately, I was unable to use these materials in my intervention, but these will be integrated in future lessons.

Since students were not interviewed, I am unsure if *Class X* found that the teaching methods and tasks used were stimulating their speaking.

Therefore, I am only able to answer this question with what I have observed during the intervention.

I noticed that students were enthusiastic about watching the videos I chose, and I felt that students wanted to express their opinions. Before I introduced a speaking task, students were usually starting to chat in English, and conversations addressed the video. When students were asked to respond in German, I observed that more boys than girls were willing to communicate, even when they made mistakes. This is not surprising: in a research study by Clark (1995) teachers claimed that boys participated more frequently in lessons than girls did. Even girls, who were interviewed, came to the same conclusion. One reason for this is due to the fact that girls often experience puberty earlier than boys, meaning that most girls might be more self-conscious. Although MacIntyre et al. (2003:158) say that girls will "be past the anxiety-provoking phase of puberty" in Year 9 and more willing to communicate, this did not appear to be the case in *Class X*. Maybe the fact that *Class X*'s number of male students is higher might be another reason why girls were less likely to participate in speaking activities.

Having noticed this trend, in future lessons I will aim to collect more data from my students to better understand how to encourage girls in my lessons to speak up. This might include keeping a log of students' participation in various different types of speaking tasks over time to complement

interview or questionnaire data. Hence, why I believe my observation to be a unilateral point of view, which is another limitation to the study.

6.2. Research Question 2

Does the creation of a short video increase students' confidence in speaking and listening German?

Unfortunately, due to COVID-19 no data was collected to answer this research question. My speculations as to the likely results are briefly described below:

My first speculation is that I believe that students would have enjoyed the video task since the majority of students opted for this in the baseline questionnaire (see section 4). Herrero and Vanderschelden (2019) believe that technology is becoming more and more important and Donaghy (2019) mentions that the creation of a video is even more motivating for students. However, it is questionable whether students would have become more confident in speaking in such short time. A study (Bernales, 2016) suggests that confidence builds up over a longer period of time and is also dependent on students' perception of their own abilities. Although Siska (2015) claims that films made students more talkative, confident and motivated, the study does not indicate if this had any effects on future learning. Herron et al. (1999) mention that students communicated more effectively in their study, but, again, a further study needs to be conducted to see if the implementation of films in lessons helped students to become more confident in future lessons, or if it was only a situational effect. Students' motivation could have solely been driven by the task set (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2013).

Secondly, I suspect that students who indicated that they wanted to become better at speaking German on the baseline questionnaire would have seen the video project as an opportunity to practice and may have increased their spoken output in response. Students with high levels of self-efficacy, believing that they are able to complete a certain task, would probably not have encountered any barriers to the speaking tasks (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Some students could

have developed an intrinsic motivation and wanted to enjoy the task, whilst others would have been motivated by an extrinsic factor, which could have been good feedback and praise. On the other hand, other students in *Class X* could have been demotivated as they would not have seen the purpose of the task, reflecting the expectancy-value theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). The reasoning behind this, is that by the time the project would have taken place, most students would have already known their GCSE options.

The final speculation reflects upon group work and practicing speaking. Since I have known the group for almost two years, I am confident that students would have probably worked well in their chosen groups. The reason why students would have been allowed to do so would have been based on Yoshida (2013) and Cao and Philp (2006) studies which showed that group work can have a positive effect on WTC. Moreover, students might become motivated and develop a cooperative way of learning, where students learn and motivate each other within their group, which promotes self-efficacy (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). The learning objectives would have been clear from the start of every lesson in order to eliminate confusion and disruptions, I would have expected only little interruptions in some of the pure male groups because of their maturity level (MacIntyre et al., 2003). In addition, I would have been aware of the fact that a smaller group size has a better impact on students' use of the target language (De Saint Leger & Storch, 2009; Cao & Philp, 2006; Barton, 2006).

6.3. Research Question 3

Following the intervention has there been an impact on students' intentions to continue with German?

The first questionnaire took place in January and evaluated students' thoughts on continuing to study German for GCSE. The results revealed that out of 25 students, 11 answered with *no*, five

answered with *yes* and nine students stated to be *unsure* whether to take German for GCSE or not. Interesting were the reasons why they felt this way at this particular time of the year.

The 11 students who answered with *no* had similar or the same reasons why German was not an option for them. A majority of these students claimed that their ability in this subject was “not good”, “Because I’m better at French than German.”, “German is not my strongest subject.”, were two answers. These statements reflect students’ self-efficacy (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013), they do not believe in their abilities and if students have a low self-confidence (Erler & Macaro, 2011) they are less likely to choose, in this case German, for GCSE (Graham, 2014), which they have indicated already. Some of these students find languages difficult in general, commenting, “I’m not that good at languages.” Another student claims, “because I am terrible at languages and I hate them and I find a lot of the lessons boring.” Again, these statements reflect students’ self-confidence but also their past experiences (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Perhaps the transition from primary to secondary school was a demotivating experience (Bolster et al., 2004; Bolster, 2009) and therefore resulted in these thoughts. Other students chose what they are interested in, “because of I’m bad at [German] and I’m more crafty. I like ICT and DT.” This student has already made a decision, “because I don’t particularly like German and I have chosen all my subjects.”, which reflects the expectancy-value theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013) that shows that students do not see great value in the subject as they cannot picture themselves mastering it and therefore have not any aspiration to engage with the content. On the whole, it appears as if most of these students neither feel confident in this subject nor display particular interest in it, hence, their decision.

Pupils who were *unsure* about taking German for GCSE had similar reasons to like the students who opted for *no*. six out of nine students claimed that they were unsure whether to take German or French for GCSE, “I think I will take a language for GCSE but I’m not sure if that will be German or French.” The remaining three students stated to be simply unsure with their options, “I am not sure what I am going to take for my GCSEs.” This suggests that the categorial (Bell, 2005) questioning is important, because some students had not made a decision at the time when

questionnaire one was conducted (Cohen et al., 2007). This decision could be influenced by peers, teachers, parents or school, these cultural influences impact students' motivation, but rather than influence them depending on a situation, these develop over time (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). It is these 'unsure' students that I had particularly hoped to target with my intervention, since increasing their engagement and sense of success in German may have helped them to make a positive choice to study the subject at GCSE.

Finally, the five students who opted for *yes*, mentioned similar reasons, these include interest and enjoyment in the language. "The language is very interesting to learn (...)", "because I enjoy learning it and I understand it." These students are clearly driven by intrinsic motivation, they possibly had a very positive experience in languages and are confident in their own abilities (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013; Graham, 2014). Two out of five students mentioned the importance of languages for their future career "(...) because it's good for your brain and helps you with getting a job and going to university." and another students primarily focussed on future aspirations, "I feel like German and learning language in general is good for the future and jobs." These reflect Gardner's instrumental orientation, in which students want to learn a language due to future aspirations. Furthermore, students expect that they can do well in this subject and find it valuable for their future, which aligns with the expectancy-value theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). One student said that a personal connection made him or her choose German, "because I used to live in Switzerland and I know German quite well." This is a unique, direct example of the ideal-self theory (Graham, 2014) or integrative motivation, in which a student has a connection with the foreign language community and therefore desires to continue learning it. This statement also includes a positive assertion of self-efficacy for learning German (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013).

The finalised options list for the next academic year revealed that the numbers of students from *Class X* who opted for GCSE German increased from five to 10, two of whom are dual linguists. This is a very pleasing finding. Unfortunately, an analysis of who changed their mind and why was not possible. One can only speculate that five of the students who opted for *unsure* on the

questionnaire changed their mind. Moreover, it is unclear if the videos and tasks used in German lessons had an impact on students' decisions. Again, the unfinished data collection limits the conclusions that I am able to draw.

7. Conclusion and Future Implications

7.1. Conclusion

Whether a video project would have stimulated students' speaking in German and made them more confident communicators remains, unfortunately, unanswered due to the pandemic. Nevertheless, this investigation has shown that films and videos should not be treated as an end-of-term reward (Pegrum et al., 2005). The potential of well-implemented films and videos in language lessons to have a strong impact on students' motivation in future practices is well-established (e.g. BFI, 2015; Siska, 2015; Chan & Herrero, 2010). Moreover, research has shown that films can be used to develop a wide range of interdisciplinary skills such as communication skills, critical thinking, intercultural competences or creativity (e.g. Herrero & Vanderschelden, 2019; Herron et al., 1999, 2000). As the baseline questionnaire revealed, watching videos was a highly enjoyable task for students in *Class X*. The outcomes have also shown that students were interested in creating a video, which correlated positively with other researchers' findings (e.g. Donaghy, 2019; Kidron, 2012; Goldstein & Driver, 2014; BFI, 2015). Furthermore, the data that was collected informed me about students' perceived strengths and weaknesses, this led to including tasks in the scheme of work that supported students' perceived weaknesses. It was also observed that students were enthusiastic about videos and additionally, it was witnessed that, especially male, students attempted speaking in German. Male students are more likely to speak up is what research has shown (Clark, 1995), but the majority of *Class X* were male students, which could be the reason why it seemed that more male students spoke than girls. Research suggests that teachers need to practice patience if they want their students to feel confident speakers since confidence develops over time. In addition, topic relevance and interest need to be considered by teachers because students are more willing to

respond to a topic they are interested in. The question about whether there had been an impact on students' intentions to continue with German was partially answered. In the end, five more students of *Class X* opted to take GCSE German next academic year than had originally suggested they would. I cannot say with any certainty that this was impacted by the videos and speaking activities although my own perceptions and prior research suggests that this is a hypothesis worth exploring further. Although, the investigation could not be finished, the trial and intervention phase have shown that students responded well to videos in lessons. I am assuming that the combination of videos, tasks in response to videos and the creation of a video might have an impact on students' confidence and motivation.

7.2. Future Implications

Since the research investigation could not be finished, I hope to start the project again next academic year. In the following paragraphs I am going to outline what this investigation has taught me and what I intend to change for future practices.

One lesson I have learnt during the project is to listen to students and their interests. I learned a lot about my class by asking students which skill they feel most and least confident about. This has given me the opportunity to pick tasks that help students become better in a certain language skill. Another lesson this project has taught me was that the implementation of videos in my practice is attainable. Choosing a video that discusses a current topic and creating tasks to complement the video is less time-consuming than anticipated. I observed that it lifts the mood, it can be watched over-and-over again (Herrero & Vanderschelden, 2019), it can be analysed in different ways (Huet & Reid, 2020) and the same video can be used for different year groups. The flexibility videos entail is vast, and I was able to explore this even further during the teacher training course by Huet and Reid (2020).

I am glad to report that my department welcomed the schemes of work I created for the research project and these will be implemented in the future curriculum. Moreover, I am going to share the

list of videos with my colleagues and we are going to add videos to it. My colleagues and I have also agreed that videos and films might be a useful resource that motivates students to continue studying German for GCSE. In the future, I am going to use more teaching strategies, which I encountered in *Using Short Films in Language Learning* (Huet & Reid, 2020). These include, for example, ‘tell me grid’, analysing moods and characters, using the future to predict events and the past to summarise. I am also going to implement videos in all of my language classes, because *Class X* responded well to videos in general. Moreover, I will continue to create tasks around the videos I show and I am aiming to let students create videos of their own because I want to give them the opportunity to be independent.

Luckily, I am able to try the research project again next academic year; however, I intend to amend some practices. Firstly, I will start with the implementation of videos earlier on in the academic year in order to maximise students’ exposure to these authentic sources. Bernales (2016) mentions speaking confidence, which develops over time. Moreover, it gives me more time to focus on all four skills, which could alternate from week to week. All four skills are necessary to master the GCSE course, therefore it makes sense to not just focus on one skill. In Term 3 and 4 I plan to ask students to briefly comment on how enjoyable they have found the tasks in order to tailor tasks that address their needs. Besides questionnaires and group interviews I would like to ask students if they find specific tasks more enjoyable and useful than others. As already mentioned in 6.1. I would like to keep a log and ask students to do the same. In addition to that I could imagine asking a colleague to observe my lesson and track who is more willing to communicate, boys or girls, and in addition to that how they react when shown a video. moreover, I would like to try using a video project as an alternative assessment, to see if students progressed and were able to use new vocabulary and grammar. These ways of collecting data could help answer some of the questions that have been raised during the investigation.

I believe that this investigation has highlighted the importance of the inclusion of videos and films in language lessons. Nevertheless, more research is necessary in order to understand long-term

effects of videos and films in language lessons. Not only has this research raised specific questions in the school-context I am working at but also general ones, which I would like to be able to answer in the future:

- Why do girls seem less willing to communicate than boys in my MFL lessons?
- Are students, who have been watching German videos since Year 7, more confident when speaking in the target language than those who have not been exposed to videos regularly?
- Does students' interest in the target language or target culture increase when exposed to videos throughout an academic year?
- What do students perceive as authentic video material?
- Are there any long-term effects on students' confidence, motivation and enjoyment following exposure to tasks involving responding to videos and films in MFL lessons?

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9. Appendices

9.1. Questionnaire 1

Questionnaire

Thank you for volunteering to be part of my research study, which focuses on cultural awareness and motivation in MFL. This questionnaire is anonymous and will not influence your grade or progress in German. There is no right or wrong answer, which means you can be totally honest when answering the questions. Once again, thank you for your participation!

1) Are you thinking of taking German for GCSE?

☐

Yes

☐

I am not sure

☐

No

2) Please say WHY you think that way on question number 1

9.2. Baseline Questionnaire

Questionnaire:

Hallo, you may have noticed that I am trying out the use of videos in German lessons and I'm interested to hear your thoughts about your experiences of using videos and any suggestions you have for future lessons. Please answer honestly – all surveys will be anonymous. Thank you!

1) What did you **enjoy most** about Term 3 during German lessons (**rank** it: 1 most enjoyable, 2 next most enjoyable, 3 third most enjoyable, 4 least enjoyable)

☐

Watching videos

☐

Talking about the culture

☐

Using German to describe videos

☐

Giving my opinion on videos we watched.

2) **Next term** I would like to... (**tick 1**)

☐

use Videos to find out about German culture

☐

Use German to describe videos

☐

to Write subtitles for a video (in German)

☐

Shoot a video and act it out in German

3) The skill **I feel most confident** in, when using German is... (**tick 1**)

☐ Listening ☐ Reading ☐ Writing ☐ speaking

4) The skill **I feel least confident** in, when using German is... (**tick 1**)

☐ Listening ☐ Reading ☐ Writing ☐ speaking

5) If I could, I would like to be more confident in... (**tick 1**)

☐ Understanding German in listenings ☐ Understand German when reading ☐ Writing German in ☐ Speaking in German

6) Do you have any **suggestions** for our work with videos next term?

9.3. Interview Questions

(Read out before interviewing) Hello everyone! First of all I want to emphasise how great it is that you volunteered to do the interview with me and that I would like to say at this point again, you can withdraw from the interview or that I use your data at any point. The recording will be saved onto a secure file and deleted from the recorder as soon as possible. I will not transcribe the whole conversation, only the important parts will be on paper. I will not mention your names or say your names during the recording. Please remember to answer questions honestly, I will not take it personally.

1. What did you think of making your own film?
2. What did you enjoy most about it?
3. What was the least enjoyable aspect about preparing and producing the film?
4. Is there any of the four skills, reading-speaking-listening-writing that you think you have improved on since January?
5. Follow up: What do you think has helped you to improve?/ or Why do you think you haven't made much progress?/ or Have the videos had any impact on your progress or lack of progress?
6. Do you think the speaking tasks during this term have prepared you well for the film project?

7. Do you feel comfortable when speaking in this class? (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001)
8. Do you worry about making mistakes when speaking in front of everybody? S+W
9. Are you afraid that I will correct your mistakes? (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001)
10. Do you think pronunciation and speaking activities should be a focus in the future? (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001)
11. Would you feel more comfortable using German with your teacher or with your peers? (Maly, 2019)
12. Do you feel anxious about using German in lessons? (Levine, 2003)
13. We have watched lots of video clips, what have you learnt from these – is there anything you found particularly interesting?
14. Are there any characteristics of the German culture that you think are similar to your culture? (Tognozzi, 2010)
15. Do you think that learning about culture should be an important focus of lessons? (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001)
16. Would you like to continue focussing on learning about the culture through video clips, or using any other authentic material? (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001)
17. Do you enjoy learning this language? Why- Why not? (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001)
18. In general, do you think you are putting your best effort into learning German? (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001)

9.4. Scheme of Work Term 3

Scheme of work Term 3

Code: U= understanding; W= writing; R=reading; L= listening; S=speaking; E= extension; WS= weaker students; HS= higher students

Week	Lesson	LO	Lesson outline	video	Additional comments
Week 1	Monday	Revision of last term's content	Worksheet	n/a	Questionnaire and making students aware of this term's content
	Thursday	Test	Students have an assessment- will be peer marked in the last 10min	n/a	
Week 2	Monday	That say what music you like/don't like	Students get vocab sheet for this term's vocab, Match up activity(U), answer questions (W) p30, (E) reading task; video (L)	Script from GCSE STIMMT (F=foundation)- fill in the gaps (WS)- answer questions (HS)	HW learn specific vocab

	Thurs day	Tbat write about instruments	Starter: vocab test; Match up (U); answer 3 questions (W)- writing frame given) using “seit”; (L) video-guess the instrument, help sheet is given; video (L) answer questions	V1: Youtube: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JSvT_n5V7S0 V2: Stimmt 3 rot p. 34	
Week 3	Mond ay	Tbat describe music	Vocab test; reading task in silence/ Steckbrief “Nena”; Steckbrief “Cro”- translation task- pairs; students get to listen to 99 <i>Luftballons</i> (before they listen talk about what the song could be about) und <i>Einmal um die Welt</i> (same-give them lyrics and say what it could be about) then watch it.)- Write in the back of the book what they think of it, using descriptive language	V1: Nena- 99 Luftballons (lyrics are provided) V2: Cro- einmal um die Welt (lyrics are provided)	HW: find a German musician, who sings in German and find a song that you like
	Thurs day	Tbat compare music	Continuing from last lesson: Words for comparison explained (U)- students get sheet; they listen to the 2 songs again, compare the songs in their books- writing frames are given; reading task (E)	V1: Nena- 99 Luftballons (lyrics are provided) V2: Cro- einmal um die Welt (lyrics are provided)	Tell students to bring their headphones for next lesson
Week 4	Mond ay	Tbat compare music	Students work in pairs and listen to 2 songs they have been given – then they compare them by writing the comparisons down (W); students use their phones to listen to the songs; (E) create a Steckbrief for both musicians/bands	List of songs tba –	
	Thurs day	Tbat compare	Students finish their little music project		

		music-finish			
Week 5	Monday	Present your musicians	Students present their musicians to each other- this will be done in pairs, 5min each		
	Thursday	Tbat say what you can do at a music festival	(R) P36- (U) introduction of certain vocab; showing V1- ask students what they think of it – extended vocab list (S); Make a list of music festivals students have researched- say what you can do at this music festival (words from book)	V1: Wacken https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GiaraFnGInc	HW to research the different music festivals in Germany/Switzerland or Austria; AML takes books and corrects them
Week 6	Monday	Tbat talk about a past music festival	Starter: Match up questions with answers (U); (L) students listen to AML about past experiences and answer questions afterwards; (W) students write about a past experience (in pairs or 3s) on mini whiteboards, using the vocab given- 2 students present their story and others will be asked about the details (L)- when finished write in their book; (E) readings on page 40	Video will be for showing a different type of music – stimulus: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jd2fKORm9pk	
	Thursday	Consolidate unit ,Musik ist mein Leben‘	Worksheet – in pairs and on their own		Revise for test, for after half term

9.5. Scheme of Work Term 4

Scheme of work term 4

Code: U= understanding; W= writing; R=reading; L= listening; S=speaking; E= extension; WS= weaker students; HS= higher students

We ek	Lesson	LO	Lesson outline	video	Additional comments
Week 1	Monday	Revision of last term's content	Worksheet	n/a	
	Thursday	Test	Students have an assessment	n/a	
Week 2	Monday	Tbat use understand the conditional tense with "würden"	Students get vocab sheet for this term's vocab, Students write down important info (U), practice pronunciation – all together (L/S), students fill out gaps use the knowledge (U), students say their answers- shared with whole class. AML checks knowledge by doing a Kahoot quiz at the end of lesson	n/a	HW learn specific vocab and conjugation of würden- next Monday
	Thursday	Tbat use the conditional tense	Starter: würden; AML explain würden again (U), Match up (U); whole class speaking task (S) trap door text- pair work (S)	Videos on PPT- only stimuli	
Week 3	Monday	Tbat writing about things you would do	Starter: vocab test; video of waterpark in Austria- speaking "Würdest du..." whole class (S); reading task on extreme sport (R); writing about what you would do (W)- the writing has extension tasks (E)	Video: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WRotzRy-ofk&t=75s	HW: vocab test next Monday

	Thursd ay	Tbat talk about things you would rather do	Starter: match up activity (U); watch video Easy German “Würdest du lieber...”; students are allowed to use online dictionaries- in pairs, student ask each other would you rather questions by picking a card from the pile- answer in German (S) - Extension is to justify your answer (E) If time allows students come up with their own “würdest du lieber...” in German (E) Plenary is to listen to some of their answers and ask some students	Video: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5WKBGi5Lqmo&t=207s	
Week 4	Monda y	Tbat remember jobs in German and use möchte	Starter: vocab test; introduction to new words (U); Match up (U); watching the video then speaking activity “Ich möchte ... werden, weil...” using the sentences from the match up and the jobs from the video (S) explaining how möchten is used – plenary to check students’ understanding (U)	Video: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ac84-9gm2uA	
	Thursd ay	Tbat use möchte in speaking and writing	Starter: trap door activity (S); reading task – taken from Stimmt 3 (R); write about a job and what you would like to do and why (W)		HW https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JwzYaIz6GMc watch the video and write down which jobs they have – write in English AND German

Week 5	Monday	That understand the video requirements and decide the structure in the group	Starter: discuss HW video AML to show students example of video (from another class)- explain the steps and LOs of each lesson- groups are being formed – video of “Herzblatt” explain that their videos need to be based on this; an example script is handed out- students can choose if they want to change it or not (must decide who is playing which role or start re-writing it) AML asks each group individually who is playing which part	Video of 9N is shown – Herzblatt : https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qcwI7uBYwrk&t=267s	
	Thursday	Practice the script	Students get in their groups! Speaking (S) – students practice script AML checks understanding and monitors students pronunciation- correct if scripts were re-written; students can draft a stage etc		HW: take props with you for next week (Barbie/Lego) or draw the stage- no drawings in lesson
Week 6	Monday	Filming	Students get in their groups and start filming, can be done outside of the classroom – editing takes place Ask students when they would like to have the interview		Interviews take place throughout the week- Students can do their filming during break time as well
	Thursday	Presentation	Students present their videos- prize for best video- students decide via vote Final questionnaire to fill out		

9.6. Email to Colleagues

Data and Article

To: [REDACTED]

Attachments: (2) [Download all attachments](#)

 [Data Questionnaire.docx \(17 KB\)](#) [[Open as Web Page](#)];  [a sequential model for vid-1.pdf \(2 MB\)](#) [[Open as Web Page](#)]

20 February 2020 16:45

Hello everyone,

I am attaching the outcome of my questionnaire after Term 3, after I have tried to implement videos in the scheme of work. I would like to have your opinion on these outcomes, as your opinion will be part of collaborative work in my research study. Thank you for doing this!!! :)

Also, I came across a rather old article (1997) but quite useful one of how to use videos in the language classroom, maybe you are doing this already or have done this in the past, I don't know. The main thing is that I want to share this with you, I have also summarised it:

Swaffar and Vlaten (1997) have developed strategies of analysing and understanding videos in foreign language classes. The authors have developed 5 strategies to give guidance to teachers using videos that support students understanding of the foreign language and culture. The first strategy is "How genres tell stories in initial silent viewing" (1997: 177) to mute videos and look at the images themselves, analyse obvious things such as the abbreviations of the days of the week in a weather forecast. In order to highlight a cultural difference, students should focus on, for instance, different means of transport or different types of housing. This strategy, called "Identifying cultural differences in visual relationships" (1997:179) is still embedded when videos have been muted. In order to understand the language itself, teachers need to scaffold the content. This starts with the strategy of "Verbalizing visual themes" (1997:180). Students are exposed to the sound for the first time and only listen to single words or phrases at first. Match up activities and written support should help students to comprehend more phrases and some of the content. They could, for example, start identifying which character has problems, who has a certain occupation or who is talking about a specific topic. The fourth strategy "identifying minimal linguistic differences as difference in meaning" (1997:181) is more in-depth and lets students focus on, as the title says, minimal differences. For example, being able to select which of these phrases has been said *Sie fahren später* [they leave later] or *Sie fährt später* [she leaves later] (1997:181). This can be done by using a written version from which students choose, these minimal differences could also be identified by watching the video; in case of the example, it would be who is addressed, is it she or they. This strategy is ideal for beginning language learners as it "does not require conversational production skills" (1997:181). The last strategy "Information as the basis for student perspectives" (1997:181) is about verbalising the phrases they have learnt by acting out different scenes, rewriting the plot or doing role-plays. These tasks can be done with a language or cultural practice in mind. Needless to say, these are only suggestions and students could always hand in a written document, depending on what skill (listening, reading, writing or speaking) the teacher wants to focus on.