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'We are people, you know': children's views on the use of video recordings in the EFL class

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Abstract

A study is presented with a twofold objective related to child voice: to explore children's views on the use of video-recordings in the EFL class, and to promote the inclusion of child voice in decision-making processes in the foreign language classroom. The study has been carried out in a primary school setting in Catalonia over a three-year period. Data has been collected and analysed within an interpretative phenomenological approach, adopting an ethically symmetrical approach to children as research participants. Findings suggest that video recordings can be a useful classroom resource to encourage self-reflection, but that camera presence and subsequent self-viewing can provoke strong emotional reactions and generate overly critical and potentially debilitating attitudes to language learning. Child voice contributions provide insightful ideas to use video recordings strategically and ethically, while also raising important questions about children's rights to privacy and data protection, and to express their views using their L1 in the EFL class.

Keywords: child voice, children's rights, English-only policies, use of L1, inclusion, social justice

Introduction

Seeing ourselves on screen has become the new norm during the Covid-19 pandemic. The unprecedented shift to remote learning across educational levels has resulted in a boom in the use of video recordings and video conferencing apps. While this usage has brought clear advantages in terms of allowing educational activity to continue (to a greater or lesser extent depending on the context), it has also raised different concerns regarding its effects, on the one hand, and privacy issues on the other. With regards to the first concern, some experts have highlighted the draining effect of being in a situation where you are aware of being watched:

> When you're on a video conference, you know everybody's looking at you; you are on a stage, so there comes the social pressure and feeling like you need to perform. Being performative is nerve-wracking and more stressful. (Jiang, 2020).

The experts consulted in Jiang's report highlight the need to protect wellbeing and to measure camera time carefully, reminding readers that they can opt to turn the camera off during meetings and advocating more understanding of the potential effects of video conference usage. Although raised here in the context of wellbeing in the workplace, the concerns are equally relevant in the field of education, particularly in childhood education where the individual agency and choice alluded to may be more limited, with children not always having the same freedom to choose to switch the camera off. In addition to the synchronous experiences enabled by video conferencing apps, the shift to remote learning has also led educators to harness the potential of asynchronous video recordings, with both teachers and students performing activities on camera that would previously have been carried out in class, raising important questions about children's rights to privacy and data protection. In an article published just before the pandemic, Milkaite and Lieven claim that while most people now recognise that 'everyone' has a right to privacy and that this is protected by national and international laws, this 'everyone' is usually assumed to be an adult (2019). An example of this can be found in

relation to government legislation obliging schools to obtain authorised consent to use images and/or videos of students in publicly available documents or webpages. Until the age of 18, the consent referred to is an agreement between adults which excludes the child's voice (Milkaite & Lieven, 2019). The study presented in this paper aims to include child voice by exploring their views on the use of video recordings in their English (EFL) classes.

Child voice in educational research

Between 2000 and 2003, a Cambridge-based research team led by Professor Jean Rudduck carried out extensive work in schools in the UK and beyond to investigate the potential of 'student voice', establishing the theoretical grounds for including and promoting student voice in schools (McIntyre, Pedder, & Rudduck, 2005; Rudduck & McIntyre, 2007), and presenting accessible guidelines for teachers keen on integrating these ideas in their practice (Flutter & Rudduck 2003; MacBeath, Demetriou, Rudduck, & Myers 2003). As Rudduck explains (n.d.):

> Pupil voice is the consultative wing of pupil participation. Consultation is about talking with pupils about things that matter in school. It may involve: conversations about teaching and learning; seeking advice from pupils about new initiatives; inviting comment on ways of solving problems that are affecting the teacher's right to teach and the pupil's right to learn; inviting evaluative comment on recent developments in school or classroom policy and practice.

Harnessing pupil voice can go some way towards: 1. recognising young people's capabilities and insights (thus affording them a different standing in the school environment); 2. protecting and nurturing children's rights (as established in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989); 3. improving students' experiences of learning; 4. developing the skills needed to flourish in a democratic society (Rudduck, n.d.). From a policy perspective, work advanced on child voice has had a significant and far-reaching impact, promoting government-led initiatives, such as the Student Voice SpeakUp project created by the Ontario Ministry of Education, Canada (http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/students/speakup/), or changes to

educational policies in the UK, incorporating pupil voice into official school review processes (Ofsted, 2011).

Despite overall agreement that children's voices matter, educational researchers have raised concerns about conceptualisations and applications. From an ethical perspective, Lewis (2009) raises important questions about purposes and protocols, highlighting the need to respect and listen to 'child silence' in both research and applied contexts. Regarding the challenges of achieving full or authentic participation, Lewis, Newton and Vials (2008) point out the need to consider children with special needs or disabilities, offering ideas to promote the inclusion of their voices. Assessing the barriers to meaningful and effective implementation of the Rights of the Child in education, Lundy (2013) argues that 'pupil voice' can oversimplify things, thus diminishing the impact of Article 12 (UN Convention): to counteract this she proposes a new model based on voice, audience and influence. The question of influence is also taken up by Mayes, Finneran, and Black (2019), who raise concerns about representativity when some students speak for others. These concerns resonate strongly with the earlier work of Rudduck (n.d.), who pointed out the challenges as well as the opportunities of child consultation:

> Consultation assumes a degree of social confidence and of linguistic competence and we have found that the more self-assured (often middle-class pupils) who talk the language of the school can tend to dominate conversations. But one of the strengths of consultation is the opportunity it provides to hear from the silent – or silenced – pupils and to understand why some disengage and what would help them get back on track.

On this account, 'talking the language of the school' means being competent in the formal use of the school's majority language and main language of instruction.

Child voice in foreign language education

The challenges discussed in the previous section can be magnified further in foreign language classrooms, in contexts where target language usage is prioritised over and above full student

participation. In the case of EFL, English-only approaches are often upheld or enforced on the assumption that first language usage can hinder the learning of the target language (Yphantides 2021). Yphantides' review finds this assumption to be widespread and not restricted to any specific region of the world. From a theoretical standpoint, work focusing on bilingual or multilingual language learners (Cummins 2000; 2001), and more recent work developing the concept of translanguaging (García & Wei 2014; García 2019), has helped raise awareness of the social injustice incurred when students are banned from using their own languages in classroom contexts, and of the detrimental effect this can have on the learning process (Cummins 2021). Recent studies in locations as diverse as Cameroon (Belibi 2015), South Korea (Rabbidge 2019), and Japan (Yphantides 2021) provide empirical evidence to support these theories. Belibi's study shows how low-achieving EFL learners in Cameroon performed better when their first language of literacy (French) was included as a scaffolding tool in the EFL classroom. In the South Korean context, Rabbidge (2019) provides a detailed account of how language exclusion policies (in this case excluding Korean from the EFL classroom) impact negatively on both learners and teachers, excluding their voices and opinions from dominant discourses on what constitutes effective foreign language education.

Opportunities for including child voice in foreign language classrooms governed by target-language-only policies are considerably restricted from the outset. In countries such as the one in which this study has been conducted (Catalonia), these restrictions can be further exacerbated according to social class. Children from middle class families often receive private tuition in English in after-school centres (Escobar Urmeneta & Unamuno 2008), thus increasing their capacity to be able to express themselves and have their voices heard in their foreign language classes at school. This resonates strongly with Rudduck's (n.d.) observation that the more self-assured and linguistically competent students tend to dominate conversations. Bearing this in mind, opportunities for maximising participation can be created

through interactions between educators and children which focus on the *whole* child, nurturing both intellect and identity (Cummins, 2000; 2021; Hemphill & Blakely, 2021), and drawing on their full linguistic repertoires (García 2021; García & Wei, 2014).

The next section highlights methodological considerations aimed at maximising participation and ensuring that consultation processes are carried out ethically and in an age-appropriate manner.

Methodological considerations

Exploring consultation processes with children in primary school settings, Pollard and Triggs (2000) emphasise the need to establish and maintain rapport and interest, which can be done by embedding instruments (e.g. interviews) in students' immediate experiences, and by using visual prompts to reduce problems with memory recall reported by previous researchers (Payne, 2007). The importance of building rapport and embedding research methodologies into existing experiences and classroom practices was highlighted by speakers at a recent Forum hosted by the Multilingual Childhood's SIG (EECERA), focusing exclusively on 'Collecting data with and about young children: ethical and methodological issues' (Ellis, 2021; Mhic Mhathúna & Hayes, 2021; Pinter, 2021; Schwartz, 2021). As researchers in a minority language context (the Irish language), Mhic Mhathúna and Hayes (2021) alert us to the need to think carefully about the languages we use as researchers during data collection processes and the effect that speaking or not speaking the child's language, or having to rely on an intermediary, can have on data collection and interpretation. Furthermore, and aligning themselves with previous authors (Christensen and Prout, 2002), they argue that the same ethical principles applied in research with adults should also be adhered to when working with children (Mhic Mhathú & Hayes, 2021). The importance of such an 'ethically symmetrical approach' is that the researcher 'has equality as his or her starting point', actively constructing

research relationships and avoiding ‘presupposed ideas or stereotypes about children and childhood’, while simultaneously recognising the implicit power relationships between adults and children and taking these into account at every step of the research process (Christensen and Prout, 2002, pp. 483-484).

Avoiding an idealised view of the child, or the idea that the child’s voice is ‘truly authentic’, Pinter points out that when conducting research in formal settings, the child voice is always situated in interactional and institutional norms and should therefore be interpreted with this in mind (Pinter 2021). Furthermore, and as Schwartz, Kirsch, and Mortini (2020) and Schwartz (2021) alert us, the nature of these language-based interactions impacts on the child’s capacity to exercise full agency. Although studies taking into account children’s views within the field of Applied Linguistics are on the increase (Pinter, 2015), resistance is still detected, with the assumption that children are not cognitively aware enough to be able to participate and express their views being one of the common obstacles in the way of such practice (Ellis, 2021). Earlier work on pupil voice supports recent work on child agency, by stressing the need for consultation processes to design mechanisms that maximise participation, providing opportunities to hear from the silent or silenced pupils and thus helping teachers and schools ‘understand why some [children] disengage and what would help them get back on track’ (Rudduck, n.d.).

The study presented in this paper applies a child voice approach in the foreign language classroom, consulting primary school children about practices carried out within their English (EFL) classes. The main focus of the consultation centres around the issues raised in the introduction to this paper: the effects of video recording use and concerns regarding privacy rights.

Effects of self-viewing on language learning

Corrective feedback

Some researchers and practitioners claim that using video recordings in the language classroom can be engaging, effective and fun for students and can help capture both spoken language and visual communication in a way which facilitates work on accuracy without affecting students' fluency (Ward, 2020). On this account, fluency is not affected since students are able to speak freely while being recording and are not slowed down or inhibited by being corrected on-the-spot. The playback feature of video technology means that accuracy work can be carried out later, focusing on samples of pre-recorded speech and allowing students to reflect on their strengths and areas for improvement (Ward, 2020). In a study evaluating the benefits of computer-mediated feedback, Rassaei concludes that 'video-based online oral corrective feedback can be as effective as traditional face-to-face feedback (2017, p. 133). On the question of corrective feedback in the EFL classroom, differences have been found between students' willingness to receive it and teachers' reluctance to provide it (Van Ha & Murray, 2021; Jean & Simard, 2011; Lee, 2013; Li, 2017; Roothooft & Breeze, 2016; Schulz, 1996, 2001), with teacher reluctance being explained by concerns that this may cause student embarrassment or anxiety (Kartchava, Gatbonton, Ammar, & Trofimovich, 2020; Roothooft, 2014; Roothooft & Breeze, 2016; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010); or that it may stop the flow of communication (Kartchava, Gatbonton, Ammar, & Trofimovich, 2020; Li, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015).

Affective dimension

In a study considering the use of video-recordings with high school students learning French as a foreign language, Kotula (2015) agrees that video-recordings can be an effective learning tool, but insists that they must be used with caution since they can provoke strong emotional reactions. Results of his study show that some individuals will be much more reticent than others in front of the camera or when receiving corrective feedback. Regular, strategic use is

key, according to Kotula, as well as finding ways to encourage students to see the resource as a tool that can benefit them and advance their learning. Reinforcing the cautionary approach advocated by Kotula (2015), Broady and Le Duc question the extent to which video recordings can be exploited effectively for detailed linguistic feedback (2007). Their research with university students learning French as a foreign language shows that some learners can find watching themselves on video demoralising, precisely because it forces them to judge their own performance and can sometimes reinforce a negative focus on error (2007). A study conducted with students enrolled on Chinese and Japanese language programmes provides further insight from the student perspective (Gong, Kawasaki, Yeung, Zhang, & Dobinson, 2018). In this case, results suggest that video-recorded oral assessments can facilitate L2 learning, by improving learners' motivation and encouraging self-reflection, while echoing the warnings of previous authors and that this might not apply to all learners (Gong et al., 2018).

Identification of research gap

Most of the literature referred to above has been carried out with adults or young people. Notwithstanding the growing tendency to use video recordings in classrooms, little literature has been found analysing their use with children. This study aims to contribute to this gap in the literature by considering the effects of self-viewing from the child's perspective.

Study

Background

The study was conducted in a primary school setting in Catalonia during the implementation and development of an interactive storytelling project within the EFL classroom (details in Waddington 2019, 2020). While children were clear about the success criteria of the project (to design and deliver a storytelling session with picturebooks for their younger peers), they demonstrated unease about the use of video recordings. In the first year (2016-2017),

storytelling sessions had been recorded on video for research purposes only and were viewed solely by the researcher and teachers. In the second year (2017-2018), the recordings were viewed in class to aid memory recall and focus on different aspects (strong points/aspects to improve) to help complete peer and self-assessment activities (see Figure 1 and 2).

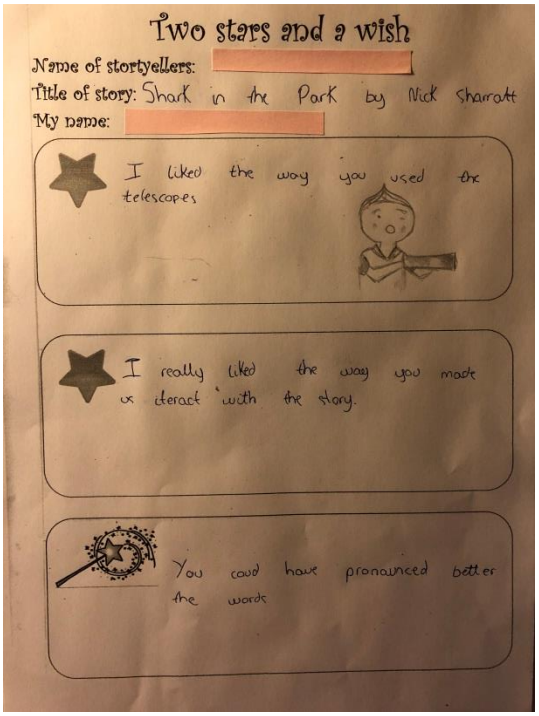

Figure 1. Peer assessment activity.
Source: Waddington (2021)

Following government legislation, the school had obtained the necessary consent to use images and/or videos of students for educational purposes at the beginning of the year. In addition, informed consent was obtained from families of the participant children after they had been duly informed about the EFL project and the research being conducted. A Research Agreement was also drawn up with the children during class to convey to them the purpose of the research

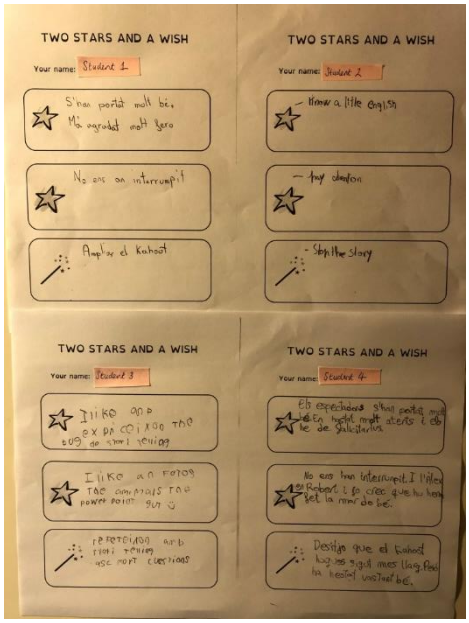

Figure 2. Students' first impressions for self-assessment activity.
Source: Waddington (2021).

(investigate and improve EFL practice) and to obtain their consent to participate in the study. At the beginning of the project, children were not consulted about the use of video recordings since legal requirements relating to image rights had already been met. Nevertheless, and as discussed in the introduction to this paper, the evidence that emerged suggested the need to reflect beyond these minimum legal requirements and to take into account the children's right to have their own say, 'inviting evaluative comment on recent developments in school or classroom policy and practice', as advocated by pupil voice research (Rudduck, n.d.).

Purpose

In light of the above, a study was designed to explore the following research questions:

> What are the effects of self-viewing and camera presence on EFL learning from the child's perspective?

Methodology

The study has been carried out within an interpretative phenomenological approach 'committed to understanding social phenomena from the actor's own perspective and examining how the world is experienced' (Taylor, Bogdan, & DeVault, 2016, p.3). The guiding principle underpinning our adoption of this method is our understanding that 'the important reality is what people perceive it to be' (ibid). In terms of our stance, and adopting the ethically symmetrical approach advocated by Mhic Mhathúna & Hayes (2021) and Christensen and Prout (2002), we consider this statement to be equally valid in the case of children. In terms of procedures, we recognise the need to adapt research processes and instruments carefully to take into account the specific ethical and methodological issues that arise when collecting data with and about children (Ellis, 2021; Mhic Mhathúna & Hayes, 2021; Pinter, 2021; Schwartz, 2021); and to ensure that the children themselves are acknowledged as the primary experts on the matter under study (Pinter, 2019).

Participants

Data was collected over a three-year period (Yr 1=2016-2017; Yr 2=2017-2018; Yr 3=2018-2019) from a total sample of 27 children in the last two years of primary education (aged between 10 and 12), distributed across three intact groups (G1=N13 in Year 1; G2=N6 in Year 1 & 2; G3=N8 in Year 2 & 3) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Participants from upper cycle of primary school (10-12 years old) over the 3-year period.

Group	Total no. students	Girls	Boys	Year of implementation	Video recordings viewed by students
1	13	5	8	2016-2017 (Yr 1)	No
2	6	3	3	2016-2017 (Yr 1) 2017-2018 (Yr 2)	No Yes
3	8	1	7	2017-2018 (Yr 2) 2018-2019 (Yr 3)	Yes No

While small in number, as is typical in rural schools of this kind, each group was highly heterogeneous, with significant differences in ability levels and learning styles. The children had been receiving EFL classes in a low-exposure context (2 x 1hr classes per week) since the beginning of primary school (6 years old) and their level was consistent with national targets for this age: by the end of primary children should be able to understand and express simple messages in a foreign language (Escobar Urmeneta & Unamuno, 2008).

Data collection procedures

Data was collected from different sources, including self-reporting questionnaires, in-depth classroom discussions, teacher-researcher meetings and classroom observations. Regarding the latter, the researcher had already collaborated closely with the school during implementation of the project and was therefore able to take on the role of participant observer in a natural and unobtrusive way (Kawulich, 2005), aiming to contribute to the smooth running of the sessions whenever possible, while simultaneously collecting data. Two specific instruments provided the main data set used in this particular study: questionnaires and in-depth group interviews.

Self-reporting questionnaires

After spending some class-time evaluating their storytelling sessions and carrying out peer and self-assessment activities (see Figures 1 & 2), the children were asked to complete a follow-up questionnaire (see Figure 3). The children were assisted by the teacher and researcher whenever necessary and given the option to write their answers in English or Catalan (L1). Additional notes were also obtained from the class discussion generated after questionnaire completion.

In-depth group interviews: the go-along approach

An approach which proved particularly effective in encouraging child participants to share their views corresponds to the ‘go-along’ approach reported by Kusenback (2003) (cited in Taylor et al., 2016). The principle idea is that the researcher has been invited for another purpose and

OUR STORYTELLING CIRCLE Follow-up Questionnaire				
Name:			Date:	
Now that you have told a story in English…				
1. How did it go?	Not good	I'm not sure	Good	Very good
2. If you answered 'Good' or 'Very good', explain **why**... Why do you think it went well? Was there anything in particular that helped?				
3. If you're not sure, or you think it did not go well, explain **why**...				
4. What were your **strong points** during the preparation of the storytelling session?				
5. Which points do you think you could **improve** during the preparation?				
6. What were your **strong points** when you told the story?				
7. Which points do you think you could **improve** when telling the story?				
8. Do you think the listeners enjoyed the story?	Not particularly	Maybe a little	Yes, I think so	Yes, definitely
9. How does that make you feel?				
10. Finally, would you like to tell more stories in English? Yes ☐ No ☐ Why?				

Figure 3. Follow-up questionnaire completed by students after delivering storytelling sessions. Source: Waddington (2021).

that the interview emerges 'spontaneously', or 'along the way' (Taylor et al., 2016, p. 121). According to the authors, this strategy produces more authentic and deeper insights than if participants are asked to sit down to a formal interview process. This approach also aligns well with recommendations from 'pupil voice' research to embed research instruments within existing classroom practice (Payne, 2007).

This approach was applied in one particular session in which the researcher had been invited to participate in the last class of the storytelling project (2018-2019) dedicated to peer and self-assessment activities. Following the 'go-along' strategy agreed beforehand, the teacher waited

until the assessment activities came to a natural conclusion before suggesting to the children that the researcher might have some specific questions to ask them, and asking if they would like to collaborate. After gaining their interest and consent, an in-depth discussion ensued which focused exclusively on the use of video recordings in the classroom. The researcher posed open questions and encouraged the children to give their opinions. The teacher listened and participated occasionally to encourage all children to participate. The researcher adopted the 'naïve attitude' recommended by Taylor et al. (2016, p. 121) when probing for more detailed examples and clarifications, encouraging the children to give her more details to help her understand them. This in-depth discussion was recorded on audio and transcribed to facilitate subsequent analysis. The transcription contains a mixture of both languages spoken during the debate: the target language (English) was used to get the discussion started (following on naturally from the previous class activities developed in English), but an explicit code-switch occurred after this initial phase when it became apparent to the researcher and teacher that the discussion needed to be conducted in L1 (Catalan) for the children to understand the questions and to be able to express their opinions fully.

Data analysis and interpretation

Questionnaire responses were analysed to evaluate levels of pupil reflection and satisfaction with own performance and to compare responses across groups who had self-viewed or not self-viewed. Field notes taken from the class discussion after questionnaire completion were also drawn on to complement the analysis. The recording of the group discussion applying the go-along approach was analysed in-depth to identify the perceived effects of self-viewing and camera presence from the child's perspective. The thematic analysis process followed was both inductive and deductive, since it was guided initially by the literature consulted and driven further by the data itself (Braun & Clarke 2006; Maguire & Delahunt 2017). The patterns and

themes that emerged were organised into overarching themes and then sub-divided further into the categories shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Emerging themes from thematic analysis of group discussion

Overarching theme	Sub-theme
Effect on learners	Drop in confidence levels in English
	Generation of discomfort, embarrassment, anxiety
	Feeling intimidated or ridiculed
	Self-image versus public image
Effect on learning	Reduction in willingness to speak in English
	Reduction in willingness to participate in class
	Helps correct errors
	Generation of more mistakes due to nervousness/self-consciousness
	Interruptions caused by recording process
Vindication of rights	Lack of decision-making capacity (right to decline)
	Uncertainty about use of videos
	Uneasiness about who is going to view
	Proposals for self-viewing

The data analysed included mixed uses of English and Catalan: uses of the latter have been translated into English and verified by a professional translator to facilitate the presentation of the findings and ensure accurate renderings. Children's names have been coded according to group and student number (e.g. Gp1_S1) to protect anonymity and ensure confidentiality.

Findings

Pupil satisfaction and self-reflection

Questionnaire responses from Group 1 and Group 2 in the first year of project implementation (when students did not view video recordings of their storytelling sessions) showed high levels of satisfaction with their own storytelling performances, but low levels of self-reflection. Specifically, responses to the question asking them to identify their strong points were minimal, with only one student (out of 19) mentioning an aspect related to language skills ('pronunciation', G2_S3). Regarding areas for improvement, although most responses lacked reflection (e.g. 'do it better', Gp2_S2), a few students identified some areas they could work

on, particularly in relation to their own behaviour: ‘don’t act silly and talk when I shouldn’t’, Gp1_S8; ‘don’t laugh so much’, G2_S1); ‘talk louder’; G2_S6; don’t be so embarrassed’, G1_S9.

Questionnaires completed in the second year of project implementation, after students had viewed recordings, showed notable differences across the two groups. Students from Group 2 (who had prior experience after having participated in year 1) provided detailed answers focusing on specific aspects of their performance and explanations of the changes they could introduce. Most of these changes referred to paralinguistic features (‘look more at the children instead of the book’, G2_S1) or classroom organisation (‘sit the children in different positions’, Gp2_S5). Only one student provided a response related to her own linguistic competence (‘improve my pronunciation’, Gp2_S4).

By contrast, children from Group 3 (first year of participation) showed lower levels of satisfaction with own performance, but higher levels of self-reflection, particularly in relation to the question about improvements. Echoing some of the responses made in other groups, students referred to the need to improve pronunciation. Their reflections expanded much further, however, and a new word emerged which had not been used by anyone in the other groups: ‘voice’. Almost all the students in this group used the word in their open responses, expressing discomfort and dissatisfaction with their own voice. The class discussion held after students had completed questionnaires was also dominated by this concern, with students expanding further and complaining that their voice was ‘horrible’ or ‘pathetic’.

Questionnaires completed by the same group in the subsequent year (Yr 3) showed notably higher levels of satisfaction with own performance and detailed reflections on what they had done well and what they could do to improve further. In this case, and in contrast to the previous year, their reflections were developed without having viewed any recordings of the sessions.

A further indicator of satisfaction was provided by responses to the question asking if they would like to repeat the experience. In year 2 (after viewing), only 2 (of 8) children responded positively, in contrast to results from the subsequent year (without viewing) when all students confirmed their willingness to repeat the experience again.

Affective dimension

The negative self-assessments and dissatisfaction shown by students in Group 3 contrasted sharply with the teacher's high appraisal of their performances, prompting concerns about the negative effect of self-viewing on students' self-perceptions. Teacher concerns were supported by evidence from other subject areas in which the use of video recordings had also generated unexpected negative effects. One example related to the preparation of dances in physical education classes, with teachers reporting that students lost coordination and started to make more mistakes when the camera was turned on to record rehearsals. A similar pattern was reported from another teacher in relation to short presentations delivered in her science classes: confidence levels seemed to drop considerably when the camera was switched on and students became reticent or 'tripped over their words' (L1 teacher).

This teacher perspective coincided with the child views extracted from our analysis of the in-depth discussion. When asked if they would recommend using videos or not in the future, one student offered the following reflection:

> In my opinion, it would be better without the camera. I don't know. I mean that way you're less like 'Oh no, have I done it right, now? Have I done it wrong? Are they recording me now? And I don't know what else'. So you're just like there, looking at the camera and, I don't know, you just get nervous. (Gp3_S7)

The suggestion that the camera affects behaviour negatively and generates nervousness also emerged at the beginning of the discussion when the researcher first asked them what they thought about being recorded. The question generated a heated response, with many voices

trying to speak at the same time and with the word ‘embarrassment’ being repeated by several students. One student refers to their experience performing dances in physical education, confirming the teacher perspective reported above:

Gp3_S8) Because when we did the dances, we did it perfectly when they weren’t recording. And then, when they recorded, it didn’t come out right at all because we got embarrassed.

Researcher You get embarrassed when you see the camera? (*surprised tone of voice*)

Gp3_S5 Yes, because the camera (*struggles to find the right word and checks the word ‘intimida’ with teacher*) intimidates you.

After this exchange, there was a general ripple of giggles and considerable talking in whispers among themselves until another student offered a different perspective, which will be discussed in detail in the final section of the findings (child consent).

Self-assessment and corrective feedback

Halfway through the in-depth discussion, after children had given different opinions on the use of video recordings, the researcher and teacher emphasised that they were consulting them to help decide whether to use video recordings or not in future English classes. The question generated visible unease among the children and their responses were often contradictory. Up to this point, they had expressed mainly negative views about video recordings. However, when asked specifically to say if they would recommend using them or not with other students in the future, they showed less certainty, either remaining silent or saying they didn’t know. A student who had previously voiced strong views against the use of video recordings offers his own perspective, saying ‘I think that *with* recordings, and then they can see what mistakes they’ve made’ (Gp3_S1). Encouraging the other children to share their opinions, the researcher asked them (in L1) to imagine how it would have been this year if they had watched recordings:

Researcher This year you’ve all given a really good assessment of the experience. How do you think it would have been if you’d watched the videos like you did last year?

Gp3_S2 Yes, maybe it would be better. Because then we'd be able to correct our mistakes. So if the 4th years (I mean those who'll be in 5th year next year) watch videos, then they'll be able to do it better when they're in year 6.

Gp3_S3 I agree with (name of Gp3_S2).

Other students agreed with this view, suggesting that video recordings can be a useful resource to encourage self-reflection.

Contrasting this with self-assessments completed in the previous year (after they had viewed recordings) helps to weigh up this suggestion further. As indicated earlier, questionnaire responses had revealed high levels of self-reflection compared to those administered in previous years when no recordings had been viewed. Reflections were dominated, however, by negative evaluations of their performance and self-deprecating comments about their voices. Attempts made by the researcher and teacher to steer the focus in different directions in the post-questionnaire discussion, drawing attention to what had gone well, were repeatedly frustrated by the children's preoccupation with their 'horrible' voices.

Child consent

As indicated above, the in-depth discussion revealed mixed responses and general unease when students were asked to help the teacher decide whether to use video recordings with next year's students. Their mixed responses can be explained, to some extent, by the juxtaposition between their awareness that the resource can help them 'correct their mistakes' on the one hand, and the anxiety generated by the camera or by viewing oneself in public on the other. One child offers a possible solution to this apparent dilemma.

Gp3_S3 I've got another idea. I mean another way of looking at it. I'd like to hear myself more than look at myself. But it's better to see yourself because then you can see your mistakes.

Researcher Ok… (*gesturing for him to continue*)

Gp3_S3 I don't want anyone else to watch me, but I want to see my mistakes.

Researcher	Ok. I think I understand.
Other voices	No, neither one thing nor the other (*disagreeing with Gp3_S3*).
Researcher	So if you could watch yourself, just you, or listen to yourself, on your own, maybe with some headphones?
Other voices	Yes, me too (*several voices can be heard agreeing).*
Researcher	But without the others watching you?
Gp3_S3	Exactly. Just me, watching me.
Gp3_S1	I think the same as (name of Gp3_S3). I'd prefer to watch me on my own than to have everyone watching me and going 'hey, look at him'.

This debate is developed further, with other pupils agreeing with this suggestion and with students also commenting on the discomfort they feel when they are corrected in front of their classmates. A comment made by one student suggests that the problem also lies in the uncertainty around how video recordings are going to be used. On this account, the camera intimidates because you know that 'someone's going to watch it after and you don't want them to' (Gp3_S5). In response to this, another student declares 'no-one should be able to watch you, like (Gp3_S3) says'. Considering this suggestion, another student asks 'and the teacher?'. The emphatic reply given is 'Nooooo, the teacher no' (several voices).

The in-depth discussion analysed above was recorded on audio with the consent of the children. Their consent was not given immediately, however, but only after the researcher had justified her reasons for recording their conversation. Their initial response to seeing the recording device was negative, with both verbal ('no') and non-verbal (facial gestures) expressions indicating their disaccord. The researcher explained that she had a very bad memory and wanted to be able to remember their comments; 'nobody else will listen to this, only me'. Having received this explanation, the children gave their consent and recording commenced. Children were actively encouraged to express their views, even when these appeared to be

controversial, as in the example given at the end of the previous paragraph. The idea that the student and not the teacher should have the final word on who watches video recordings was received with surprise by some students, whose whispered responses and facial expressions suggested that the idea may have been imprudent or even insolent. Hearing their teacher respond thoughtfully that 'we could look at trying to do it that way next year' removed the tension and encouraged them to continue sharing ideas. Continuing the debate referred to earlier concerning the uncertainty around how the recordings were going to be used, a child raised concerns related to the infringement of image rights:

> I don't know, really. I mean cause the camera intimidates you. But then again… I don't know. I mean we are *people,* you know. And with the camera it's like, you know that someone's going to watch you and you don't want that. (Gp3_S5)

By placing significant emphasis on the word 'people', the child vindicates their rights as individuals and exposes the infringement which occurs when information is withheld from them. They may not want to be watched ('you don't want that', Gp3_S5), but until now they have had no say in the matter and have had to accept it as a classroom practice directed by the teacher. This is reinforced strongly at the beginning of the debate, when one child answers emphatically that he does not like being recorded and feels uncomfortable watching himself, but goes along with it 'if that's what I have to do' (Gp3_S8).

Discussion

The effects of self-viewing and camera presence on EFL learning

Pupil satisfaction & self-reflection

Findings from this study suggest that watching own performance on video recordings encourages self-reflection, but that this reflection tends to be negative, generating overly critical and potentially debilitating attitudes to language learning. The lack of calibration

between teacher and pupil assessment of performance and the low levels of willingness to repeat the experience in students who viewed recordings suggests a potentially demotivating effect on EFL learning. The school's decision to stop recording sessions pending results of the study highlights the need to 'identify and manage contextual factors that impact on students' willingness to communicate in language classes (Shao & Gao, 2016) and that may be hindering or preventing learning' (Waddington, 2019).

Affective dimension

Notwithstanding the above, the findings that have emerged from the study are more nuanced than we imagined in relation to the question of whether self-viewing is in the children's best interest or not. Despite the discomfort and anxiety generated, children still recognise the potential value of self-viewing as a means of identifying areas for improvement. In this sense, the child voice supports findings of previous studies arguing for the need to develop ways of using video recordings in ways that do not reinforce a negative focus on error and encourage students to appreciate and recognise what they have done well (Broady & Le Duc, 2007). The proposal advanced by Gp3_S3 about watching himself, by himself, recalls earlier work on the use of language laboratories in the language learning process (Vanderlplank, 2010). Technological advancements over recent years and the availability of more resources (tablets, for example) could facilitate individual viewing or listening in classroom contexts while protecting and maintaining positive self-concepts that impact on language learning (Tragant, 2016; Williams et al., 2015) and emerging self-identities (Gkonou, 2017; Miyahara, 2015, Waddington 2019), and also avoiding the stressful effects associated with self-viewing (Jiang, 2020).

The child proposal about self-viewing aligns well with recommendations calling for careful planning and attention to the different steps involved in self-viewing procedures (Orlova,

2009). Although Orlova's recommendations are provided in the context of teacher training programmes, her observations are relevant to our present discussion. One of the first steps she emphasises is the need to discuss the process with all participants to ensure they conceive self-viewing as a tool rather than a punishment, and to reflect openly on what should be the main focus of attention during viewing. This point resonates strongly with the findings of our study, which show that uncertainty surrounding how recordings will be used can generate frustration and impotence in children ('you know someone's going to watch you and you don't want that', Gp3_S5) or the sense that you have to do what you are told, however much discomfort it may cause ('if that's what I have to do', Gp3_S8). The contrast between the compliance shown by children in class, and their revelations during the in-depth discussion, calls to mind García's critique of the tendency for classrooms to perpetuate power relations that exclude voices and prioritise the consolidation of power and creation of 'governable subjects' (2021, p. 152). From this perspective, Orlova's emphasis on the need to discuss viewing processes with participants is as relevant for children as it is for adults and could reduce the risk of disengagement from learning that can occur when children's views are not taken into account (McIntyre, Pedder, & Rudduck, 2005; Rudduck & McIntyre, 2007; Rudduck, n.d.).

Self-assessment and corrective feedback

Findings show that self-viewing increased levels of self-reflection, but that self-assessments tended to be negative and inconsistent with teacher appraisals of their performance. Results of the child consultation have revealed interesting findings which could help to maximise the potential benefits of self-viewings in the EFL classroom and to encourage positive corrective feedback. Combining child views and expert recommendation on self-viewing procedures (Orlova, 2009), the self-reflection rubric presented in Figure 4 suggests an approach which focuses first and foremost on general performance - identifying positive aspects related to overall communication, emphasising paralinguistic features and the importance of interaction

with others – before guiding learners towards corrective work on language. Applying such a focused approach could encourage students to work together constructively to help develop their capacity for self-reflection, comparing their own views with those of their peers and their teachers, and having a clear objective in mind when self-viewing.

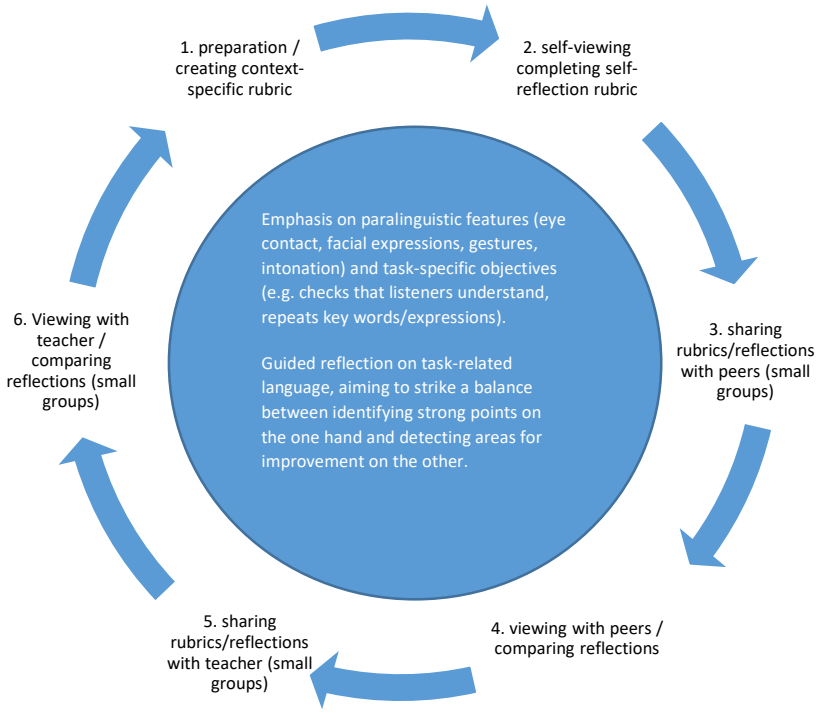

Figure 4. Self-reflection rubric itemising step-by-step areas to focus on. Own design incorporating child voice.
Source: own elaboration.

Notwithstanding adaptations, findings indicate that some students may remain averse to being recorded and/or viewing themselves, as detected in previous studies with older children and young adults (Kotula, 2015; Broady & Le Duc, 2007; Gong et al., 2018). Avoiding a 'one-size-fits-all' approach is therefore essential, and teachers will need to weigh up all factors to make the most appropriate decisions within their own specific contexts. Considering the potentially negative impact on students, the findings of our study support the argument that recording and viewing should be done on a voluntary basis (Orlova, 2009).

Child consent

The step-by-step approach to self-viewing proposed in Figure 4 has emerged by integrating child consultation intro classroom practice (Flutter & Rudduck 2003; MacBeath, Demetriou, Rudduck, & Myers 2003; Pollard & Triggs 2000) and engaging children in in-depth conversations about an issue that matters to them (McIntyre, Pedder, & Rudduck, 2005; Rudduck & McIntyre, 2007). Their insights have informed future practice in their school (Lundy, 2013) and raised awareness among teachers of the potentially negative effects of using video recordings without informing children of their purpose and obtaining their consent to use them. The assertion that 'we are people, you know' resonates strongly with researchers advocating ethically symmetrical approaches (Mhic Mhathú & Hayes, 2021; Christensen and Prout, 2002), in which all voices are listened to, and calls into question institutional power relations which have tended to prioritise adult voices over children's (Pinter, 2021).

Integrating consultation processes in the foreign language classroom requires careful thinking about the language used during data collection and the effect that speaking or not speaking the child's language can have on their ability and/or willingness to speak, and on the data collection and interpretation process (Mhic Mhathú & Hayes, 2021). In this sense, the explicit code-switch which occurred at the start of the in-depth interview was essential to obtain the child perspective by allowing them to exercise full agency (Schwartz, Kirsch, & Mortini, 2020; Schwartz 2021). While this meant that a good part of the English class was conducted in Catalan, the result of the switch generated interactions focusing on the whole child (Cummins, 2000; 2021; Hemphill & Blakely, 2021) and drawing on their full linguistic repertoire (García 2021; García & Wei, 2014). According to these authors, this not only promotes a more socially just classroom environment, but also impacts positively on their learning in general, and their disposition towards the foreign language.

Recommendations to interpret child voice as situated within interactional and institutional norms (Pinter 2021) can help to analyse the contradictory views offered when children were

asked if they would recommend using videos with their younger peers. They justify their decision that it would be a good idea by suggesting it would help them 'do it better' and 'correct their mistakes'. In this sense, their responses appear to be framed within institutional norms or goals which focus on academic betterment. This contrasts sharply, however, with the preferences they express when speaking for themselves, supporting the concerns advanced by Mayes, Finneran and Black (2019) about representativity when some students speak on behalf of others.

Finally, strategies drawn from general qualitative research literature have helped to prioritise the child voice by maximising opportunities for expression. Adopting the 'naïve approach' recommended by Taylor at al. (2016, p. 121) encouraged children to participate more and share more information. This meant responding with comments such 'Ok. I *think* I understand', as opposed to assuming a more authoritative or formal voice. Other strategies included slowing the pace down and allowing for pauses to encourage maximum participation, and also maximising non-verbal communication, including eye contact to moderate turn-taking. When children struggled to find precise terminology (as in the example of Gp3_S5 checking the word 'intimidate'), they were given the necessary support to be able to articulate their ideas. Our interpretation of the findings has also taken into account non-verbal communication, including laughter, whispers, facial expressions, and even the silences produced during key moments of the in-depth discussion, which Lewis (2009) calls on us to respect and listen to.

Conclusion

The findings discussed above have helped to explore the effects of self-viewing and camera presence on EFL learning from the child's perspective. Results have highlighted potentially negative results on children's willingness to participate in EFL classes which could hinder learning and impact negatively on self-concepts and emerging identities (Tragant, 2016;

Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2015; Gkonou, 2017; Miyahara, 2015, Waddington 2019). These results confirm the benefits of consulting children on matters which affect them (McIntyre, Pedder, & Rudduck, 2005; Rudduck & McIntyre, 2007) and illustrate how consultation can inform teachers (Lundy 2013) and lead to the co-design of more effective practice. While these results cannot be generalised beyond this context, we feel that they are relevant enough to merit further research in other settings and to prompt teachers in different contexts to carry out their own consultations, particularly given the increasing use of video recordings in education.

To some extent, our results have been facilitated by the study context, insofar as child voice is already valued in this educational setting, with child consultation being included within the school ethos. Notwithstanding this general ethos, incorporating consultation in the foreign language classroom has sometimes been neglected or overlooked due, to a certain degree, to the English-only approach adopted in class in line with current policies and practice. This begs the question of how much child voice is excluded from the foreign language classroom when children are not given the opportunity to express their views in the language they feel confident in. If lack of linguistic competence can prevent children from participating in consultation processes in their first language (Rudduck, n.d.), the potential exclusion of child voice is magnified further when the language they are called on to use is a foreign language.

Child consultation processes are considered to be a fundamental element to guarantee the rights of the child inscribed in Article 12 of the United Nations Convention (United Nations, 1989), and the explicit 'right of the child to be heard' (United Nations 2009, p. 1). In line with Lundy (2013), we believe that, once heard, children's voices can also influence educational practice in positive ways, reducing the risk of disengagement from learning (McIntyre, Pedder, & Rudduck, 2005; Rudduck & McIntyre, 2007, Rudduck, n.d.) and concerns related to emerging self-concepts and identities identified in this paper. We hope these findings raise awareness of the need to include child voice in educational practice. We also hope the findings may

contribute to re-evaluating children's rights to privacy and data protection in both research and school practice.

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