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and

California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo

Social Learning Theory and the Use of Instructional Videos in Three Alternative High Schools

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

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in

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by

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DEDICATION

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ABSTRACT

Social Learning Theory and the Use of Instructional Videos in Three Alternative High Schools

by

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This study aimed to discover teacher views and opinions regarding the use of instructional videos in alternative high schools. The literature traces Social Learning Theory from Vygotsky and Piaget to Bandura and then discusses self-efficacy. The study highlights three building blocks of Social Learning Theory: collaboration, modeling, and observation.

The study used purposeful sampling to identify eight teachers from primarily three different alternative high schools as the participants. The first high school used a military cohort model where male and female students are separated, students live on the premises, and there is limited external contact with family and friends. The other two high schools were based on a traditional school format, were coed, students did not live on the premises, and, outside of the classroom, students were allowed external contact with family and friends.

The study collected data from pre-interview questionnaires, open-ended interviews, quantitative analysis of the transcripts using key words and acceptable alternatives, and four classroom observations.

Teachers viewed their use of instructional videos as promoting learning in a few different ways. Instructional videos served to complement existing lessons,

enhance and act as an aid to serve more visual learners and support group collaboration and group projects.

Teachers viewed instructional video as facilitating learning by providing a link to real-time events and current life experiences. Instructional video addressed multiple dimensions of learning and is a familiar source of information for today's young generation.

Teachers viewed affordances to their use of instructional videos as including district support for equipment, teacher training and access to data. Constraints reported included lack of equipment, inadequate online digital information access and differences in perceived teaching philosophies. An important factor in affordances and constraints was the academic climate of the individual school settings.

Teachers viewed the use of instructional videos for encouraging construction of knowledge by providing a readily accessible foundation for collaboration and application of critical thinking skills. Interactive learning activities including online video-based exercises and student-generated video productions are examples.

Keywords: Alternative High Schools, Instructional Videos, Social Learning Theory, Self-Efficacy.

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CHAPTER 1

The Problem

Today's schools are challenged to provide a teaching and learning environment that provides students with the necessary skills to succeed in school and society. During the last two decades, a transformation of teaching practices in schools has moved from teacher-centered pedagogies to a learner-centered focus for acquisition of skills and knowledge (Burr, 2003; De La Ossa, 2005).

Learner-centered activities include: (a) Students are involved in more than listening, (b) Instruction emphasizes the development of students' skills more than just transmitting information, (c) Students develop higher order thinking skills (analysis, synthesis, evaluation), (d) Students are engaged in activities (reading, discussing, writing), and (d) Students explore their own attitudes and values (Bonwell & Eison, 1991, p.2).

As such, students are now engaged in creating knowledge within their social environments. The Social Learning Theory is widely accepted as one basis for this teaching and learning environment (Bandura, 1977; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993). The Social Learning Theory framework is well suited as a foundation for current educational teaching philosophies and practices (Bandura, 1977; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993). Social Learning Theory is a concept that underscores that learning is a collaborative and social process

where individuals within a group develop understanding and meaning through discourse between the teacher and students and between the students themselves (Bandura, 1977; Burr, 2003; Gergen, 2009; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Gouran, 1974; Moll, 2001; Oser & Baeriswyl, 2001; Palincsar, 1988; Richardson, 2000).

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' views and use of instructional videos as applied within the Social Learning Theory. The decisions made by leaders help shape action how lessons are taught in determining what professional development takes place for teachers and related staff (Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2007; Latham & Saari, 1979). Instructional videos in the classroom are changing the learning landscape (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1963; Latham & Saari, 1979; Norman, Collins & Schuster, 2001; Ross & Ross 1961; Van Laarhoven & Van Laarhoven-Myers, 2006; Young, Boris, Thomson, Martin, & Yu 2012). For example, lessons given with the aid of moving images and sound have been indicated an effective learning tool (Atkinson, 2002; Mayer, 2003; Mayer, Dow, & Mayer, 2005).

Teacher-centered pedagogies are defined as teaching practices that rely on the teacher to present, model, and be primarily responsible for the dissemination of information to students. Students are expected to receive

the information and develop understanding as individuals (Moll, 2001; Oser & Baeriswyl, 2001; Palincsar, 1988). In a *learner-centered pedagogy*, by contrast, the teacher acts as a mediator for learners and not as a sole provider of educational information (Moll, 2001; Oser & Baeriswyl, 2001; Palincsar, 1988). Teacher-mediated teaching practices support a learner-centered approach to teaching and learning, while encouraging students to develop communication and knowledge acquisition skills that provide a more self-directed method of developing understanding (Burr, 2003; Moll, 2001; Oser & Baeriswyl, 2001; Palincsar, 1988). Teacher mediated practices provide an active and experiential approach for the student learning process (Michel, Cater, & Varela, 2009). The creation of an environment that allows the student to be responsible for their own learning process allows for students with different learning styles to learn in the way that best suits them (Hackathorn, Solomon, Blankmeyer, Tennial, & Garczynski, 2011).

The transition from teacher-centered to learner-centered pedagogies has become more pronounced since the advent of standards-based testing requirements (Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2007). Instructional design and practice that rely mostly on teacher modeling and reinforcement of understanding directed at the learner has arguably brought the Social Learning Theory principles and practices into the forefront of education (Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2007; Kozulin, 2004). Classroom practices designed to encourage students to be responsible for their own construction

of knowledge and understanding by working with their peers are being widely accepted as necessary to establish critical thinking and problem solving skills (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Kozulin, 2004; Mayer, 2005). This acquisition of knowledge is the result of social interaction between the teacher and the students and between the students themselves as they discuss what is being presented. The social interaction becomes an important component of the learning process as learners interact with the teacher and themselves (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Kozulin, 2004; Mayer, 2005).

There is a challenge, however, in applying theoretical concepts to actual classroom practices (Burr, 2003; Moll, 2001). Learning theories are often framed in an ideal context and may not take into account situational constraints and challenges (Burr, 2003; Moll, 2001). Applying theoretical concepts to practice in the classroom can prove difficult for teachers who must take into account the dynamic interactions of situational constraints and challenges (Burr, 2003). Learning theories however, provide a framework for development of teaching methods but do not dictate exactly what practices are best for teaching. This difficulty in translating theoretical concepts into practice is of major interest in this study.

Teacher views and use of instructional videos was explored through the framework of Social Learning Theory to examine how educational videos are used, what type of teaching philosophy they are used in conjunction with, and what constraints and challenges exist. Ideally, instructional video can,

and should, be based upon Social Learning Theory to get the full benefits of social interaction.

Background and Problem

In this section, theories are introduced that deal with the relationship between social and cognitive factors working in tandem and were further developed from theorists such as Lev Vygotsky and Albert Bandura (Bandura, 1977; Burr, 2003; Chih-Hsiung Tu, 2000; Cobb, 1996; Gergen, 2009; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Kim, 2001; Kozulin, 2004; Moll, 2001; Palincsar, 1988; Rosenstock & Strecher, 1988; Stetsenko & Arievitch, 1997; Tudge & Winterhoff,1993; Vygotsky, 1978, 1998; Wertsch & Tulviste,1992).

Lev Vygotsky is credited with the actual conception of the Social Learning Theory with his origination of the Social Development Theory. Vygotsky's concept of human learning was founded on the belief that "human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 84). This concept rested on the notion that children can do more with others than what they can do alone. They are capable of a higher level of learning when engaging in a collective activity with others or under the guidance of adults (Vygotsky, 1978). This theory posited that learning is a lifelong process and was dependent on social interaction for learning and cognitive development.

Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory. Vygotskian principles challenged widely accepted views of cognitive development at the time. Vygotsky's theory contrasted the more popular views of cognitive development such as the Cognitive Development Theory of Jean Piaget. Piaget emphasized biological determinants as the basis for developmental growth that he formulated into his cognitive stages of development theory (Piaget, 1965; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993).

According to Piaget, a child's "cognitive structure" is an intricate system of "mental maps," or concepts, which helps understanding of the world (Piaget, 1960; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993). This cognitive structure gradually develops into highly complex mental activities. Piaget's four developmental stages of cognitive growth are: (a) sensorimotor stage (age of 2): two-year-olds build concepts through interaction with parents and/or caretaker(s); (b) preoperational (from 2 to 7 years old): the child needs to relate to concrete objects and/or people (mom, dad, table, dog; ball, football, etc.); at this stage, the child is not able to understand abstract concepts; (c) concrete operations (7 to 11): the child is now able to conceptualize, that is, to develop logical structures; he/she is now able to deal with abstraction (such as arithmetic); (d) formal operations (11-15): by the time a child is 15, the child's cognitive structures are the same as an adult's; now he/she is able to use concepts and abstract reasoning (Piaget, 1960). Social interaction was acknowledged by Piaget but was not considered the most important

element of the learning process (DeVries, 1977; Piaget, 1949, 1965; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993).

Vygotsky argued that development was an ongoing social process to be analyzed and not a product defined by any specific physiological stages (Driscoll, 1994; Hausfather, 1996; Riddle & Daggagh, 1999). Vygotsky's Social Development Theory was later expanded by Bandura (1977) to become the Social Learning Theory. Vygotsky and Piaget developed their theories at approximately the same time during the 1920s and 1930s, however, Vygotsky died at the age of 38 before completing much of his research (DeVries, 1977; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993). Although Vygotsky's work originated in the early 20th century, it has recently drawn much attention (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1997). Vygotsky's early demise and the delayed translation from Russian publications resulted in a delayed response from scholars regarding his work (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1997). Vygotsky made significant contributions to the study of developmental psychology and the practice of teaching that have influenced many researchers, such as Bandura, to further investigate Social Learning theories (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1997).

Bandura's Social Learning Theory emphasizes the prominent roles played by vicarious, symbolic, and self-regulatory processes in physiological functioning (Bandura, 1977, p. vii). Bandura stated, "In the social learning view, people are neither driven by inner forces nor buffeted by environmental

stimuli. Rather, psychological functioning is explained in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction of personal and environmental determinants" (p. 11). Social Learning Theory differed from the earlier Social Development Theory of Vygotsky by placing more emphasis on modeling, observational, and vicarious learning (Bandura, 1977). Modeling and observational learning occur when a student sees another person demonstrate certain behaviors and imitates those behaviors. Vicarious learning occurs when a student sees certain real or depicted events and learns from those events without having directly experienced the event. For example, a student can watch a video of an unsafe situation and vicariously learn from that situation without being in harm's way. Bandura's research was also based on experimental designs whereas Vygotsky was more of a theoretical thinker (Bandura, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1963a; Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1963b; Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1964; Kozulin, 1986, 2004).

The original Bandura Social Learning Theory principles are the foundation for this research. Early research conducted by Bandura centered on the Social Learning Theory concepts that revolved around collaboration, including modeling and observation (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec & Menlove, 1966). Bandura's original research involved young children and can only be linked to adolescents tenuously; however, later studies evolving

around the constructs of the Social Cognitive Theory and Self-efficacy apply to any age group (Bandura, 1994,1995,1997).

The Social Cognitive Theory indicates that human functioning is a cognitive and self-regulatory process of human development wherein people are self-organizing and proactive and not just organisms shaped by external, environmental factors (Bandura, 1986). The construct of self-efficacy is important within the Social Cognitive Theory framework. Bandura (1994) defines perceived self-efficacy as:

> people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce these diverse effects through four major processes. They include cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes (Bandura, 2006, 1994).

Social Learning Theory constructs remain the primary theme directing this research. Social Learning Theory became widely embraced and continues to be recognized as an effective learning theory that can influence and transform teaching practices (Chih-Hsiung Tu, 2000; Gergen, 2009; Mayer, 2005; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Kim, 2001; Kozulin, 2004; Moll, 2001; Shepard, 2000). Bandura's Social Learning Theory specifically

acknowledges that student developmental processes are directly influenced by observation and the creation of symbols meaningful to their experience. A symbol is something that stands for or suggests something else; it conveys socially constructed means beyond its intrinsic or obvious functional use (Bolman & Deal, 2008, citing Zott & Huy, 2007). Moreover, the theory suggests that people manipulate the stimuli they experience to bring meaningful order to their thoughts (Latham & Saari, 1979).

This study analyzed teachers' perceptions of their use of instructional videos within a Social Learning Theory framework.

Research Questions

This study was be guided by the following research questions:

1. What are teachers' descriptions of their use of instructional video between teacher and student (and among students) to promote learning?
2. What are teachers' views of how instructional videos may (or may not) facilitate learning?
3. What are teachers' views of facilitators and constraints to their use of instructional video?
4. What are views of the use of video to encourage student responsibility for their own construction of knowledge and student social interaction?

Overview of Method

The purpose of this study was to analyze teachers' views of their use of instructional videos from the perspective of Social Learning Theory. Furthermore, the study explored how videos might lend themselves as a mediating agent within the social learning paradigm. A video acts as a mediating agent when it creates an environment that allows the student to be responsible for his or her own learning process (King, 1993). What elements of Social Learning Theory were present in teachers' descriptions of the use of instructional videos and what were the situational constraints and challenges?

The research goal explores how teachers use instructional videos within a Social Learning Theory framework to facilitate teaching and learning. An important component of this study is to investigate teacher perceptions of how educational leaders influence the use of instructional videos and pedagogical approaches.

The participants for this study were recruited from three alternative high schools in California. One alternative high school served a wide range of students considered "at risk" due to prior school and legal issues (including substance misuse problems) and was a residential, paramilitary establishment. Two other schools served students who were having difficulties succeeding academically and were unable to attend regular high schools. Alternative high schools are generally student-centered learning

environments that are characterized by providing students who are at risk of failing in a regular high school with a program that is tailored to meet the needs of a specific student population (De La Ossa, 2005). Thus, alternative high schools appear to provide a student-centered environment.

Teachers were selected based upon a purposeful sample (Creswell, 2009). The inclusion criteria included: (1) teacher, (2) who uses instructional videos in the classroom, and (3) were able to participate within the time-frames of this study. Semi-structured interviews were utilized to explore teacher descriptions of the use of instructional videos within the Social Learning Theory framework (Kavle, 1996). Semi-structured interviews have a sequence of themes to be covered with the participant; yet there is openness and flexibility to changes based upon participant input and follow up questions (Barriball & While, 1994; Brenner, 2006; Kvale, 2009). The purpose of using semi-structured interviews is to “understand themes of the lived daily world from the subjects’ own perspectives” (Kvale, 1996, p. 27, 2009).

A focus of this study was to investigate existing new classroom trends that are gaining momentum in education and using these studies as benchmarks. One example is the advent of the ‘Flipped Classroom,’ where students take home instructional videos created by teachers as homework (Thompson, 2011). Instructional videos are being used in ‘Flipped

Classrooms' in ways that appear beneficial and have provided valuable insight into this study (Carpenter & Pease, 2012; Keene, 2013).

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided to ensure uniformity and understanding of these terms throughout the study.

Alternative High Schools: Schools specifically with an educational setting to accommodate educational, behavioral, and/or medical needs of children and adolescents that cannot be adequately addressed in a traditional school environment (Fuller & Sabatino, 1996).

Learner-Centered Pedagogies: Teaching practices that allow the learner to develop understanding and knowledge with a minimum of teacher direct-instruction (Burr, 2003; De La Ossa, 2005).

Self-Efficacy: People's beliefs in their capability to produce a desired effect as a result of their actions (Bandura, 1977, 1978, 2000, 2002, 2005)

Social Cognitive Theory: States that learners develop cognitive skills within a social community (Bandura, 1986; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993).

Social Development Theory: Theory developed by Lev Vygotsky that focused on connections between people and the cultural context of their actions and interactions with others in shared experiences as the process where cognitive learning occurs (Vygotsky, 1978).

Social Learning Theory: Theory developed by Albert Bandura that people learn and make meaning within a social context (Bandura, 1977; Chih-Hsiung Tu, 2000; Kozulin, 2004).

Teacher-Centered Pedagogies: Teaching practices that rely on the teacher to present, model and be primarily responsible for the dissemination of information to students (Burr, 2003).

Teacher mediated: Teacher assumes role as mediator for learners and not as sole provider of educational information (Moll, 2001; Oser & Baeriswyl, 2001; Palincsar, 1988).

Zone of Proximal Development: The zone where the actual level of development is determined by independent problem solving capabilities through the level of potential development when in a collaborative or adult mediated learning environment (Moll, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch & Sohmer, 1995; Wertsch & Tulviste, 1992;).

Research Ethics

Protection of the participants is the responsibility of the researcher (Brenner, 2006, p. 361). This study was conducted under the guidelines of the American Psychological Association Ethical Principles (APA, 2002), the American Educational Research Association (AERA, 2000), and was consistent with policy promulgated by the Human Participants Committees at the University of California, Santa Barbara. Participants in this study were identified by the use of pseudonyms in order to protect their confidentiality. School sites are also identified by pseudonyms. See Appendix A for UCSB Human Participants approval and Appendix B for the Informed Consent form. The letters of the pseudonyms do not correspond to the participant's real name.

Chapter Summary

There is a new wave of how instructional videos can and are being used within the classroom. For example, learner-centered teaching practices such as incorporating the 'Flipped Classroom', indicate a deliberate movement towards student-centered instruction (Thompson, 2011). The question remains as to how teachers in alternative schools use videos in education within a Social Learning Theory framework. Instructional video has been and remains a part of the landscape and has changed over time (De Luca, 1991). This investigation of teacher use of, and attitudes towards,

instructional videos in the classroom may facilitate better understanding of the role of this medium in education.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 2 is a review of related literature. Chapter 3 provides the framework for the collection and analysis of the data. Chapter 4 presents the results of the data collection efforts. Chapter 5 discusses the study findings and presents implications for theory and practice and a conclusion.

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Related Literature

The purpose of this chapter is to review the select literature and research on instructional videos, Social Learning Theory and the construct of Self-efficacy and Learner-Centered Teaching. The chapter starts by reviewing literature on the use of instructional videos in classrooms, continues by reviewing Vygotsky's contribution to Social Development Theory and Bandura's Social Learning Theory, including the constructs of Social Cognitive Theory and Self-efficacy. The chapter concludes by summarizing these concepts as a way to frame the data collection efforts mentioned in Chapter 3.

Use of Instructional Videos

Background. Instructional videos have been used for education since the medium of moving pictures was conceived (Cuban, 1986). Advantages of instructional videos include learning about content that is impractical or impossible to bring into the classroom yet allows the learner to vicariously experience objects, people, places, thoughts and feelings (Bandura, 1962). Using instructional videos also reduces the need for the learner to experience the potential negative consequences of having to learn by doing (De Luca, 1991). Instructional video can be used to motivate, reinforce,

stimulate and promote student learning while concurrently promoting critical thinking skills and discussion (Bandura, 1997; Hobbs, 2006).

Children live in a world of mass media where they get much of their information from television and video materials (Buckingham, 2003). In the 1920s the first filmstrips were introduced to schools soon followed by documentary and non-fiction educational films (Cuban, 1986). Teachers have used television and fictional films as well to enhance teaching of subjects such as language arts, social studies and history (Weller & Burcham, 1990). Teachers can easily access films and video, find it easy to integrate into their curriculum, and use a variety of teaching styles when doing so (Ajex, 1999).

Research. Bandura (1962) conducted numerous studies on the use of film and child development with a special emphasis on the processes of modeling and observation. One of Bandura's most recognized studies that incorporated the use of films was on the imitative responses of children that observed depictions of various acts of aggression and non-aggression in similar settings (Do, 2011; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964). In this experiment, children viewed short films depicting an adult behaving aggressively towards an inflatable "Bobo" doll. A separate group of children were exposed to a film of the adult behaving non-aggressively, while a control group of children viewed neither film. Afterwards, each group of subjects was placed in a setting that contained the same doll. The

experiment demonstrated that examples portrayed on the films had a direct impact on the children's behavior, with the children imitating the viewed behaviors in accordance with the films viewed. As noted, children who viewed the aggressive behaviors behaved aggressively in the same setting while non-aggressive viewers behaved non-aggressively. Further studies demonstrated similar effects on children's learning of social behaviors through the use of film (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964).

Ausubel, Novak, and Hanes (1978) found that positive results of student engagement are dependent however on teacher choices and understanding of objectives when using video. Hobbs (2006) conducted a six-year study of video use in the classroom. The study focused on the non-optimal use of video by teachers in the classroom. Surveys and interviews were used to collect data that was used to construct a typology of problematic teaching patterns that recurred when using instructional video.

One discovery made by Hobbs was that only 6% of teachers made an effort to use video as a segue for group discussion, discourse, and learner-centered practices (Hobbs, 2006). This lack of use might be compounded by a lack of professional development on the use of instructional videos and minimal school policies guiding video use. There is a scarcity of research on school policies specifically aimed at use of instructional videos in the classroom (Steven, 2001).

Latham and Saari (1979) conducted studies on the training of supervisors with the use of film that indicated its beneficial outcomes as a teaching and learning tool. The researchers based much of their research on Social Learning Theory concepts involving observational learning. The concept of observational learning is evident in the research conducted by Bandura (previously discussed) and clearly indicates the potential use of instructional video as an educational medium that fits well within the Social Learning Theory framework.

Current educational trends are providing new insights on the use of instructional videos, both inside of and outside of the classroom. The availability of electronic online media is already being used successfully for educational purposes and instructional video plays an important role in this medium. One popular new strategy and practice is the implementation of the 'flipped classroom' (Herreid & Schiller, 2013). The 'flipped classroom' is an approach that may be well suited for using tenets of Social Learning Theory in conjunction with instructional videos to provide a learner-centered, group collaboration and interaction setting. The 'flipped classroom' approach is also specifically intended to facilitate more time for teachers to work with students and allows them to spend less time explaining lessons (Herreid & Schiller, 2013). One criticism of flipped classrooms is that some faculty may not know how to flip classrooms correctly (Bonhomme, 2014).

In the ‘flipped classroom,’ video lectures can be assigned to students as homework, leaving class time open for interactive learning activities (Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Parslow, 2012; Thompson, 2011). In the ‘flipped classroom’ an inversion in teaching practices occurs wherein students receive introductory materials, such as lectures, at home and reserve class time to perform what would normally be considered homework (Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Parslow, 2012; Thompson, 2011). The flipped classroom offers the following advantages (Fulton, 2012):

(a) students move at their own pace;

(b) doing “homework” in class gives teachers better insight into student difficulties and learning styles;

(c) teachers can more easily customize and update the curriculum and provide it to students 24/7;

(d) classroom time can be used more effectively and creatively;

(e) teachers using the method report seeing increased levels of student achievement, interest, and engagement;

(f) learning theory supports the new approaches; and,

(g) the use of technology is flexible and appropriate for “21st century learning”

In a survey study conducted by Herreid and Schiller (2013) of the approximately 15,000 members of the National Center for Case Study Teaching in Science Listserv, 200 reported having flipped their classrooms.

This survey involved only college level science teachers; however it indicated a pattern applicable to other grade levels or subjects. The flipped classrooms allowed teachers reportedly to have more time working with students. In addition, students had more opportunities to use in-class equipment and tools and educational videos that were already a component of the curriculum and could be viewed at home (Herreid & Schiller, 2013). Instructional video sources are also becoming abundant online. Quality educational videos can also be found at web sites such the Khan Academy (2014) and BozemanScience (2014).

Summary. Instructional videos appear to be a valuable resource to teachers (Hobbs, 2006). Teachers can use instructional videos to readily integrate instructional strategies into the curriculum and use a variety of teaching styles when doing so (Ajex, 1999). Advantages of instructional videos include the ability to learn vicariously and experience objects, people, places thoughts and feelings without the potential risks of negative consequences of having to learn by doing (Bandura, 1977; De Luca, 1991). Instructional video can be used to motivate, reinforce, stimulate, and promote student students' learning while concurrently promoting critical thinking skills and discussion (Bandura, 1997; Hobbs, 2006).

Research conducted by Bandura (1962) was on the use of films and the imitative responses of children that observed depictions of various acts of aggression and non-aggression in similar settings (Bandura, Ross, & Ross,

1963a, 1963b, 1964). Children who viewed the aggressive behaviors (treatment group) behaved aggressively when place in the same setting while non-aggressive viewers (control group) behaved non-aggressively. Further studies by Bandura on the transmission of aggression through observation of models and imitative behavior demonstrated similar effects on children's learning of social behaviors through the use of film (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1964).

Research by Hanley, Herron and Cole (1995) showed that instructional videos were an effective "advance organizer" to aid in learning a foreign language. The use of videos was presented as an introductory or "advance organizer" by the instructor for the teaching of new material to students. When video was used as an "advance organizer" in comparison with still images and lecture, instructional video appeared to be more effective. Test scores indicated better results with the use of video. Heron and Cole's (1992) research provided evidence that teacher implementation of learner-centered principles in conjunction with instructional video use had a positive outcome on student learning.

Teachers' use of instructional videos to promote group discussion, discourse and learner-centered practices was also investigated by Hobbs (2006) and indicated problematic uses of instructional videos. Hobbs (2006) found that only 6% of teachers studied made an effort to use video as means to engage in collaborative and socially interactive classroom activities.

Current educational trends for use of instructional videos are appearing that are proving popular such as the ‘flipped classroom’ (Herreid & Schiller, 2013). The ‘flipped classroom’ is designed to facilitate more face-to-face time for teachers with students and reverses the “traditional” sequences of lesson presentations, home study, and knowledge acquisition (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Bohhomme, 2014; Herreid & Schiller, 2013).

Social Development Theory

Vygotsky is often credited with developing the Social Development Theory in the 1930s. Social Development Theory is the basis for the current conception of Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky’s ideas were a radical shift from accepted developmental theories of the time and proposed that learning is a result more of social interactions than set stages of cognitive growth or biological development (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky’s Social Development Theory uses a socio-cultural approach to cognitive development (Bandura, 1977; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky’s research focused on the role of language in developmental theories (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Vygotsky & Kozulin, 1986.

Vygotsky believed cognitive skills and thought patterns are not innate but that they are socially acquired (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Vygotsky, advanced thought patterns are passed onto the child by means of words.

Vygotsky argued that the child had to be ready to make sense of these words and Vygotsky called this the Zone of Proximal Development (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978, 1987, 1997, 1998; Vygotsky & Kozulin, 1986.

The 'World View' of developmental psychology that existed during the early 20th century leaned towards the belief that the nature of development of theorists such as Vygotsky and Piaget were incompatible (DeVries, 1977; Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky criticized the then current views of psychology stating the differences between the different systems of psychology were so serious that they could be seen as representing different sciences rather than psychology alone (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978).

Vygotsky's original Social Development Theory stressed the role of social interaction in the process of cognitive development, and that community played a central in the process of constructing knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky argued that "learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized, specifically human psychological function" (1978, p. 90). The eventual construct of the Social Learning Theory, which is discussed in the next section, is a direct result of Vygotsky's work and is the foundation that this research is based upon.

Social Learning Theory

Background. Social Learning Theory is a framework that guides this research. Social Learning Theory postulates that individuals must internalize what is learned but that this only occurs socially and cannot be separated from its social context (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Kozulin, 1986, 2004; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Vygotsky, 1962, 1978, 1987, 1997, 1998; Vygotsky & Kozulin, 1986). Bandura's research (already described) (1962; see also 1977) is credited with developing the central tenets of Social Learning Theory. Bandura describes Social Learning Theory for explaining human behavior as “being neither driven by inner forces nor buffeted by environmental stimuli. Rather, psychological functioning is explained in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction among cognitive, behavioral and environmental determinants” (Bandura, 1977, p.11).

The fundamental tenets of Social Learning Theory ideology are not new to education and the notion that social interaction and exchange of personal experience within groups has long been a component of teaching and learning (Bandura, 1986; DeVries, 1997). Social Learning Theory principles have recently re-emerged as a basic foundation for pedagogical practices (Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Schneider, 2010). Within this literature review, current trends towards the use of Social Learning Theory that are likely compatible towards students being responsible for their own formation and development of knowledge are

examined (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Cornelius-White, 2007; Gergen, 2009; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Gouran, 1974; Hausfather, 1996; Kozulin, 2004; Latham & Saari, 1979; Meece, Herman, & McCombs, 2003; Moll, 2001; Palincsar, 1998).

A learner-centered approach to teaching leaning towards Social Learning Theory principles may facilitate the application of theory to practice. Learner-Centered teaching practices have emerged as a teaching framework designed to enhance student success by changes in teaching pedagogies that shift the focus from teacher's having the role of the *sage on the stage* to *the guide on the side* (King, 1993). In the Learner-Centered classroom, the student is an active player in the lesson and not just the recipient of information (King, 2003).

Applying theoretical principles to actual classroom use is a challenging endeavor. Tudge and Winterhoff (1993) point out that:

> Empirical research and the theory being studied do not necessarily mesh. How theories have been operationalized in research may not reflect the complexity of the theories themselves. This fact is perhaps not surprising, given that few pieces of empirical research are intended to test more than a few hypotheses derived from the theory on which the research is based (p.71).

Research. Teacher awareness and understanding of theoretical principles being used within the classroom are likely to affect teaching

practices and the teaching philosophies they develop. Schinke-Llano (1993) found that teachers structured learning activities for grades five and six Limited English Proficiency students with significantly more teacher-centered practices than non-Limited English Proficiency students. Teachers may inadvertently hamper students' ability to master skills because of the perceived effort to regulate activities rather than mediate activities.

Akers (1979) conducted research on the value of Social Learning Theory as a tool to understanding deviant behaviors in adolescents. The study focused on theoretical perspectives of societal factors and reactions to the problem of deviance and crime. Drug and alcohol abuse by adolescents were specifically targeted. The initial problem identified by the research team was the current shift away from sociological explanations for deviant behavior. More focus was given to corrective and punitive measures instead (Akers, 1979). The researchers felt there was a need to incorporate Social Learning Theory principles as the framework for research.

Akers (1979) aimed to find explanations for deviant behaviors through self-report questionnaires given to 3,065 male and female students in grades 7 through 12 in the Midwestern states. The primary variables to be considered were differential association, differential reinforcement, definitions and imitation that resulted in the use of specifically marijuana and alcohol (Akers, 1979). The findings supported the role of Social Learning Theory framework as a lens to investigate the nature and origins of problem

behaviors and indicated that the theory strongly supported in-depth investigation of adolescent deviant behaviors using Social Learning Theory principles. The variables studied accounted for a significant percentage of marijuana and alcohol use and abuse. The Akers (1979) study demonstrates that Social Learning Theory concepts are applicable and work well with questionnaire measurement and are useful for further research on other forms of problem behaviors.

Latham and Saari (1979) conducted a study involving Social Learning Theory concepts and practices used in conjunction with instructional videos. Forty supervisors were assigned to a training program designed to improve their interpersonal skills with employees. The instructional videos were designed based on the principles of Bandura's Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977).

The instructional videos were intended to improve employee conflict resolution skills through techniques such as (a) avoiding hostility, (b) listening openly, (c) restating issues being addressed for clarity, (d) acknowledging employee's viewpoint, (e) remaining non-defensive, and (f) arranging follow-up meetings. These guidelines were the basis for coding during this study (Latham & Saari, 1979).

The training sessions began with an introduction by the instructors followed by a film depicting a supervisor model effectively dealing with an employee situation. The film emphasized key points. Immediately after the

film, group discussions were held and role-playing exercises were conducted. The training program was found to have positive trainee reactions (Latham & Saari, 1979).

Trainee performance exceeded that of the supervisors on a learning test given 6 months after the training and on performance ratings one year later (Latham & Saari, 1979). The findings are significant and indicate that behavioral modeling presented through film combined with discussion and role-playing provided reciprocal interactions involving cognitive, behavioral, and environmental variables (Bandura, 1977).

One variation on the Social Learning theme is observational learning. Bandura (1977) expanded this definition to add that human thought, affect, and behavior are influenced by observation as well as by direct experience and that people use symbols to create, to communicate, to analyze conscious experience, and to engage actions with more foresight. Moreover, the theory states that people do not merely react to external influences but actually select, organize, and transform stimuli that impinge on them.

Bandura's inclusion of observational learning is of interest to this study because of his research on the role of observation in in the use of films and learning (Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1966). Bandura argued that learning would be difficult and hazardous if people had to personally experience every life lesson. Through vicarious observational learning, many potentially negative consequences can be avoided. Bandura believed that people learn

observationally through modeling rather than having to experience the potentially negative effects of their own actions (Bandura, 1977).

Summary. This section of the literature review investigates the developmental theories of Vygotsky and Bandura and how these theories have influenced current pedagogical practices within high school classrooms. Vygotsky's Social Development Theory challenged conventional beliefs during the 1930s regarding the fundamental processes of acquiring knowledge (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky argued that cognitive skills and thought patterns are not innate but that they are socially acquired, primarily through the use of words and may be reflected in current teaching philosophies (Vygotsky, 1978). Teacher beliefs regarding developmental psychology likely shape the teaching methods they employ in the classroom (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993).

Bandura (1977) is a contemporary theorist who developed the current Social Learning Theory being studied. Bandura expanded Vygotsky's Social Development Theory and included the components of observational learning and modeling (Bandura, 1977; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977). Observational learning and modeling of behaviors through film was studied by Bandura and emphasized the importance of imitative behaviors in the developmental process (Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1966). Bandura (1977) believed that people do not merely react to external influences but actually select, organize, and transform stimuli that impinge on them.

Each theorist and the developmental theories they framed were influential (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977; Vygotsky, 1978). The influence of Vygotsky and Bandura has resulted in a wide spectrum of pedagogical approaches for teachers to consider implementing into their lesson plans (Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977).

One limitation of Social Learning Theory is that Bandura's early studies focused on young children and not a wider range of ages that represent the population as a whole.

Self-Efficacy

Self-Efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1994). Self-Efficacy assists this study because a strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. People with high assurance approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided (Bandura, 1994).

Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be

mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities.

Bandura (1997) hypothesized that self-efficacy influenced the levels of effort, determination and persistence a student would expend when confronted with an educational task. Self-efficacy beliefs mirror the level of confidence an individual has about their ability to perform a given task. Bandura (1994) defines self-efficacy as:

> people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce these diverse effects through four major processes. They include cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes (Bandura, 2006, 1994).

An important component of Self-Efficacy is the process of self-regulation. Self-regulatory skills are necessary within the Social Cognitive Theory tenets. Skills regulating motivational, affective, and social determinants bring self-regulatory influences into play. One's self-regulatory skills regulate motivational and learning behaviors that ultimately determine students' beliefs about their own self-efficacy. A student with a strong sense and belief of efficacy in regulating their motivation and related learning activities are more likely to master academic subjects (Zimmerman, Bandura

& Martinez-Pons, 1992). Perceived academic efficacy promotes intellectual achievement and higher academic aspirations.

Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy measures are obtained from open-ended interviews and pilot questionnaires that probe participants' responses regarding how to surmount various impediments. The author of the study emphasizes that academic development is a collaborative process existing within a social system and cannot be construed as an isolated event for any individual student. Teachers and parents can teach skills for setting goals, tracking progress, and other skills to increase ones sense of self-efficacy. Collaborative self-efficacy exists among groups and organizations and will therefore affect efficacy scales. The need for such measurements is important to understanding the value of a psychological theory. Understanding self-efficacy and how it works provides increased opportunities that enable people to realize desired personal and social changes (Bandura, 319).

Bandura and Cervone (1983) explored the relationships between setting goals and receiving feedback in determining positive beliefs of one's self-efficacy. Both goals and feedback together provided positive results in creating motivation to succeed while setting goals without feedback, or receiving feedback without setting goals resulted in a lower degree of self-efficacy and motivation (Bandura & Cervone, 1983). According to Bandura, in earlier studies regarding social learning analysis, it is through a process of

internal comparison that a person develops motivation to perform (Bandura & Cervone, 1983). Feedback from performance provides immediate realization of where the bar is set when attempting to reach specific goals.

Research. Caprara, Fida, Vecchione, Del Bove, Vecchio, Barbaranelli and Bandura (2008) conducted a longitudinal analysis of Italian students on the role of perceived self-efficacy for self-regulated learning and the resulting affects on academic continuance and achievement. 412 students ranging in age from 12-22 were studied from junior to senior high school. The greater the level of perceived self-efficacy the higher the likelihood of remaining in high school and succeeding.

In an effort to measure perceived self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) has devised multiple scales that aim to measure the somewhat ambiguous phenomenon of how much one believes that they can do a specific task, particularly since self-efficacy beliefs are multifaceted and do not lend to any one size fits all formula of measure.

In Bandura's (2006) discussion regarding content validity, he points out the items in the measurement scale should be stated in terms of “can do” rather than “will do”. Can is a judgment of capability; will is a statement of intention. Self-efficacy is a belief of one's ability to do. It is also important that self-efficacy be distinguished from other constructs such as self-esteem and outcome expectancies. Self-esteem is a judgment of self-worth and not a

judgment of capability. Outcome expectancies are judgments of results and not of one's ability to perform a task (Bandura, 2006).

Summary. Individuals who have a lacking sense of self-efficacy, those who do not believe that they can accomplish a specific task for a desired outcome, have difficulty committing to goals requiring high aspirations and commitment. In contrast, people who have a high degree of self-efficacy put their energy and concentration towards problem solving, reaching set goals and eventual success in their endeavors (Bandura, 1993). Self-efficacy beliefs are developed through complex cognitive processes that include vicarious, social and physiological factors (Bandura, 1986).

Learner-Centered Teaching

Background. A current trend in educational philosophies lean towards teaching practices that focus on students being the source of knowledge creation and understanding and less on the teacher as the primary source of information (Cornelius-White, 2007; Gouran, 1974; Hackathorn, Solomon, Blankmeyer, Tennial, & Garczynski, 2007; Hirokawa & Poole, 1996; Kim, 2001; Kirschner, Sweller, & Clark, 2006; Meece, Herman, & McCombs, 2003; Michel, Cater, & Varela, 2009; Palincsar, 1998). Social Learning Theory can serve as a facilitator for implementing Learner-Centered Teaching pedagogies and provides a tenable lens to view and

analyze teacher practices in the classroom. Learner-centered practices involve students being actively engaged in learning and constructing meaning rather than just receiving it (McCombs & Whisler, 1997; Soloway, Jackson, Klein, Quintana, Reed, Spitulnik, Stratford, Studer, Eng, & Scala, 1996). Learner-centered education is defined by McCombs and Whisler (1997, p.9) as:

> The perspective that couples a focus on individual learners (their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs) with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning, and achievement for all learners). This dual focus, then, informs and drives educational decision-making.

The application of Social Learning Theory principles to support Learner-Centered Teaching pedagogies is one approach that may attract teachers to better facilitate learning and deeper understanding in high school classrooms. Together, the application of Social Learning Theory and Learner-Centered Teaching principles may be well adapted to use in conjunction with teaching tools available such as instructional video (Bandura, 1977; Latham & Saari, 1979). This research investigated the

potential use and actual use of instructional video in the high school classroom as used within Social Learning Theory and Learner-Centered Teaching constructs.

In a Teacher-Centered classroom, *traditional* teaching practices prevail where the teacher's role is to impart knowledge to students through activities such as lectures and reading assignments with minimal student involvement during the lesson resulting in a passive learning environment (Michel, Cater, & Varela, 2009). In contrast, learner-centered pedagogies are practiced through attention to individual developmental differences, encouragement for students to express themselves, providing appropriate challenges creating positive interpersonal relationships and teaching higher order thinking skills (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997). Figure 1 is a representation of how learner-centered pedagogies relate to each other.

Research. Research supports the efficacy of learner-centered designs. The ability for teachers to view their classroom environments as cultural entities that consist of unique communities of individuals and interact accordingly has been found to be significantly related to a large number of positive outcomes for students (Battistich, Solomon, Watson, & Schaps, 1997; Cornelius-White, 2007). A longitudinal meta-analysis conducted by Cornelius-White (2007) of learner-centered teacher-student relationships indicates there is optimal learning transpiring when teachers employ teaching

practices using the learner-centered model. The study focuses on teacher-related variables and places an emphasis on relational practices that "include teachers' honoring of students' voices, adapting to individual and cultural differences, encouraging learning, thinking, and having learner-centered beliefs" (p.115).

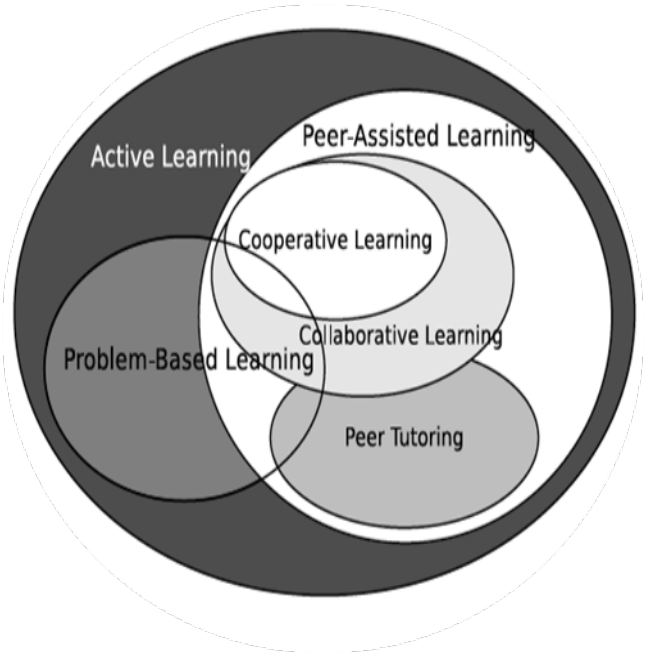

Figure 1. Relationships of learner-centered pedagogies. Source: Bishop and Verleger, 2013.

The meta-analysis conducted by Cornelius-White (2007) aimed to answer questions focusing on the degree of association of person-centered teacher variables, positive teacher-student relationships, effects of learner-centered sub-models being used in education and individual teacher

variables. All of these criteria were analyzed and factored into the degree of positive student outcomes for both cognitive and affective (behavioral) outcomes. What moderators might account for the variability of correlations between person-centered teacher variables and positive student outcomes were also analyzed.

Positive student outcomes were analyzed as a result of teacher practices that incorporated student-centered pedagogies. Methodological procedure for the study accounted for independent and dependent variables: both cognitive and affective or behavioral, of both students and teachers. Cognitive dependent variables included achievement batteries, grades/retention, perceived achievement, verbal achievement, math, science, social science, IQ, and creative/critical thinking. Affective variables included student participation/initiation, positive motivation, self-esteem/mental health, social connection, attendance/absences, global satisfaction, disruptive behavior, negative motivation, and dropout prevention. Moderator variables were concerned with sample qualities and methodological features. Teacher care and the relation to student learning (dependent and independent variables) were included.

Cornelius-White (2007) reviewed 119 studies from 1948-2004 involving approximately 35,325 students and 14,851 teachers from 2,439 schools in the United States, the Philippines, Brazil, Germany, the United Kingdom, and Canada. Grade levels ranged from pre-K through grade 20.

Overall, the meta-analysis findings demonstrated above average findings for levels of person-centered teacher variables with positive student outcomes. Student outcomes are relevant to this study primarily in context to the teaching philosophies and practices of teachers and their views regarding learner-centered teaching.

Summary. Learner-centered practices involve students being actively engaged in learning and constructing meaning throughout the learning process rather than just receiving information from an external source such as the teacher (McCombs & Whisler, 1997; Soloway, Jackson, Klein, Quintana, Reed, Spitulnik, Strarford, Studer, Eng, & Scala, 1996). In a teacher-centered classroom, traditional teaching practices prevail where the teacher's role is to impart knowledge to students with minimal student involvement (Michel, Cater, & Varela, 2009). In contrast to teacher-centered practices, learner-centered practices provide appropriate challenges and support to students providing a more self-directed method of developing understanding using higher order critical thinking skills (Battistich, Solomon, Watson, & Schaps, 1997; Burr, 2003; Cornelius-White, 2007; Moll, 2001; Oser & Baeriswyl, 2001; Palincsar, 1988).

Learner-centered pedagogies are interrelated and include active learning, peer-assisted learning, cooperative learning, collaborative learning, problem-based learning, and peer tutoring strategies (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). The implementation of these pedagogies into the curriculum is

supported by research conducted by Cornelius-White (2007). A meta-analysis was conducted that indicated positive student outcomes resulting from teacher practices that incorporated student-centered pedagogies.

Chapter Summary

Instructional videos can be used to motivate, reinforce, stimulate and promote student learning while concurrently promoting critical thinking skills and discussion (Bandura, 1997; Hobbs, 2006). Children live a world of mass media and have grown up with instructional video being integrated into their curriculum (Ajex, 1999). Use of instructional video fits well into the constructs of the Social Learning Theory and can successfully be used to facilitate group discussion, discourse and learner-centered practices (Hobbs, 2006).

Vygotsky (1978) created Social Development Theory based on the belief that children can do more with others than what they can do alone. They are capable of a higher level of learning when engaging in a collective activity with others or under the guidance of adults (Vygotsky, 1978). This theory posited that learning is a lifelong process and was dependent on social interaction for learning and cognitive development. The Social Development Theory is recognized as the precursor to Bandura's Social Learning Theory (1997).

Social learning theory is a perspective that states that people learn within a social context and is facilitated through concepts such as modeling

and observational learning (Bandura, 1977). Bandura conceptualized the Social Learning Theory to explain human behavior in terms of "a continuous reciprocal interaction among cognitive, behavioral and environmental determinants" (Bandura, 177 p.11). The Social Learning Theory rests on the notion that social interaction and exchange of personal experience within groups is a necessary component of teaching and learning (Bandura, 1986; DeVries, 1997).

Self-efficacy refers to people's beliefs in their capability to produce a desired effect as result of their actions (Bandura, 1977, 1978, 2000, 2002, 2005). Self-efficacy is concerned with people's perceived capability and relates to the terms of what a person believes they can do rather than must do. It is a statement of intent (2005). It is a belief in people's capability to produce a desired effect as a result of their actions (Bandura, 1977, 1978, 2000, 2002, 2005). Bandura is careful to distinguish self-efficacy from other constructs such as self-esteem. Efficacy is a perception of capability; self-esteem is a personal judgment of one's worth (2005).

Learner-centered teaching practices indicate a deliberate movement towards student-centered instruction (Thompson, 2011). Learner-centered practices involve students being actively engaged in learning and constructing meaning rather than just receiving it (McCombs & Whisler, 1997; Soloway, Jackson, Klein, Quintana, Reed, Spitulnik, Stratford, Studer, Eng, & Scala, 1996).

CHAPTER 3

Research Methodology

This chapter starts with a discussion of qualitative research and how it serves to answer the research questions. The chapter continues by describing the logic of the research design, the four types of data collection: pre-interview questionnaire, interviews, quantitative data from the interview transcripts, and observational data from participant classrooms, and the related data collection protocols. Finally, the chapter concludes by describing the interview data scoring protocols.

To better understand the use instructional videos within the Social Learning Theory framework, this study collected data from teachers at three alternative high schools using interviews. The data were analyzed using quantitative and qualitative methods.

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is beneficial and appropriate for the study of teachers' use of instructional videos because of the depth and detail of data it provides, the thick descriptions of teacher opinions and attitudes, situations, contexts, events, interactions, and behaviors found in high schools (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Klenke, 2008; Merriam, 2009). Each high school teacher has a story to tell, which also makes locally situated data

collection important to the study of Social Learning Theory (Flick, 2008). Teachers' perceptions are real experiences and those experiences are context dependent (Klenke, 1996).

Interviews. This study used semi-structured open-ended interviews to learn about and describe educational practices regarding the use of instructional videos in high schools (Brenner, 2006). Semi-structured interviews contain a sequence of themes to be covered during the interview; yet there is openness and flexibility to changes during the interview, based upon participant input and follow up questions (Barriball & While, 1994; Brenner, 2006; Kvale, 2009). The purpose of using interviews was to "understand themes of the lived daily world from the subjects' own perspectives" regarding instructional videos (Kvale, 1996, p. 27).

Study Design

Apparatus. All interviews were recorded on a Sony digital voice recorder, model number ICD-B-500 and an iPhone 5 as a redundant backup (Brenner, 2006).

Design. This study used a qualitative interview framework. The qualitative data collection consisted of an interview with seven high school teachers and one university instructor. A semi-structured interview was used for this study because it offered a balance between flexibility and control (Kvale, 2009). The flexibility of using an interview framework ensures the

voices of the participants were heard, and the control ensured the goals of the study were achieved (Brenner, 2006). The interview questions consisted of grand-tour-type questions to provide a context for the study. The participants answered the same set of interview questions, including (Brenner, 2006; Kvale, 1996, 2009; van Manen, 1990):

(a) A grand-tour question

(b) Mini-tour questions

(c) Teacher attitudes and opinions regarding instructional videos

(d) Demographic information

Materials. The materials for this study consisted of the following 8.5-by-11-inch sheets of papers:

(a) Participant informed consent form (Appendix B)

(b) Data collection protocol (p. 47)

(c) Interview questions (pp. 48-49)

Participating Schools. This study recruited participants from three alternative schools and one university. Alternative high schools serve student populations with existing legal and educational problems often as the result of substance misuse and have curriculums intentionally designed to facilitate students with special needs (De La Ossa, 2005; Fuller & Sabatino, 1996; Unger, Dent & Sussman, 2004). Each of the schools is designed to meet the needs of their respective student populations (De La Ossa, 2005).

The principal of each high school was contacted for their permission to participate in the study. I asked principals to nominate teachers who may rely on instructional videos to provide teaching and learning experiences. I then contacted the teachers to ask for their permission to participate. In the interviews, I talked about the purpose and benefits of this study and stressed the voluntary nature of the study and that they may withdraw their participation at any time. To maintain confidentiality, each participant was given a pseudonym; for example Mr. B. The letters of the pseudonyms do not correspond to the participant's real name. In addition, a number and not a name identified the schools. Participants are described in Chapter 4.

Participants. Participants were a purposeful sample (Creswell, 2009). The inclusion criteria included: (1) teacher, (2) who uses instructional videos in the classroom, and (3) were able to participate within the time-frames of this study.

Procedure. For consistency and rigor, the data collection process for each participant followed the data collection protocol, including getting ready, greeting the participant, noting the date and time, stating the goal of the research, providing a reminder about confidentiality, discussing and approving the informed consent form, asking for and receiving permission to record the interview, starting the recordings and reviewing the above-mentioned information on the recordings, conducting the interview, stopping the recorders, reminding the participant not to talk about the questions or his

or her answers so as to avoid intentionally or unintentionally influencing other participants, and concluding each interview by asking the participant whether he or she had any questions, concerns, or comments (Sturm, 2012). Lastly, the participant was thanked for participating in this study.

Data Collection - Interview Guide

Questions. Based upon the literature review, the following interview guide was developed to collect participant views, opinions, and attitudes about instructional videos (Brenner, 2006; Fowler, 1995; Kvale, 1996, 2009; Kvale & Brinkman, 2009):

1. *Could you briefly describe your teaching background?*
2. *Could you describe your major teaching responsibilities?*
3. *Could you describe how you use instructional videos in your classroom?*
    a. *Can you provide a specific example of how you used an instructional video to accomplish a learning activity?*
4. *In your opinion, how do your students learn from watching instructional videos?*
    a. *Could you give me a couple of examples?*
    b. *Is critical thinking involved in that? If not, could you give another example where critical thinking is involved?*
5. *How do you introduce an instructional video before showing?*
6. *Could you describe how instructional videos can serve to support teacher-to-student interactions?*

7. *Could you describe how instructional video can serve to support student-to-student interactions?*
8. *How else might you use instructional video?*
9. *What in the school or district supports your use of instructional video in the classroom?*
10. *What in the school or district constrains or makes more difficult your use of instructional video in the classroom?*
    a. *What could be improved?*
11. *Do you have any additional thoughts or opinions about instructional videos?*
12. *Would it be possible to observe your class when you are using an instructional video for a lesson?*

For a discussion of the linkage between the Interview Questions and the Research Questions please see Table 1, Appendix C.

For a discussion of the linkage between the Interview Questions and the Literature Review, please see Table 2, Appendix C.

Transcripts. There is no single agreed-upon standard for the appropriate transcript (Brenner, 2006). The digital files from the interviews were converted into transcripts. The interview questions were designed to solicit *content* from each participant allowing for a semantic record (Finlay, 2009; van Manen, 2006). As such, the following data were excluded from the transcripts since they would have been too detailed for this study: the participant's length of pauses, rhythm, intonation, and nonverbal utterances (Brenner, 2006; Finlay, 2006; van Manen, 2007).

Analysis. The goal in analyzing the transcripts was to learn teacher views regarding educational practices with instructional videos. According to Brenner (2006), analysis of the transcripts is the process of discovering relationships in the data. Based upon the research questions in this study, it is important to understand the similarities and differences between the participants in response to the interview questions (Brenner, 2006, p. 367). Kvale (2009) argues that the purpose of analysis is to develop the meaning (content) of the participants in response to the interview questions (p. 102). And finally, Merriam (2009) argues that the process of analysis begins by identifying segments in the transcripts that are responsive to the research questions (p. 176). Based on the guidance of Brenner (2006), Kvale (2009), and Merriam (2009) this study analyzed transcripts for *content* that was responsive to the interview questions (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977).

Quantitative Analysis of Interview Questions

This portion of the chapter discusses the quantitative analysis of the interview questions. As a brief reminder, the literature review identified three building blocks of Social Learning Theory: collaboration, modeling, and observation (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec & Menlove, 1966). The

interview transcripts were analyzed for these three concepts and each was counted and column frequencies were calculated for each participant.

The following key words and acceptable alternatives were counted for each of the three Social Learning Theory building blocks.

Key Word = Collaboration. Acceptable alternatives = student interactions, student communication, and student working in groups.

Key Word = Modeling. Acceptable alternatives = imitating, showing examples of, and emulating.

Key Word = Observing. Acceptable alternatives = watch, see, and visualize.

Classroom Observations

This study collected data from four classroom observations. Although observations were requested from all interviewees, four consented to observations. The teachers informed me of what period would be best for me to come visit to observe the teachers' use of instructional video. I sat in the back of the classroom for one instructional period of approximately 40 minutes. I noted the room layouts and the teaching and learning equipment in each room. I observed the teachers and when I saw or heard something that corresponded to the literature review, I wrote it down for later use (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995). During the observations, I noted teacher-to-student interactions, student-to-student interactions, and use of videos.

Reliability and Validity

The use of reliability and validity as measures of quality are common in quantitative research as they offer the reader a gauge of precision and exactness (Altheide & Johnnson, 2011; Golafshani, 2003; Smith, 2011). Reliability can be defined as yielding consistent results while validity can be defined as intending to measure data about an underlying construct or theoretical variable (Warner, 2008).

Qualitative research offers different ways to promote and claim issues of reliability and validity; namely: truth, credibility, dependability, confirmability, and trustworthiness (AERA, 2006, 2009; Altheide & Johnnson, 2011; Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 124; Flick, 2008).

This study offers the following to persuade the reader that the implications of the interview data are credible and transparent (AERA, 2006, 2009; Altheide & Johnnson, 2011; Denzin, 2011):

Data scoring reliability. To improve the reliability of the data scoring process, a colleague scored the interview data independently of the researcher (Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman, & Marteau, 1997; Gwet, 2008). There were very few discrepancies. Where there were discrepancies there was a discussion to reach consensus.

Rigor and transparency. To ensure rigor and transparency, the interactions with the participants were consistent, the interview protocols were consistently followed, the interview questions were consistently

administered and the scoring rubrics served as the sole criteria for evaluating the interview data (Ellingson, 2011, citing Fitch, 1994; Klenke, 2008). Lastly, care had been taken to make the design and scoring processes transparent to improve the rigor of this research (AREA, 2006, 2009; Flick, 2008).

This chapter articulated the research methods that were used to collect and analyze the data from the participants. The protocols, reliability, and validity guidelines are meant to ensure the reader that the study is truthful, credible, dependable, confirmable, and trustworthy (AERA, 2006, 2009; Altheide & Johnnson, 2011; Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 124; Flick, 2008). Chapter 4 discusses the data results and interpretations.

Limitations

This study had several limitations. One limitation of this study is that it was descriptive in nature and dealt with eight teachers (Creswell, 2009; Warner, 2008). Different teachers participating in the same data collection protocols are likely to yield different descriptive results (Creswell, 2009). In the long-term, after any number of interviews, consistent patterns or trends may emerge. In addition, different schools and different grade levels may produce different descriptive results (Klenke, 2008; Millhollen, 2008). One of the strengths of this study was that it described in more detail how Social Learning Theory was put into practice (Klenke, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008).

Second, the interview questions were not thoroughly vetted by practicing teachers although they were carefully crafted based upon the literature review. In addition, a pilot interview was conducted and the questions were reviewed and approved by my dissertation committee.

Third, this study described situations, contexts, interactions, and behaviors of these particular teachers (Denzin, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Flick, 2008; Klenke, 2008; Merriam, 2009). This study did not intend to present descriptions as universal truth or absolutes; rather, descriptions were intended to convey the meaning of these teachers (Biesta, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, 2011; Warner, 2008). To mitigate this limitation, classroom observations were conducted and reported in this study.

Fourth, this study collected data by administering a questionnaire and conducting interviews after the teachers had used instructional videos, which gives rise to a few limitations (Sturm, 2012). Data collected after an event can never duplicate the thoughts, experience, and context of the exercise itself (van Manen, 1990). The passage of time between a teacher's use of instructional videos and the data collection in this study may have allowed teachers to *self-analyze* the teaching and student interactions in a more favorable light. Thus, these data represent after-experience thinking rather than a teacher's thinking during teaching and learning moments (van Manen, 1990). The passage of time between the teaching experience and the data collection may have permitted the teachers to reflect on their experiences

and present their descriptions in a better light (Altheide & Johnson, 2011). To mitigate this limitation, classroom observations were conducted to offer a check and balance.

CHAPTER 4

Data Results and Analysis

The purpose of Chapter 4 is to present the data that were collected using the interview and classroom observation protocols that were articulated in Chapter 3. Four types of data were collected for this study: pre-Interview questionnaire, interviews, quantitative data from the interview transcripts, and observational data from participant classrooms. Initially, the study participants and schools are described. Lastly, the four types of data that were collected organize this chapter.

Participants

Participating Schools. This study recruited participants from three alternative schools. School #1 and #2 had more than one teacher. School #3 is a composite of three schools that had one teacher at each school. In addition, one university teacher was recruited who was in a previous pilot study.

School #1 was a military cohort model alternative high school. Students were residents of the institution and were separated by gender. Students were supervised at all times by guardians and not allowed unsupervised contact with others outside of the school at any time. Students

were also required to meet strict timelines to graduation. There are two cycles in a year, which last from July-December and January-June, lasting 22 weeks each. During this study there were approximately 60 females and 125 males enrolled this cycle. Students go home for major holidays (Thanksgiving, Easter, Memorial Day, etc.) otherwise they stay on the premises.

School #2 was a traditional model alternative high school that followed the same academic calendar as other non-alternative schools in its district. During this study there were approximately 45 female and 65 male students enrolled. There were no notable restrictions at School #2 that made it different than other non-alternative schools in the district including being an open-campus and co-ed environment.

School #3 was a traditional model alternative high school that followed the same academic calendar as other non-alternative schools in its district. During this study there were approximately 35 female and 40 male students enrolled. There were no notable restrictions at School #3 that made it different than other non-alternative schools in the district including being an open-campus and co-ed environment.

Table 3 summarizes the attributes for each of the three schools in this study.

Table 3

Summary of Attributes for Participating Schools

	School		
Attributes	#1	#2	#3
Military Style	Yes	No	No
At-Risk-Students	Yes	Yes	Yes
Academic Calendar	Cohort	Regular	Regular
Residential	Yes	No	No
Coed	No	Yes	Yes
Supervised 24hrs/day	Yes	No	No
External interactions	No	Yes	Yes
Number male students	125	65	40
Number female students	60	45	35
Participants in Study	2	3	3
Observed for Study	No	Yes	Yes

Participant Attributes. The participants filled out a pre-interview questionnaire prior to being interviewed. Pre-Interview questions were designed to gather the following information from each participant: (1) job title, (2) age, (3) highest level of education, (4) credentials or certifications, (5) ethnicity, (6) total number of years teaching, (7) years teaching in this district, (8) what grade level he or she was teaching, (9) what subject he or she was teaching, (10) how many hours per month he or she used instructional videos, (11) questions or comments so far, and (12) permission to observe classroom.

The last two questions regarding additional thoughts or opinions and permission to observe class were less than critical to the study and were not reported. All eight participants answered each of the twelve pre-interview questions. The open-ended data is summarized below followed by a table that summarizes the numerical data. The pre-Interview questionnaire asked demographic data from each participant. Demographic data are important because they provide a context for the participants that may be helpful for the reader of the study.

Table 4 summarizes key participant attributes of the participants. Ages of the participants ranged from 26 to 61. Years of teaching ranged from 1 to 17. There were eight different primary subject areas including Journalism, Performing Arts, and Social Science.

Table 4

Summary of Key Attributes for each Participant, by Participating School, Age, Years Teaching, Subject Taught, and Video Use Per Month

	Attributes				
Participant	School	Age	Years Teaching	Subject	Video Use per Month
Mr. Bl	3	40	9	Performing Arts	4
Ms. Bu	1	33	6	Health	4
Mr. G	3	30	6	Social Science	40
Ms. O	1	49	13	Writing	1
Mr. Pk	2	29	1	Social Science	20
Mr. Pp	U	61	17	Journalism	10
Mr. R	2	38	13	English	12
Ms. Y	2	26	1	Math	8

Note: U = University.

Before discussing the Interview Questions in the next section, Table 5 links the Research Questions with the Interview Questions.

Table 5

Linking the Research Questions to the Interview Questions

Research Questions	Interview Questions
1. What are teachers' descriptions of their use of instructional video between teacher and student (and among students) to promote learning?	1., 2., 3., 4., 8., & 9.
2. What are teachers' views of how instructional videos may (or may not) facilitate learning?	4., 5., & 12.
3. What are teachers' views of facilitators and constraints to their use of instructional video?	10., 11., & 12.
4. What are views of the use of video to encourage student responsibility for their own construction of knowledge and student social interaction?	6., 7., & 12.

Notes: The prompts for each interview question were not listed and are discussed in more detail in this chapter.

Interview Question #1 - Background

Interview question #1 asked, "Could you briefly describe your teaching background?" This question was asked to provide a grand tour or background data on each participant's background to describe the

participants and provide a context for their statements (Brenner, 2006; Hobbs, 2006; Kvale, 1996, 2009; Kvale & Brinkman, 2009).

Mr. Pp had worked 27 years teaching both on a part-time and full-time basis as Health Science, Journalism and Communications instructor at the university level and was teaching journalism at the time of this study. Mr. Bl had 9 years of teaching experience for at-risk high school students at a WASC (Western Association of Schools and Colleges), accredited California model school. Mr. Bl also served for a year as a Teacher on Special Assignment focused on working with the 550 teachers across his district to integrate 21st Century Skills (Communication, Critical Thinking, Problem Solving, Creativity, Collaboration, Self-Direction, Technology and Global Awareness) into their curriculum.

Ms. O had a total of 13 years teaching experience with 7 years in the district being studied. Ms. O taught English, Literacy and Science for 3 years in grades 10-12 previously. Mr. G had a total of 6 years teaching experience with 5 of that in this study's district as a Social Science Teacher. Mr. Pk had a total of 1 year of teaching experience and was in his first year at the time of the study on a preliminary credential as a Social Studies teacher. Ms. Bu had 6 years teaching experience in grades K-12. Ms. Bu taught Kindergarten abroad in Germany. Ms. Bu was in her second year with the district being studied. Ms. Bu held both a K-8 Multiple Subject and Biological Science Single Subject credential. Mr. R had a total of 13 years teaching experience

with 1 year in a small, private school and 12 years in non-traditional alternative high school as an English teacher. Ms. Y was a first-year teacher who acquired a Single Subject Math Credential in June 2013.

Interview Question #2 - Teaching Responsibilities

Interview question #2 asked, "Could you describe your major teaching responsibilities?" This question was asked to provide data on each participant's teaching responsibilities. (Brenner, 2006; Hobbs, 2006; Kvale, 1996, 2009; Kvale & Brinkman, 2009).

Mr. Pp was the lead instructor overseeing all Public Relations classes at the time of this study.

Mr. Bl reported his primary teaching responsibility as being to help students gain the knowledge and skills to succeed in life and work and contribute to society during and after high school.

The primary teaching responsibilities for Ms. O were teaching English Literacy and Consumer Economics.

Mr. G was responsible for teaching U.S. History, World History, Government, and Economics. Mr. G was also the Lead Teacher of the four-teacher school, which he explained had more of an administrative role. That included curriculum development to serve student needs at individual level of need and to assist students in meeting graduation requirements.

Mr. Pk had the sole teaching responsibility as the Social Studies teacher, including teaching U.S. History and an Economics classes. Mr. Pk was also the co-teacher of a projects-based learning class.

Ms. Bu was responsible for teaching health to high-risk youth during the first semester which included covering nutrition, the immune system, sexual health, addiction and recovery. Ms. Bu's second semester responsibility was to teach financial literacy.

Mr. R had the responsibility of "helping improve the life of someone whose life needs to be improved." Effort was also directed toward providing a lot of differentiation and a lot of individualized attention. An additional responsibility for Mr. R was to lead professional development on technology in the district and elsewhere.

Ms. Y was responsible for teaching math as the only math teacher in the school to approximately 75 students. Ms. Y's primary goal was to get the students through algebra and geometry. Individual tutoring was also provided to students as needed. Ms. Y also helped teach a Project Based Learning (PBL) class with the school's science teacher.

Interview Question #3 - Video Use

Interview question #3 asked, "Could you describe how you use instructional videos in your classroom?" This question was asked because the literature review identified different uses for instructional video such as

modeling, introduction of topics and visual tutorials (Ajex, 1999; Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Cuban, 1986).

Mr. Pp used instructional videos for the underpinning of the groundwork for his public relations class. Some of the videos used by Mr. Pp were some of the videos students produced. Mr. Pp explained that the use of student-created videos were an excellent way to "create scaffolding for projects where students see examples of each other's work where they can use it to model and shape what they are going to be doing." Mr. Pp recognized that some students learn better visually and that different learning modalities need to be addressed. He continued to explain that video has always proven to be helpful. Mr. Pp also added "instructional videos can be used to bring up new ideas that might be out of the context of what the course is all about."

Mr. Bl only reported the use of instructional video for tutorials on how to use software. He typically used video as a quick start to learning an application or for showing a particular technique. Mr. Bl also mentioned use of instructional videos in Video Production class where video clips served as examples of storytelling and production techniques.

Ms. O only used videos in short, approximately 5-minute presentations, and only for consumer economics classes. Ms. O felt that instructional videos are appropriate for Consumer Economics because they are "quick and right to the point." Ms. O also explained that by 'flipping' the

classroom learning, (following the Kahn Academy practice) the students could watch the instructional videos in the evening, after school, allowing a full discussion of the instructional video the following day during class.

Mr. G found other ways to use instructional video technology to get the curriculum to be more accessible. For example, Mr. G not only felt he could offer more curriculum materials but offer more accessible curriculum materials that students would use and engage in. The result, in regards to completing assignments, engaging in and learning from assignments with the use of instructional video, was totally different according to Mr. G. who explained, "There is something about the one-on-one factor with these students that technology allows it to happen and the kids learn more from it." Mr. G enjoyed using more technology with video during classes because it allowed more opportunities to engage on a one-to-one basis with the kids.

Mr. Pk immediately suggested that the term 'instructional video' be changed to 'instructional media'. Mr. Pk felt video was too restrictive a definition. Mr. Pk explained that he worked at a media rich school. At this school there were four teachers. Each classroom had one computer per student available. With laptops, digital projectors, Internet access, and such resources the students and teachers were constantly using computers at each and every lesson. Mr Pk believed media would include "movies, videos, TV shows, music, web sites, student, teacher and third party-created, any and everything that complements the lesson." Mr. Pk used the television

series, The Apprentice, as an instructional video source. After spending five minutes talking and taking notes, the class would then watch 10 minutes of The Apprentice. Mr. Pk used the program to discuss business ethics.

Ms. Bu used instructional videos to complement whatever was being discussed in the class. Ms. Bu explained that it was used to help add to the information being discussed "just because it is a more interesting format for the students and it is nice for them to hear the same information from a different person." Ms. Bu continued that it allowed the visual learners to have something to watch. In the process of watching an instructional video they had to complete a hand-written paper just to keep them focused. Ms. Bu explained it was an easy way to front-load them with information. Ms. Bu finds instructional video especially useful for the financial literacy class. "I will front-load them with how to write a check, or how to do something and then we will discuss it in class after they have watched the video." Ms. Bu most often used video to provide information then spent class time delving into the concept more deeply.

Mr. R expressed frustration at early attempts to obtain instructional video materials, especially since school Internet access was extremely limited due to blocked web sites. Mr. R explained, "I just started grabbing videos and showing them!" He continued that about 3-4 years ago the school district changed its philosophy and lifted the restrictions. "We have had unfettered access ever since." Mr. R felt the primary means of using video

was what is referred to as the "get in and get out" method. It was usually almost always a YouTube clip and was seldom more than two minutes long. He explained, "It was often either a supplement to something that has just happened, or a teaser, or lead in to something that is about to happen." To give a recent example, Mr. R described a class activity where students debated a New York Times article about whether rap lyrics should be admitted as evidence in a criminal trial. He explained, "The article had a link to the homemade video of the song. Even though some of the lyrics were in the article there was power watching these young men rap, and the context of the video, and at the end of that saying 'what do you think?'"

Ms. Y used videos as part of the lessons and as tutorials. Ms. Y frequently used the Kahn Academy and other online resources. She preferred instructional videos as an additional resource to direct instruction. She pointed out that "some students with direct instruction can take it in; they can hear it and they are good. However, today, now, with the students who are here, media is such a prevalent part of all of their life that sometimes a video or a digital source is an easier cue. They are used to listening to that, or tracking those. They are used as a supplement to the actual lesson being given." Ms. Y believed that the students could "glean from that the pieces that are relevant from how the video is used to introduce a topic."

Interview Question #4 - Student Learning

Interview Question #4 asked, "In your opinion, how do your students learn from watching instructional videos?" This question was asked because the literature review indicated teachers may have differing opinions on how students learn from instructional videos (Fulton, 2012; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hanley, Herron & Cole, 1995; Parslow, 2012; Thompson, 2011).

Mr. Pp believes that by viewing instructional videos it aids their conceptual process. "They see a communications process. In video, theory becomes easier to see and people can understand more how it comes into play. It addresses barriers and channels to communication. They see it. They are introduced to the whole process including the theoretical approach being talked about. Theory is just theory. In video it becomes reality. People are able to see it in motion and in real time. Video brings the real world into the classroom. When the students start critically thinking they ask, 'What has this got to do with what's happening in the real world?'"

Mr. Bl used quick start tutorials from www.toolkit21.com for his Video Production classes. Mr. Bl also provided an example of a technique video (click Letter Logo Tutorial on the left). Mr. Bl stated that critical thinking is involved in taking a technique and having to apply it to a different task or project. Ms. O believed it was the way a lot of people learn saying, "If you see one do one. You are given the information and you are shown how to do it". Ms. O continued, "that by using a follow-up activity you further secure the

knowledge and skill to fully perform the desired task. For instance, after watching a video on budgeting the class practices with real-life scenarios. An unexpected doctor bill for $300 or an unexpected car repair being needed requires critical thinking skills. Students will have to rework their budget and determine how to make it balance."

Mr. G recalled how a lower level learner struggled with a history lesson. The student had been working on the computer and accessing Mr. G's web site. The student was not distracted, had headphones on, and was watching a 15-20 minute video clip that Mr. G had posted and ultimately became fully engaged in the lesson. Mr. G also connected it to a Google Doc. With Google Doc, Mr. G explained, "the student can now write answers and engage in the assignments. It is a format where they are writing answers down, engaging in the curriculum, answering questions but also watching at the same time." Mr. G continued, "I had a U.S. History class where we were watching a History Channel documentary on WWII. One of my lower level kids struggled in all of my classes just to keep up. I was circulating through the computer lab and I saw probably my lowest level learner on the Google Docs, and I saw him press ‘Pause’, begin writing some stuff down, and then rewind it and begin writing again."

Mr. G continued, "The student was literally able to take a time out from the assignment so that he could catch up before taking the next step. I thought, how powerful is that? I have taught in a class with 45 kids and I do

not know if all 45 are aware of where I am at on a lesson at any one time. This was a moment where this kid took control of his own learning. He then had a follow-up question and I was able to help him and we had a great conversation."

Mr. G acknowledges that the critical thinking part is probably the most important concern about what teachers do with video-based assignments, adding, “If students are just watching a video and there is no checking for understanding then it is not going to matter. Teachers have to develop the supplemental curriculum to follow-up on whatever it is that they want to show or want the kids to engage in. If you have students respond or create something or become engaged then video is useful because there is follow-up to it.”

Mr. Pk believed media brought relevance and entertainment. Mr. Pk pointed out "that at this point in time the use of instructional media is very important. Today's students grew up in such a media image heavy culture that it is a challenge for them to read from books when they are accustomed to being more easily entertained by other forms of media.” As a teacher, Mr. Pk was challenged with providing the best delivery method for lessons being given. Mr. Pk explained, "We have to read this and then we can watch a video clip, watch a movie. We need to make sure we dig into something; we can talk about it." Mr. Pk believed that critical thinking is involved when using instructional video. Mr. Pk explained, "People are fearful of using video

because they think it's just putting in the DVD and pressing play and letting the video speak for itself. But if you are doing it in targeted 10, 15 minute chunks and the student has an objective, they have a graphic organizer, they have something to take notes on, you have primed them for it. I think that is what makes it effective."

Ms. Bu felt that learning occurred using instructional videos in the same way as any other topic. "You would introduce the question and concept you expect the students to learn and use the video as a source of information." Ms. Bu emphasized "that getting students to connect it to prior knowledge and getting them to think about how it applies to them is always helpful" and believed that "it is a relatively quick process." Ms. Bu also used videos as an introductory tool, stating, "More often I use video to provide information then we delve into the concept a little bit after. I use the video as a way to introduce a topic."

In regards to critical thinking, Ms. Bu recalled using a video about microbes from the TED talks (Technology, Entertainment and Design non-profit organization). The students responded online and were able to respond to each other's responses. Ms. Bu explained, "it was a really fun activity and the students were communicating with one another. The students used critical thinking skills in a fun way. I continue to use that activity every other week or so. It still has a sense of newness and has proven an effective way to keep students' interest."

Mr. R, as an English common core teacher, had the mission of helping students learn to access text more capably. Mr. R expressed the desire to "appeal to as many senses as possible on a particular topic in order to help the message sink in, to leave an impression." He used video like the Iron Man Triathlon video. Mr. R explained, "You can read about someone's exhausting experience but you seeing someone staggering on a screen drives home that these people are physically exhausted. It may be controversial topic, maybe it is not right to exercise until you reach that point, but the message remains powerful and engaging."

Mr. R believed that "at a sensory level there is an augmentation that is vital. Critical thinking skills are applied as well, especially when watching a video that goes with something the class has already read, like *The Great Gatsby*." Mr. R looked forward to the conversations being sparked about the book's adaptation to the screen. Questions arose such as "do the students support the director and producer's use of contemporary music instead of traditional roaring 20's music? Does it bother them that *Kanye West* is the first song on that soundtrack that is heard in this movie? That conversation might last 20-30 minutes because the class can go back and forth about the merits of that topic alone." Mr. R continued, "One goal was for the students to understand *Nick Carraway,* the protagonist in the Great Gatsby, who sells bonds. The movie presented an excellent chance to teach a little financial

literacy and also help them understand what the protagonist does for a living."

Ms. Y believed in the power of creating student-generated video productions to facilitate critical thinking and group collaboration processes. An example was given of having the class make an Animoto video explaining the process of finding the vertex of a parabola in order to assess student progress.

Interview Question #5 - Video Introduction

Interview Question #5 asked, "How do you introduce an instructional video before showing?" This question was asked because the literature review mentioned a variety of methods to introduce instructional videos (Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Fulton, 2012; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hanley, Herron & Cole, 1995; Kvale, 1996; Parslow, 2012; Thompson, 2011; Van Laarhoven & Van Laarhoven-Myers, 2006).

Mr. Pp began the video introduction process by first listing it as an assignment. All assignments were reviewed on the first day of class and students always knew basically what to expect. A student could choose to go online and seek further information with that type of introduction. Mr. Pp emphasized that, "I never turn off the lights and start the video. I always preface the viewing with discussion of key points, what I have found interesting, then show the video after having a discussion". Mr. Pp explained,

"The students know why they are watching it and they can concentrate on just watching it. If watching a video on learning modules and collaborative learning, then the context is that the class is likely going to be learning within a group. The students can see it and understand better what they are going to be doing at the time."

Most teachers referred to their own use of videos, with Mr. G and Mr. Pk doing even more than the others. Mr. Bl sometimes modeled a technique live and then would refer the students to video clips for remediation or more detail. Ms. O would tell the students "this is what we are going to be using for the next set of lessons that we are going to be working on." Ms. O explained, "Any instructional video will usually be introduced with an activity or a discussion question." Mr. G maintained a complete instructional video library online. Mr. G explained that, "It is all on my web site. I have created so much curriculum that it allows them to pick and choose." Mr. G used the Google web site frequently and encouraged the students to explore. Mr. G was proud of the fact that "The kids can watch a video on their mobile phone if for say they have an hour-long bus ride home. They really like it."

Mr. Pk began by first breaking down the task and had the students use their graphic organizer. As an example, Mr. Pk discussed The Apprentice television program. "The students will write down their prediction of who they think will win, they would have to list four strategies that they saw the teams do on the task, then they would have to list pros and cons for each

person being rated." Mr. Pk believed that "if it has been primed well and introduced well and it is been targeted, then you have a good introduction to viewing." Mr. Pk also mentioned that "students are almost always required to turn to their partner and discuss what they are doing."

Ms. Bu considered an instructional video introduction "to be like any other topic where you would introduce the question and concept you want the students to focus on. Getting students to connect the video to prior knowledge is always helpful. It gets students to think about how it applies to them." Ms. Bu believed it was a relatively quick process.

Mr. R generally used a quick, verbal introduction. "Here is some information and here is the story." Mr. R explained that he utilized what he described as a "current event style teaching where fairly controversial actual events are studied. It is the students' responsibility to research the topic. Once that step is completed, the students are now ready to meet and touch base." Mr. R continued, "Here is a new story that explains it a little bit more. I will just find something on some local ABC broadcast somewhere. News broadcasts are great, they are key; they are going to be 30, 60, 90 seconds. They are perfect."

Ms. Y considered introduction of instructional video just another daily activity, explaining that, "The nice thing here is that as a staff we all use video and technology and it is a norm for the students to see it. It is not a surprise; it is a norm to put up a video so the students know what is coming.

They are used to it. So it really does not require much introduction." Ms. Y would point out important concepts to watch for and give disclaimers where necessary.

Interview Question #6 - Teacher Interactions

Interview Question #6 asked, "Could you describe how instructional videos can serve to support teacher-to-student interactions?" This question was asked to gather teacher opinions on how instructional videos may facilitate teacher-to-student interactions (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977).

Mr. Pp made it clear to the students that they were not to look at the teacher as the source of all the knowledge. Students must understand that they are in a collaborative environment where everyone is building knowledge from one another. Mr. Pp emphasized that, "In order to be life-long learners it is necessary to build knowledge together on an ongoing basis.

Mr. Bl viewed the use of video tutorials as an opportunity to allow students to work at different paces and catch up on missed work. Mr. Bl explained that by cloning direct instruction through video it provided freedom as the teacher to address one-on-one the specific obstacles and questions a student had.

Ms. O utilized the 'flipped classroom' concept to better facilitate teacher-to-student interaction. By making instructional videos available to students online, students could view a lesson in the evening and get personalized attention from the teacher the following day. Ms. O gave the example of writing checks. Students could view instructional videos out of class; then questions could be addressed and additional instruction provided during class. Time normally spent watching a video could then be used practicing the check writing process.

Ms. O believed that "proper use of instructional video really helps to develop the relationship between teacher and student." Ms. O emphasized that, "I am not sitting there drilling and killing them in the classroom. I am providing information for them that I let them know we are going to cover the next day. We are going to have activities based on this topic and it is important that they are prepared."

Mr. G was able to put History Channel documentaries on a class web site, create supplemental material for the students (or use supplemental material already available), and provide immediate access to this information for the entire class. Mr. G recalled that in this way, attention could be given to just one student who was really struggling. The student was able "to not only finish the assignment but ask for more." Mr. G's students soon began to prefer digital assignments to paper assignments. Mr. G was adamant that "since we live in a world that is media rich you cannot blame the students for

preferring visual learning." Mr. G pointed out that "production quality is very high and visual learning works. Good teachers can understand when there is another avenue for the students to learn." Mr. G explained that, "Now while the curriculum is being delivered, the teacher can concurrently be checking for understanding by the students. My role is now different; period."

Mr. Pk explained that he could not spend a great deal of time personally with students due to time constraints. He explained that, "Since the students are at different learning levels it is difficult to interact in many group settings. Students do interact however electronically by the ability of the teacher to be 'present' online as students work." Mr. Pk could stay current on whatever students were working on in real time as they worked via the computer. Mr. Pk could listen to conversations between students and assess whether the students comprehended the material or not. Using Google Docs and working in real time with students in the classroom, Mr. Pk was able to give immediate online feedback. Mr. Pk "had 20 students working on essays and with the technology can see all of them at once. This is technology providing an online form of individual teacher-to-student interaction and individual instruction."

Ms. Bu viewed the use of instructional video as providing an easier way to connect to with the students. As a health science teacher, Ms. Bu felt "it was more meaningful for the students to see someone else, like a movie star, or a young person telling them the story about HIV. Similarly, in

studying Financial Literacy, when students see a football player who ends up broke after having all this money; it means a lot more to them versus me." Ms. Bu continued that, "as a 30-something-year-old telling them this information, it is not as credible as what media might provide." Mr. R also felt teacher-to-student interaction was facilitated through instructional video. Mr. R went on line and searched for 'Everest base camp trek' and found hundreds of homemade videos people had made from their treks. Mr. R emphasized that these are people who did not go beyond base camp. They made that pilgrimage. To them that was their bucket list item.

Mr. R followed up by having students find a video and watch it. The assignment was "to write down what the scenery was like, give details about how difficult the trail looked and make cultural observations. How do the people there seem to be different?" Mr. R explained that "although non-verbal, the process of writing is an interaction." Mr. R also brought up the example of 'curation' and how it is a big trend now. Students could use online tools to build lists to get organized. School districts were using Google apps. He explained that, "all of the students have Google accounts that are owned and monitored by our district. Interestingly enough, Google owns YouTube. Everything students view on YouTube is archived." Mr. R continued that his district "has their account academically so we can use YouTube as a social network. The students can make playlists; the teacher can give assignments to make videos on how to go on a long backpacking trip. Students can grab

videos and add them to a playlist called backpacking tips that they can share with the teacher and other students. It is a form of social media."

Mr. R explained that as a teacher, the ability to share playlists not only worked between students and teachers, but between other teachers as well.

Interview Question #7 - Student Interactions

Interview Question #7 asked, "Could you describe how instructional videos can serve to support student-to-student interactions?" This question was asked to gather teacher opinions on how instructional videos may facilitate student-to-student interactions (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977).

Mr. Pp found getting students to collaborate difficult at times. Mr. Pp explained that students have had to focus so much on their academic requirements that they did not grasp the concept of collaboration. Mr. Pp has had students "come up and say that they have a problem working with other people. The students explain that other people are just competition as far as they are concerned." Mr. Pp finds this a troubling issue that is prevalent.

Mr. Bl suggested that students could make screencasts of their learnings to teach other students using an online program.

Ms. O felt that the use of instructional video "makes the classroom environment more relaxed, making learning fun and enhancing the

opportunity for students to make connections. They might even say, 'Now I can show this to my Mom! When I go out on my own I can use this.' After watching the videos, the students can do the activity in class and help each other. Through the discussion boards, they can totally interact and help each other. They can work together on whatever that discussion of the day is. These are very important opportunities since students here have no cell phones, texting or communication with one another in any way other than what we provide for them."

Mr. G described how "2 students can be viewing on 2 separate computers and collaborate using Google docs on a team project." Mr. G admitted that "Sometimes I am hesitant to try something new because you do not know what is going to happen with it. Fortunately, we have had a lot of fun with it." Mr. G's students are planning a promotional type video to show other classes what the students are doing in his class.

Mr. Pk has had students utilize a web tool called Animoto. It is free movie-making software that combines text, music and images. Mr. Pk explained that, "students could create a 30-second video in about 5 minutes." Other teachers being interviewed have also referred to Animoto and given it positive reviews. Mr. Pk described it as "really low input for a great product." by using Animoto, Mr. Pk was active in facilitating digital storytelling for the students. Using such digital tools, students began to own the knowledge they were acquiring. Mr. Pk emphasized the importance of

student interaction no matter what the activity, stating, "Even if you have been lecturing for just 4 minutes, you need to have students frequently turn to their partner and do something with it. I will have them stand up, walk around and talk to 2 different people and then return to their seats. They are at least interacting with someone and not only with me. That is the kind of interaction that I am looking for."

Ms. Bu has had to address the hurdle presented by a restrictive school policy. Ms. Bu explained that "student-to-student interaction is very limited in our school basically because we do not allow students to interact. I do however see wonderful avenues for that now. I see other teachers do that in their schools, where students are allowed to email, blog and communicate with one another." Ms. Bu did have success to share however recalling a video shown about microbes by an individual on a video from the TED talks. The students responded online and were able to respond to each other's responses. Ms. Bu witnessed critical thinking skills being used in that activity in a fun way.

Mr. R. believed that "when students debate the meaning of scenes in a movie, or the message they feel is being sent, that conversation might last 20-30 minutes because we go back and forth about the merits of that." Student-to-student interaction as a result of using instructional video was evident.

Ms. Y taught math. The subject matter required learning concrete concepts. Ms. Y made a concerted effort to "connect the student with what we have already learned or what has already been presented." Ms. Y facilitated student-to-student interaction particularly when working on the computers. She explained, "They are busy discussing the problems and working with each other." Ms. Y frequently encouraged students to help one another and did not hesitate in making class announcements stating so. Regarding the use of student-produced video programs; Ms. Y recognized that some of the students quickly become masters of that task and are good at that sort of thing. She noted, "There is a lot of collaboration in that way."

Interview Question #8 - Videos, Other Uses

Interview Question #8 asked, "How else might you use instructional video?" This question was asked to learn how teachers might be using instructional videos for other teaching and learning experiences (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979).

Mr. Pp described using instructional video as a way to self-brand himself. Through instructional video and social media, Mr. Pp "created a unique personal identity. Videos on educational technology, online videos, a system of online courses, hybrid classes, technology that can be used in teaching" are all part of what Mr. Pp uses in conveying who he is. Mr. Pp

explained, "It is a video world now. Instructional video may have bottomed out for a while but with the advent of computers it is more useful than ever now."

Ms. O expresses concerns about the timing involved in use of instructional videos. Ms. O believed that there was a tendency for teachers to play instructional videos non-stop. Ms. O felt that every moment of video use had to be well planned out, stating that, "Even a relatively short 20-minute video needs to be stopped with some frequency and discussed." Ms. O felt that "teachers missed important teachable moments if they did not stop the video and allow the students to digest it and let it be discussed."

Mr. G expressed the desire to eventually be able to create his own videos. Mr. G stated that after creating a number of Power Points, it became discouraging due to the production quality of what was out there. He explained that, "The current availability of high quality videos is much more engaging than what Power Point can create." Mr. Pk shared some thoughts of what might be a good use of instructional videos including: Creating your own country, flags, laws and system of government. He suggested, "Students could also build web sites representing their new sovereign states."

Ms. Bu believed it would be fun to allow students to create their own videos. In the fall Ms. Bu's school purchased new cameras and described their activities. "Presently, the students are doing skits in front of the

classroom but I would like them to be a little more involved where they are creating a video of it and then formatting the video. There is lots of good software being developed out there for those types of productions."

Mr. R believed there is always room for a video either to inspire kids or to have a laugh. Mr. R referred to the school's Project-Based Learning class. "There will be a great clip from Jimmy Fallon or Jimmy Kimmel, or two minutes for Jay Leno's Jaywalking. I will go around and find out just what people do not know. They make great icebreakers. The mood is lightened. It helps the students get back to serious business. Sometimes there is a context for it; sometimes it is just because it is funny." Mr. R conceded that "those two minutes are worth burning up; everybody has a chuckle together." Mr. R also noted that YouTube was a great alternate source. He recalls a class about criminal lyrics. "The students had to look at the song I Shot the Sheriff. Mr. R put up a live performance from YouTube and had the students highlight all the admissions of guilt; trying to make a point that singing about killing someone does not make you a killer. Everybody was laughing, watching the video."

Ms. Y used Google presentation to create student projects and presentations. The students could build a presentation and then they could present it to the rest of the class. Ms. Y mentioned that he usually tried to incorporate a math and science piece into the project as well.

Interview Question #9 - District Support

Interview Question #9 asked, "What in the school or district supports your use of instructional video in the classroom?" This question was asked to learn what support teachers receive from their respective school districts, if any (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979).

Mr. Pp gave credit to the school personnel that worked in MDS (Media Distribution Services). Mr. Pp recalled that [the person] who runs MDS came right out when there was a problem with the sound system. He arrived within a few minutes. Mr. Pp continued, regarding the equipment, "If you are a student and you need equipment to make a video, you do not have to go out and buy it. You can check it out here."

Mr. Bl credited his school with having a fast Internet connection, both wired and wireless, across most of the campus. He also mentioned that teachers had access to laptops and tablets for use by the students and faculty.

Ms. O was appreciative of the principal's support of the teaching staff and their needs. Ms. O also reported that the district had just updated the school's fiber optic system. The system was reported as having a very high performing online capability. Ms. O remarked that, "There is now no lag time during video streaming." Classrooms also had a document camera and digital overhead. All of the teachers had iPads as well. Ms. O expressed

gratitude that there was a dedicated technology teacher and explained, "We get these things called Tech Slams where we are shown the latest technology used in the classroom and how to use it."

Mr. G recently had IS&T (Information and Services Technology) come in and show the teachers "what we could do with that." Mr. G also was proactive in acquisition of equipment and wrote technology grants in the hopes of obtaining iPads for the school.

Mr. Pp found co-teaching with his colleague beneficial. He described his colleague as very tech-savvy. Conversely, Ms. Bu reported seeing resistance by some teachers to change involving use of instructional video, particularly in digital mediums, however stated that those teachers were becoming more comfortable because the principal was so supportive. Faculty was sent to conferences and workshops so that digital technology could be learned.

Mr. R noted that the content filters were down and no longer used. "The responsibility is in the teacher’s hands and students’ hands now." The only thing that concerned Mr. R was when the Internet was disrupted. Mr. R pointed out that disruptions are very rare and that access had become very reliable.

Ms. Y expressed appreciation of the school being very supportive of providing opportunities to use instructional video. Ms. Y continued that "the school is very supportive of providing tools for instructional video and I am

reaping the benefits of previous teacher efforts unblocking sites and increasing accessibility to online sources. That is not something that I experienced but I am benefitting from it."

Interview Question #10 - District Constraints

Interview Question #10 asked, "What in the school or district constrains or makes more difficult your use of instructional video in the classroom?" This question was asked to identify district constraints on the use of instructional videos (Hobbs, 2006).

Mr. Pp stated that, "Not all of the rooms are Smart Rooms. There are some rooms that do not have a projector. Mr. Pp recalls, “having to bring a hand held projector with a personal computer, and cords, to show an educational or instructional video.” As an educator, Mr. Pp was faced with the occasional dilemma of lacking some additional form of equipment necessary to make a presentation. “If the presentation is missing then you have taken the educational technology, or the educational/instructional video out of the pedagogy. It has been removed from the lesson plan for today just because of the lack of equipment."

Mr. Bl complained of content filtering making many useful video websites inaccessible over the school network. Ms. O would like to see email access improved. “By having email contact we could contact the students and inform them of important instructions, etc.”

Mr. G expressed concern that, "People fear technology." Mr. G also founds it disconcerting that cell phones were not used as an educational tool, stating, "This kid has a device in their hand that they are ready to use. I am really going to be worried about them being on Facebook or texting their friends when they could be engaging in useful material." Mr. G allowed cell phones in his class and reported no problems. Mr. G expressed the view that that was the problem with people and technology. He believed that some teachers did not want to do something new because it was something new, it was threatening, and any type of change might mean that there is something that they do not know how to do. "Teachers are afraid that 'It makes me look not as smart'."

Mr. Pk was frustrated with web sites that have been blocked out. Light Speed was the filter system used by the district and it could be overly restrictive. Most sites could eventually be accessed but required contacting technical support and getting permissions. Access was important to Mr. Pk. His history lessons were about WWII propaganda. He explained, "Elements of propaganda, guilt, shame, nationalism can be tapped into only if teachers and students have access." Ms. Bu reported barriers including that the students were not allowed to interact with each other very much. They worked within educational groups but they slept within platoons. Ms Bu explained, "So often their educational groups are different than their platoons so it is hard for them to stay in contact with others that they are in class with.

They are not allowed to email each other because they are high-risk students and we are trying to limit their interactions with the outside world."

Mr. R discussed problems going through passwords and firewalls just to get to a site as opposed to instantaneously finding information. Mr. R explained, "Like any other profession or person when you do something over and over, you are going to find the shortest routes. Therefore, even with filters, restrictions, passwords, etc., once a route is established it is seldom forgotten."

Ms. Y stated that nothing was lacking, "other than my own lack of knowledge..."

Interview Question #11 - Videos, Other Thoughts

Interview Question #11 asked, "Do you have any additional thoughts or opinions about instructional videos?" This question was asked to learn how teachers might be using instructional videos in ways that were not identified in the literature review (Hobbs, 2006).

Mr. Pp commented on the use of online video sources such as YouTube being use for instructional video. He felt that the source was often questionable as to its integrity and content. Mr. Pp pointed out that YouTube has 100 or 1,000 videos one can choose from online. "Ten years ago and before, there were a lot more production companies producing video on crisis communications. They were selling documentaries and educational

videos to educators. The money and effort required for producing educational video in large-scale sales for institutions compares with a publisher producing a textbook vs. a teacher-prepared reader for the class. There is a certain level of completeness or depth to it, rigor of some kind, which you do not find in some of the YouTube stuff."

Ms. O felt that teachers needed to preview everything they show. For instance, Ms. O discussed the value in previewing the vocabulary from and instructional video. "Show that these are the words we need to know. It is also a good idea to provide them with questions that they have to answer as they are watching the video."

Mr. Pk shared that, "You come to believe and realize that these kids can change, do change, and change is needed." Mr. Pk desired several changes regarding classrooms including "see[ing] the group computers in pods instead of around the outside of the classroom" and "see[ing] each student have his or her own laptop." Mr. Pk looked forward to repeating the next year to refine how things were being done.

Ms. Bu stated, "Improvements in the way of new computers are already happening." Ms. Bu acknowledged "having access to everything that is needed with only a few limitations. The school is also currently planning the addition of more classrooms."

Mr. R felt everything that was needed was there. Mr. R questioned his potentially excessive use of instructional video remarking, "It is a little

shocking to come to the conclusion that is reasonable to say that [I use instructional video] 10 to 12 hours a month but throughout an 8 period day aggregately I think that is pretty accurate."

Mr. Bl, Mr. G and Ms. Y had no comments.

Quantitative Analysis of Interview Questions

In addition to the qualitative analysis, a quantitative analysis of the interview responses was performed to determine what could be discovered from the participants with regards to the Research Questions. This portion of the chapter discusses the quantitative analysis of the interview responses. As a brief reminder, the literature review identified three building blocks of Social Learning Theory: collaboration, modeling, and observation (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec & Menlove, 1966). The interview transcripts were analyzed for these three concepts and each was counted and column percentages were calculated for each participant. As described in Chapter 3, this study also counted acceptable alternatives for each concept. Table 6 provides more detail regarding these calculations.

Regarding the Collaboration Column within Table 6, Mr. Bl had the lowest percentage of word and theme counts, 2%, for the topic of collaboration being implemented through the use of instructional video. Mr. Bl is also a Visual and Performing Arts instructor yet did not place a great

deal of emphasis on the discussion of collaboration. In contrast, Mr. Pk had the highest percentage of acceptable responses for collaboration (20%).

Table 6

Summary of Collaboration, Modeling, and Observation Data by Participant, Count, and Percent

	Key Social Learning Theory Concepts							
	Collab		Model		Observe		Total	
Participant	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Mr. Pp	32	16	25	25	100	30	157	25
Mr. Bl	4	2	9	9	7	2	20	3
Ms. O	23	11	9	9	21	6	53	8
Mr. G	26	13	6	6	46	14	78	12
Mr. Pk	40	20	10	10	28	8	78	12
Ms. Bu	27	13	9	9	24	7	60	9
Mr. R	33	16	14	14	81	25	128	20
Ms. Y	18	9	18	18	23	7	59	9
Total	203	100	100	100	330	99	633	98

Notes: Collab = collaboration, N = number, % = percent. Percentages may not equal 100% due to rounding.

Examples of collaboration in the transcripts include: “students working together and producing a project,” “building knowledge from one another,” and “creating productions together.”

Regarding the Modeling column, Mr. G held the lowest count for percentage of responses although he reported using instructional video approximately 40 hours per month. In contrast, Mr. Pp held the highest score for mention of modeling with 25% of the acceptable responses.

Regarding the Observation column, Mr. Bl again had the lowest counts for discussion of elements that indicated observational learning as a result of using instructional videos. Once again, it was Mr. Pp who had 30% of acceptable responses.

And finally, regarding the totals column, Mr. Pp and Mr. R shared similarly high percentages of responses with 25% and 20% respectively. In contrast Mr. Bl at 3%, Ms. O at 8% and Ms. Y at 9% together had only 20% of the total percentage of responses.

Classroom Observations

A third way that data were collected for this study was by performing classroom observations of periods chosen by the teachers that would provide examples of their instructional video use. With the literature review as a backdrop I analyzed the observational data from four classrooms into four themes:

(1) Physical Layout of the Classroom: Interestingly enough, physical layout of the classroom was not discussed in the literature review.

(2) Teacher-to-Student Interactions (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977).

(3) Student-to-Student Interactions (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977).

(4) Use of Instructional Videos (Ajex, 1999; Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Cuban, 1986).

Each of these themes is described in more detail below.

Physical Layout of the Classroom. In the literature review not much was mentioned regarding physical layout of the classroom. Once I began observing the classrooms, I found it interesting that physical layout of the classroom appeared to play a role in facilitating use of instructional videos.

Mr. Pk used soft-rock music played quietly throughout the class period. The music appeared to enhance the multimedia experience and created familiarity with various types of digital media as part of the learning landscape. Mr. Pk had 18 computers surrounding 3 of four sides of room. The front of room was permanently set up for multimedia presentations using Internet access, digital projector, white boards and high fidelity sound

systems. The physical layouts of the desks were in “U” formations with room for students to move as needed.

Mr. G: Mr. G chose to play classical music at a low volume during quiet work times. The front of room was set up for multimedia presentations and had Internet access, digital projector, high fidelity sound systems, and white boards, Desks were placed in a conventional formation of rows. There were several desktop computer stations at one side of room. In addition, there was an iPad storage cabinet at the rear of room with several iPads for students to access.

Mr. R: The front of room was set up for quick multimedia access and presentation with Internet access, digital projector, white boards, and sound system. Desks were place in conventional formation of rows. The classroom also had a cabinet for storage of digital devices. Several permanent computer terminals were present around the perimeter of the classroom.

Ms. Y: The front of room was set up for multimedia presentations with Internet access, digital projector, white boards, and sound system. Desks were placed in a conventional row formation. The rear half of classroom was dedicated to about 10 permanent computer terminals devoted to math lessons. The computer terminals were designed to facilitate teams and group collaboration by providing at least two seats per terminal. The classroom appeared to be about twice the size of other classrooms visited allowing for the additional computer terminals.

Teacher-to-Student Interactions. The second theme I observed were concrete examples of Teacher-to-Student Interactions as described in the literature (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977). Based on these studies I would expect to find the teacher grasping every opportunity to interact with one or more students. I observed the following teacher-to-student interactions:

Mr. Pk immediately initiated a group activity directly following a brief video presentation. The class lined up according to their view on the death penalty after a short, 1-minute discussion. Individuals expressed views on current controversies and addressed questions about dialogue from the video. Mr. Pk prompted the class with questions such as "What did this guy ask someone to do?" As groups discussed questions, Mr. Pk circulated through room to help individuals and groups as needed. A culminating activity ensued as small groups discussed issues in a large group forum.

Mr. G initiated an English grammar activity by displaying student work that was turned in by students using Gmail with a projection of student responses being shown on an overhead digital projector. Student corrections to an assignment on run-on paragraphs were reviewed and discussed by students in small groups and by the class as a whole. As discussion of text

editing continued, the teacher incorporated use of the digital projector to highlight concerns and corrections. The teacher remained active as a facilitator of the discussions both within small work groups and with the entire class as a whole.

Mr. R informed the class that they would be reading and working independently during this class period. Mr. R continued to circulate throughout the room as students were working. He was available at all times and circulated through room throughout the period to assist individuals as needed.

Ms. Y immediately involved small groups and the entire class in collaborative activities to discuss and address geometry problems being studied. Small groups contributed to whole classroom discussion about formulas and procedures. The discussion continued for 5-10 minutes after which the students dispersed to computer stations. The group collaboration activities continued while working at computer terminals and Ms. Y remained available to interact with class by circulation through room as needed. The students were logged into the Kahn Academy web site and proceeded with already assigned lessons that were in progress. Students were working side-by-side and free to discuss their work with one another. Ms. Y concluded her class by stamping notebooks to apparently provide evidence of attendance or work performed. Teacher-to-student interaction was observed as the

teacher circulated through room helping individuals and small groups with answering questions, clarifying concepts and reinforcing key points.

Student-to-Student Interactions. The third theme I observed was concrete examples of Student-to-Student Interactions as described in the literature (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977).). Based on these studies I would expect to find the teacher facilitating student-to-student interaction and collaboration. I observed the following student-to-student interactions:

Mr. Pk facilitated an activity following a video presentation where students collaborated with one another on themes and questions from a video. Prompts for discussion were on a white board and student responses were shown on a digital overhead projector. Students addressed several key points of the video in a routinized manner progressing through short periods of student discussions. There was a culminating activity that required participation in a whole class discussion including brief team presentations.

Mr. G instructed the class to return to groups that had formed on the previous Monday. English grammar was the subject being taught and group collaboration and participations were major components for implementing the lesson. Groups of 4-6 discussed the subject of road-rage when driving. The groups all participated in 3-minute discussions and submitted strategies to

help avoid episodes of road-rage while being aware of common causes that could be avoided.

An interesting activity was conducted regarding Advice for Impressing Employers, College Instructors, Judges, and Other Influential People. Groups of students practiced communications skills designed specifically for optimizing positive outcomes in situations involving interviews assessments, and important protocols to follow when advancing through complex social events involving judgments, assessments, interviews and basic interaction with potential colleagues, clients, supervisory or administrative staff and among other students. The communications strategies being taught provided a good opportunity for students to continue interacting and collaborating as they practice the principles of SLANT (Sit up straight, Listen, Ask questions, Nod your head, Track the speaker with your eyes). The SLANT activity involved role-playing and modeling skills that were enhanced by active group collaboration that Mr. G initiated. The students observed examples of applying these skills on instructional videos.

Mr. R had several students on computer terminals throughout the room who were allowed to work independently and in teams. No other student-to-student interaction was occurring at this time. Mr. R did briefly explain that he fully considers online assignments to be a legitimate avenue for Teacher-to-Student interaction as well as having a strong potential for Student-to-Student interaction since he provides personal response to

questions and concerns with aid of digital communication tools. Mr. R felt student-to-student interaction was facilitated well online. At this school, no homework was ever assigned and student initiative to work outside of the classroom was virtually non-existent, according to Mr. R.

Ms. Y directed students to work in large and small groups in response to short introductory video. After an initial discussion, students broke into smaller groups or elected to study individually. Students collaborated freely throughout the remainder of class while working on computer and handwritten assignments. Ms. Y used almost all of the multimedia tools capable of delivering instructional video in detailed lesson plans. Student-to-Student interaction was well embraced by the students who clearly had adjusted to the Social Leaning Theory principles this research addresses. Students quickly joined appropriate groups or teams as needed and had obviously become quite adept at working with one another with minimal supervision.

Use of Videos. The fourth theme I observed was the use of videos in real-world settings, consistent with the literature (Ajex, 1999; Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Cuban, 1986). Based on these studies I expected to find the teacher using instructional videos to promote learning and spark conversations. The following observations were noted:

Mr. Pk immediately utilized multimedia in rapid conjunction with a short verbal presentation. Groups were quickly formed and spent brief work

periods viewing videos on laptops, iPads and computer terminals. Brief work periods of video observations and writing were sequenced at short, fast-paced intervals. Time blocks for classes were only 45 minutes. Students were simultaneously working on computers individually during class, which had become a routine activity and was a necessity since this alternative high school did not assign any homework.

Mr. Pk incorporated written assignments in the form of handouts referred to as graphic organizers. The graphic organizers were checklists and outlines of videos being shown and were available to the students online. Using the organizer, students could create graphs, storylines, and an overview of lessons and then develop concepts for later discussion. The graphic organizers also helped encourage research regarding vocabulary, political discussions, and critique of multimedia being used. Throughout the class session brief 3-5 minute periods of direct instruction were followed by classroom activities involving the whole group.

Mr. G explained before class that he was actually using less instructional video during this period than usual. He still had YouTube and ABCnews.com video segments being shown to help facilitate his English grammar lesson. Mr. G also use digital overhead projector to teach use of a ‘T’ Graph (template shown on digital overhead). There were also Internet Web links listed on the white board for video references and the use of social media such as Instagram were being encouraged.

Mr. R had no direct instruction-taking place during this observation. All students were working independently on previous assignments that were already started. Students using iPads and computers were viewing instructional videos. Two students were working on a "national parks" assignment while viewing a documentary by Ken Burns. Two students were viewing movies on iPads about World War II. These students had worksheets they were filling out as they viewed and paused the videos. There was 4 computers total being used during this class session: 2 iPads and 2 desktop terminals. Two students using iPads were viewing what appeared to be movies or documentaries while two other students on computers appeared to be working with text or word processor programs.

Ms. Y began class with a short video off her laptop that was connected to a digital projector. The audio was set up as well on a mobile multimedia rig located at the front of the classroom. The video was a short 5-minute review of math procedures to find the dimensions of a circle. The video was intentionally chosen because it was very old fashioned and "corny". Ms. Y explained to me on the side that she liked the video because it was silly and served to put the students at ease. Her goal was to make math more fun. After students were excused she explained that the school carried an account with the Kahn Academy and utilized the web site for all of the educational services that were available. This included online feedback to student performance that used algorithms to adjust instantaneously to

student input and levels of ability. Students then were able to discuss their personal results and experiences with one another due to the instantaneous feedback from the Kahn Academy program.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of Chapter 5 is to present the findings, discussion, and conclusions of the data presented in Chapter 4. Four types of data were collected for this study: pre-Interview questionnaire, interviews, quantitative data from the interview transcripts, and observational data from participant classrooms. The chapter starts by reviewing the purpose of the study and the research questions. The chapter continues by presenting each research question in detail and the data collected from the interview questions, classroom observations, and the word counts for the key words and acceptable alternatives. The chapter concludes by discussing the implications for theory, implications for practice, and concluding remarks.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' opinions and attitudes regarding the use of instructional videos as applied against the backdrop of a Social Learning Theory framework. The decisions educational leaders make help shape action how lessons are taught and determine what professional development takes place for teachers and related staff (Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2007; Latham & Saari, 1979).

Research Questions, Review

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are teachers' descriptions of their use of instructional video between teacher and student (and among students) to promote learning?
2. What are teachers' views of how instructional videos may (or may not) facilitate learning?
3. What are teachers' views of facilitators and constraints to their use of instructional video?
4. What are views of the use of video to encourage student responsibility for their own construction of knowledge and student social interaction?

Research Question #1 supports the purpose of the study because it directly addresses teachers' use and perception of instructional video within the Social Learning Theory framework as discussed in the literature review. Research Question #2 supports the purpose of the study because it describes not only use of instructional video but also teacher concepts of learning as it relates to Social Learning Theory. Research Question #3 supports the purpose of this study because it addresses concerns over leadership and professional teacher development as they relate to instructional videos. And finally, Research Question #4 supports the purpose

of this study because it explores teacher opinions and values that determine the actual use of instructional video in the classroom.

For each of the research questions that follow, two “best examples” of participant data are presented followed by a summary table of other participant data.

Research Question #1 – Video Use

Research Question #1 asked, “What are teachers' descriptions of their use of instructional video between teacher and student (and among students) to promote learning?”

Examples of Findings. Ms. Bu, of School #1, addresses Research Question #1 by explaining that she uses instructional videos to complement whatever is being discussed in the class. She uses the videos to help add to the information being discussed "just because it's a more interesting format for the students and it's nice for them to hear the same information from a different person." She continued "that it allows the visual learners to have something to watch." In the process of watching an instructional video the students have to complete a hand-written paper "just to keep them focused." Video is used to complement lessons but not as the sole source of information.

Ms. Y, of School #2, made use of student-generated instructional video to promote collaboration and learning. She believed in the power of

creating student-generated video productions to facilitate critical thinking and group collaboration processes. An example was given of having the class make an Animoto video explaining the process of finding the vertex of a parabola in order to assess student progress.

Table 7 summarizes how the other participants used videos.

Summary. In its simplest terms research question one asked, "Do teachers use videos for learning opportunities?" Each of the 8 participants gave examples of how he or she uses videos to create learning opportunities for students. Digging a little deeper, research question #1 addresses if teachers are using instructional videos to promote social interaction and exchange of personal experience within groups (Bandura, 1986; DeVries, 1997).

A good additional example of social interaction and exchange of personal experiences was Mr. Pp. Here Mr. Pp described an event used in conjunction with instructional video that facilitated learning. Mr. Pp believed "the use of student-created videos were an excellent way to create scaffolding for projects where students see examples of each other's work where they can use it to model and shape what they are going to be doing."

Table 7

Research Question #1, by Participant and Examples of Video Use

Participant	Examples of Video Use
Mr. Bl	I like to model a technique live, followed by viewing instructional videos on the same topic, is an interaction with the students that they "can use for remediation or more detail."
Ms. Bu	Uses instructional videos to complement whatever is being discussed in the class. She explains that it is used to "help add to the information being discussed just because it's a more interesting format for the students and it's nice for them to hear the same information from a different person." She continues, "It allows the visual learners to have something to watch."
Ms. O	Explained that by 'flipping' the classroom learning, (following the Kahn Academy practice) the students can watch the instructional videos in the evening, after school, allowing a full discussion of the instructional video the following day during class.
Mr. Pp	Believes use of student-created videos "are an excellent way to create scaffolding for projects where students see examples of each other's work where they can use it to model and shape what they're going to be doing."
Mr. R	Explains that critical thinking skills are applied "especially when watching a video that goes with something the class has already read, like The Great Gatsby. Mr. R looks forward "to the conversations being sparked about the book's adaptation to the screen."

Ms. Bu reported a similar occurrence of social interaction between students where collaboration occurred that took place online rather than face-to-face. Ms. Bu recalled using a video about microbes from the TED

talks (Technology, Entertainment and Design non-profit organization). The students responded online and were able to respond to each other's responses. Ms. Bu explained, "It was a really fun activity and the students were communicating with one another. The students used critical thinking skills in a fun way and I continues to use that activity every other week or so. It still has a sense of newness and has proven an effective way to keep students' interest."

Mr. R's use of instructional video promoted social interaction and learning by promoting discussion between students. Mr. R reported the occurrence of social interaction between the video and the students and the students themselves. The video served as an agent conveying its own message and acting as a participating entity. Mr. R explained that critical thinking skills are applied especially when watching a video that goes with something the class has already read, like The Great Gatsby. Mr. R looked forward to conversations being sparked about the book's adaptation to the screen. He described questions that arose such as "Do the students support the director and producer's use of contemporary music instead of traditional roaring 20's music? Does it bother them that Kanye West is the first song on that soundtrack that is heard in this movie? That conversation might last 20-30 minutes because the class can go back and forth about the merits of that topic alone."

Research Question #2 - Learning

Research Question #2 asked, “What are teachers' descriptions of how instructional videos may (or may not) facilitate learning?“

Examples of Findings. Mr. Pp explained, "In video the lesson becomes reality. People are able to see it in motion and in real time. Video brings the real world into the classroom. When the students start critically thinking they ask what’s this got to do with what’s happening in the real world."

Ms. Y used videos as part of the lessons and as tutorials. She frequently used the Kahn Academy and other online resources. Ms. Y preferred instructional videos as an additional resource to direct instruction. She pointed out that, ”Some students with direct instruction can take it in; they can hear it and they are good. However, today, now, with the students that are here, media is such a prevalent part of all of their life that sometimes a video or a digital source is an easier cue."

Table 8 summarizes the views of the other participants regarding videos facilitating learning.

Table 8

Research Question #2, by Participant and Examples of Videos Facilitating Learning

Participant	Examples of Videos Facilitating Learning
Mr. Bl	Reported the use of instructional video for tutorials regarding how to use software; typically as a quick start to learning an application or for showing a particular technique.
Mr. Bl	Viewed the uses of video tutorials as an opportunity to allow students to work at different paces and catch up on missed work. He continues, "By cloning direct instruction through video it provides freedom as the teacher to address one-on-one the specific obstacles and questions a student has."
Mr. G	Remarked "in regards to completing assignments, engaging in and learning from assignments, it is totally different using instructional videos." He explained that, "There's something about the one-on-one factor with these students that technology allows it to happen and the kids learn more from it."
Mr. Pk	Believed that critical thinking was involved when using instructional video. He explains, "People are fearful of using video because they think it is just putting in the DVD and pressing play and letting the video speak for itself; but if you're doing it in targeted 10, 15 minute chunks and the student have an objective, they have a graphic organizer, they have something to take notes on; you've primed them for it."
Mr. Pp	Believed that when students viewed instructional videos "It aids their conceptual process. In video, theory becomes easier to see and people can understand more how it comes into play. It addresses barriers and channels to communication. "They see it. They are introduced to the whole process including the theoretical approach being talked about. Theory is just theory. In video it becomes reality."

Summary. In its simplest terms research question #2 deals with teacher perceptions of whether or not instructional videos promote learning. Social Learning Theory postulates that individuals must internalize what is learned but that this only occurs socially and cannot be separated from its social context (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Kozulin, 1986, 2004; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993; Vygotsky, 1962, 1978, 1987, 1997, 1998; Vygotsky & Kozulin, 1986).

Mr. BI reinforced the "internal-social" concept when he stated that he models a technique live followed by viewing instructional videos on the same topic that the students can use for remediation or more detail.

Ms. Bu reinforced the "internal-social" concept by attempting to connect with the students' past personal experiences and applications. Ms. Bu would introduce the question and concept she expected the students to learn and use the video as a source of information. Ms. Bu emphasized that; "Getting students to connect it to prior knowledge and getting them to think about how it applies to them is always helpful."

Mr. R believed, "It is the students' responsibility to research the topic. Once that step is completed the students are now ready to meet and touch base." Mr. R continued, "Here is a new story that explains it a little bit more. I will just find something on some local ABC broadcast somewhere. News broadcasts are great, they are key; they are going to be 30, 60, 90 seconds. They are perfect." Student research preceding the viewing of news

broadcasts provides an element of personal experience for the students to draw from. Socially internalizing what is learned is completed when the students meet and touch base regarding the topic being discussed." The lesson described by Mr. R is fully inclusive of the criteria of individuals internalizing what is learned while remaining completely within a social context.

Research Question #3 - Affordances

Research Question #3 asked, “What are teachers' descriptions of facilitators and constraints to their use of instructional video?“

Examples of Findings. Mr. Bl reported barriers including that the students are not allowed to interact with each other often, explaining, "They work within educational groups but they sleep within platoons. So often their educational groups are different than their platoons so it's hard for them to stay in contact with others that they are in class with. They are not allowed to email each other because they're high-risk students and we're trying to limit their interactions with the outside world."

Ms. O said her school district was very supportive of facilitating the use of instructional video technology. She explained, "We have a dedicated technology teacher. We get these things called Tech Slams where we are shown the latest technology used in the classroom and how to use it."

Table 9 summarizes the views of the other participants regarding facilitators or constraints of videos.

Table 9

Research Question #3, by Participant Views on Affordances/Constraints to Video Use

Participant	Affordances/Constraints to Video Use
Mr. Bl	Complains of content filtering making many useful video websites inaccessible over the school network. He feels that imposing strict limitations on website access is a detriment to the learning process.
Mr. G	Described people's fear of the unknown. He explains, "People fear technology." He finds it disconcerting that cell phones are not used as an educational tool and states, "Phones in school are taboo. But, wait a second! This kid has a device in their hand that they are ready to use it."
Ms. O	Would like to see email access between students and teachers improved. She explains, "By having email contact we could contact the students and inform them of important instructions, etc."
Mr. Pk	I am frustrated with web sites that have been blocked out, explaining, "Light Speed is the filter system used by the district and it can be overly restrictive. Most sites can eventually be accessed but require contacting technical support and getting permissions."
Mr. Pp	Noted, "Not all of the rooms are Smart Rooms. There are some rooms that don't have a projector." He recalls having to bring a hand held projector with a personal computer, and cords, to show an educational or instructional video.
Mr. R	Indicates satisfaction with district facilitation of equipment needs explaining, "Everything that is needed is there."

Summary. In its simplest terms research question #3 explores teachers' opinions about what facilitates or constrains instructional video use. The literature review discusses the theoretical implications of Social Learning Theory but not the practical use faced by teachers on a daily basis.

Ms. Bu (not in Table 9) and Mr. R had positive remarks in regards to district support of instructional video use. Ms. Bu acknowledged district facilitation of instructional video use by currently having access to everything that is needed with only a few limitations. Likewise, Mr. R felt all material needs for instructional video equipment already existed and stated that everything that is needed is there. Conversely, Mr. R, as with Ms. O, expressed difficulties with online access issues. Mr. R discussed problems (not in Table 9) going through passwords and firewalls just to get there as opposed to instantaneously finding what is needed. Ms. Bu had similar connectivity concerns that were more focused on lack of student access.

Ms. Bu reported barriers including that the students are not allowed to interact with each other very much, they work within educational groups but they sleep within platoons. "So often their educational groups are different than their platoons so it is hard for them to stay in contact with others that they are in class with. They are not allowed to email each other because they are high-risk students and we are trying to limit their interactions with the outside world."

A common theme that continues to emerge from the research indicated that for each new level of technological advancement reached that might facilitate instructional video use, repercussions occur that prohibit and restrict or otherwise constrain the use of the educational technology. As with all new innovations there is repeated evidence of many wrinkles to be worked out. This does not diminish in any way the use or increase of use of the medium but does provide a preview of consistent patterns in adjusting to ongoing technological innovation.

Mr. Pk was frustrated with web sites that have been blocked out. Light Speed is the filter system used by the district and it can be overly restrictive. Most sites can eventually be accessed but require contacting technical support and getting permissions. Access is important to Mr. Pk. His history lessons were about WWII propaganda. Elements of propaganda, guilt, shame, nationalism can be tapped into only if teachers and students have access.

Mr. Bl complained of content filtering making many useful video websites inaccessible over the school network.

Mr. Pp stated that not all of the rooms are Smart Rooms. There are some rooms that do not have a projector. Mr. Pp recalled having to bring a hand held projector with a personal computer, and cords, to show an educational or instructional video.

Research Question #4 – Teacher Student Interactions

Research Question #4 asked, “What are teachers' descriptions of their use of instructional video between teacher and student (and among students) to promote learning?“

Examples of Findings. Mr. Bl used quick start tutorials from www.toolkit21.com for his Video Production classes. He believed that critical thinking is involved in taking a technique and having to apply it to a different task or project.

Mr. R believed it is the students' responsibility to research the topic, explaining, "Once that step is completed the students are now ready to meet and touch base. Mr. R continued, "Here's a news story that explains it a little bit more. I will just find something on some local ABC broadcast somewhere. News broadcasts are great, they are key; they are going to be 30, 60, 90 seconds. They are perfect. Student research preceding the viewing of news broadcasts provides an element of personal experience for the students to draw from. Socially internalizing what is learned is completed when the students meet and touch base regarding the topic being discussed."

Table 10 summarizes the other participants.

Table 10

Research Question #4, by Participant and Examples of Student Construction of Knowledge and Social Interaction

Participant	Examples of Students Constructing Knowledge
Ms. Bu	Recalled using a video about microbes from the TED talks (Technology, Entertainment and Design) that she felt promoted critical thinking skills. The students responded online and were able to respond to each other's responses. Ms. Bu explained, "It was a really fun activity and the students were communicating with one another."
Mr. G	Explained, "Promoting critical thinking skills is probably the most important concern about what teachers do with video-based assignments. If students are just watching a video and there's no checking for understanding then it's not going to matter."
Ms. O	Explains, "After watching a video on budgeting the class practices with real-life scenarios. For example, an unexpected doctor bill for $300 or an unexpected car repair being need requires critical thinking skills. Students will have to rework their budget and determine how to make it balance."
Ms. Y	Believes in "the power of creating student-generated video productions to facilitate critical thinking and group collaboration processes." An example was given of having the class make an Animoto video explaining the process of finding the vertex of a parabola in order to assess student progress.

Summary. In essence, research question #4 deals with promoting learning through instructional video use. Bandura (1977) hypothesized that the construct of self-efficacy influenced the levels of effort determination and persistence a student would expend when confronted with an educational task.

Mr. Bl (not in Table 10) viewed the use of video tutorials as an opportunity to allow students to work at different paces and catch up on missed work. Mr. Bl explained that "cloning" direct instruction through video provides freedom, as the teacher can address one-on-one the specific obstacles and questions a student has. Being able to devote special attention to individual students as needed enables the student to achieve the desired task at hand and therefore simultaneously promotes the students' belief in their ability to do what they set out to do.

Mr. G provides a similar example of how instructional video helped an individual receive more personal attention. Mr. G was able to put History Channel documentaries on a class web site, create supplemental material for the students (or use supplemental material already available), and provide immediate access to this information for the entire class. Mr. G recalls that in this way, attention could be given to just one student who was really struggling and he loved it. The student was able to not only finish the assignment but also ask for more. The evidence of self-efficacy being reinforced by the student's desire to continue learning is strong. Once the student realized they were capable, the student became more confident in their ability to remain capable. He also addressed critical thinking (Table 10).

Mr. R (not in Table 10) also felt teacher-to-student interaction is facilitated through instructional video. Mr. R went on line and searched Everest base camp trek and found hundreds of homemade videos people

had made from their treks. Mr. R followed up by having students find a video and watch it. The assignment was to write down what the scenery is like. "Give details about how difficult the trail looks and make cultural observations. How do the people there seem to be different?" Mr. R explained that although non-verbal, the process of writing is an interaction.

Mr. Bl (not in Table 10) suggested that students could make screencasts of their learnings to teach other students using an online program. Mr. Bl described a potentially rich interactive project in the production of screencasts by students. The principles of learning within the Social Learning Theory framework are further met by using an online form of communication by which the students reach other students. Interactions among students is relatively clear in the production of screencasts however it is unclear whether the students targeted online are interacting with the student-producers of the production. Nonetheless, the potential for a full circle of interactive learning is present and likely to promote positive self-efficacious results.

Implications for Theory

This study also offers support for teachers using the collaborative, observational and modeling concepts that are the building blocks of Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1995, 1997). Specifically with regards to collaboration, one example is how Mr. Pk used video-based assignments for

assessments where he observed interaction among students interacting with each other. Mr. Pk can listen to conversations between students and was able to assess student comprehension of materials. With regards to observation, one example is how Mr. R followed up by having students find a video and watch it. As noted above, the assignment was to write down what the scenery is like. "Give details about how difficult the trail looks and make cultural observations. How do the people there seem to be different?" Mr. R explained that although non-verbal, the process of writing is an interaction. With regards to modeling, one example is how Mr. Bl reinforced the "internal-social" concept when he states that he models a technique live followed by viewing instructional videos on the same topic that the students could use for remediation or more detail.

This study also offers evidence of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a student's belief in his or her capability to produce a desired effect as a result of their actions (Bandura, 1977, 1978, 2000, 2002, 2005). As suggested above, Mr. Bl viewed the use of video tutorials as an opportunity to allow students to work at different paces and catch up on missed work. Mr. Bl explained that by "cloning" direct instruction through video it provides freedom as the teacher to address one-on-one the specific obstacles and questions a student has. Being able to devote special attention to individual students as needed enables the student to achieve the desired task at hand

and therefore simultaneously promoted the students' belief in their ability to do what they set out to do, according to Mr. Bl.

Implications for Practice

One of the implications from practice came from the classroom observations. The literature review did not mentioned much about classroom layout. Once I began observing, I found it interesting that the physical layout of the classroom appeared to play a role in facilitating the use of instructional videos. In Ms. Y's classroom, the front of the room was set up for multimedia presentations with Internet access, digital projector, white boards, and a sound system. Desks were placed in a conventional row formation. The rear half of classroom was dedicated to about 10 permanent computer terminals devoted to math lessons. The computer terminals were designed to facilitate teams and group collaboration by providing at least two seats per terminal. The classroom appeared to be about twice the size of other classrooms visited on this school's campus allowing for the additional computer terminals.

Educational leaders who are considering the use of instructional videos to augment teaching and learning opportunities should consider the barriers pointed out in this study. Mr. R discussed problems going through passwords and firewalls just to get there as opposed to instantaneously finding information. Mr. R explained that like any other profession or person

when you do something over and over, you are going to find the shortest routes. Therefore, even with filters, restrictions, passwords, etc., once a route is established it is seldom forgotten. Similarly, Ms. Y stated that what was lacking was nothing "other than my own lack of knowledge...", suggesting that districts provide opportunities for sharing regarding computer use (Cook & Collinson, 2013).

Educational leaders must be cognizant that technology brings unexpected emotions. Mr. G expressed the view that he believes the problem with people and technology is fear. He believed that some teachers might not want to do something new because it is something new, it is threatening, and/or it might mean that there is something that they do not know how to do. Teachers are afraid that "It makes me look not as smart" according to Mr. G.

This study performed brief classroom observations as one of three data collection activities. Two interesting concepts emerged from these classroom observations. First, the literature does not describe the physical layout of the room (noted above). For example, how does the physical layout of the room facilitate or hinder applying principals of Social Learning Theory? More specifically, in this study participants spoke of using music as part of an instructional video setting. How does room layout and placement of desks affect the student interactions in regards whatever instructional video

medium is used? How does physical layout need to adapt to different technologies, if at all?

Second, the research on Social Learning Theory that was reported in the literature review occurred well before computers, student creation of videos, and other digital technologies. Although children live in a world of mass media, the literature review does not fully address the various environments that might exist in which the media is being used, because some of the research of the literature review was conducted before the advent of computers. Much current research has used television and fictional films to enhance teaching of subjects such as language arts, social studies and history. However, literature is scarce regarding integration of instructional video use specifically within the Social Learning Theory framework (Weller & Burcham, 1990). Teachers can easily access films and video, find it easy to integrate into their curriculum and use a variety of teaching styles when doing so (Ajex, 1999).

Further research on the use of instructional video is warranted in order to make the best use of this constantly changing and influential medium using Social Learning Theory constructs such as collaboration, modeling and observation.

Lastly, further research could be done triangulating participant self-report data with actual classroom observations.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' views and use of instructional videos as applied within the Social Learning Theory framework. The decisions made by leaders help shape action as to how lessons are taught in determining what professional development takes place for teachers and related staff (Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2007; Latham & Saari, 1979). This study sought to describe how Social Learning Theory is implemented in the classroom. This study found evidence of collaboration, observation, and modeling which are key underpinnings of Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977).

There was evidence of benefits to students when teachers engaged in teaching and learning opportunities that focused on Social Learning Theory principles (Bandura, 1977, 1995, 1997). Teachers who intentionally direct lesson plans to promote Social Learning Theory concepts will ideally lead to students acquiring lifetime practices of collaboration, modeling and observation. In this particular study, it was found that most of the eight participants consciously and methodically work towards improving their teaching practices using those Social Learning Theory concepts in conjunction with the latest forms of instructional video technology. Some of the study's participants were relatively new as teachers yet seemed to have a heightened awareness and sense of urgency in providing the most

effective methods to provide an environment of collaboration, observation and modeling for each student.

As video technology advances, the opportunities to more fully interact within the full realm of instructional video use increases. Teachers and students are inundated with choices of software and devices that provide the opportunity for group interaction and learning within the Social Learning Theory framework.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A, Human Participants Approval

Researcher: Mary Brenner, (805) 893-7118, betsy@education.ucsb.edu

Key Code: GSED-BR-MA-007

Protocol No: GSED-BR-MA-007-61U

Project No: 61

Purpose: Study for dissertation.

Human Participants Title: Social Learning Theory and Instructional Videos: An Exploratory Study

Name Investigators: Sharon Conley (805)-893-7199, sconley@education.ucsb.edu

Name Associate Investigators: Stephen Rotondo (805) 748-5359, srotondo@education.ucsb.edu

Participants:

Age range of subject population: 21-70.

Participants are high school teachers from three alternative high schools located in San Luis Obispo. Primary subjects of interest are teachers who currently use instructional videos in their classrooms. There are no special conditions present in the subject population. The schools provided contact information. Most contact information is publicly available excluding personal email, telephone and mailing addresses. Personal information is not available and will not be made public. No students participated in this study. The dominant language is English.

Location:

Three alternative high schools in California have agreed to participate in this study.

Participants were interviewed on site in classrooms and/or offices or by phone when personal visit is not an option. Informed Consent forms were administered prior to each interview.

Procedures:

Purpose and design of project: Exploratory study through interviews of secondary school teacher experiences and uses of instructional videos within the Social Learning Theory framework. Interviews were used to collect data regarding teacher practices, perceptions and experiences using instructional videos and their potential use within the Social Learning Theory framework. No manipulation or interventions are planned. Information was solicited in person or by telephone. This study used two interviews. The first interview lasted approximately 60-90 minutes followed by a second follow-up interview that lasted approximately 15-20 minutes. Personal face-to-face interviews were conducted where possible with the alternative of phone interviews if necessary due to scheduling or availability constraints. Either type of interview required a signed consent form. Audio recording devices were used to record and transcribe interviews. No video was taken. No incentives were provided. There was no physical contact with the participants. There are no safety hazards regarding equipment use.

Risks and Safeguards:

There was no psychological risks involved in this study. This was a study of routine instructional methods and did not address personal topics.

There were no physical risks involved.

There is no confidentiality/privacy risk involved. All identities were kept confidential. Access to personal data was restricted to primary researcher and chair of dissertation committee.

No safeguards are necessary. No personal data was revealed from the data collection methods.

All personal information was protected and kept solely by primary researcher in digital or hardcopy form.

Codes for labeling recordings and data were kept solely by primary researcher.

Data was stored on digital voice recorder, personal laptop and desktop computer, personal thumb drive and in field notes all of which was maintained and secured by the researcher.

All data was destroyed after the study was completed.

Computers are password protected and thumb drives were kept secure by deleting all data after transfer to computer.

Consent:

The Informed Consent Form was given to each participant prior to each interview.

Benefits:

Increased understanding of secondary school teacher experiences and uses of instructional videos within a Social Learning Theory framework may benefit educators by providing a better understanding of the potential benefits available from utilizing the most current educational tools using the most beneficial pedagogical practices. Video is a familiar and frequently preferred choice of communication by many young people. Understanding the implementation and integration of instructional video as an educational tool into the classroom and curriculum within the Social Learning Theory framework is beneficial for all subject matter.

Appendix B, Informed Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT FOR RESEARCH STUDY

PURPOSE: You are being asked to voluntarily participate in a research study in support of a dissertation at the University of California Santa Barbara. The purpose of the is to learn about the use of instructional videos in a high school setting. The study seeks opinions and attitudes from high school teachers about instructional videos. You will be identified as a randomly assigned color such as, “Ms. Bu.” No other identification will be used to link you to your participation in this study or your school.

PROCEDURES: The interview will ask you questions about the use of instructional videos in a high school setting. In addition, you will be asked a few demographic questions (age, gender, years teaching, etc.) so the readers of the study have a general context and understanding of the participants. In total, there will be about 8 to 12 participants in this study. If you volunteer for this study your participation will take about an hour.

RISKS: There are no known or foreseeable risks to answering interview questions.

BENEFITS: The results of this study may be used to improve high school teacher education and practices.

ANONYMITY: We do not need, nor will we use, any personal identification during this study. We are asking for your name only so you can fill out this consent form; and the demographic information so we can describe the participants as a whole. You will be assigned a random color pseudonym as your name, Ms. Bu, for example, and this will be used in reports of this research. There is no link between your random color and this consent form.

RIGHT TO REFUSE OR WITHDRAW: You may refuse to participate, or withdraw your participation at any time, and your decision will have no bearing on your practical exercise.

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATORS DISCLOSURE OF PERSONAL AND FINANCIAL INTERESTS IN THE RESEARCH AND STUDY SPONSOR: This is the Principal Investigator’s doctoral dissertation research. The principal and associate investigators do not have a personal or financial interest in this study. The costs of this study are being paid by the graduate student conducting this study.

QUESTIONS: If you have any questions about this study, you would like to learn the results of this study, or you think you may have been injured as a result of your participation in this study, please contact: Steve Rotondo, srontondo@education.ucsb.edu. You may also contact the UCSB Human Participants Committee at (805) 893-3807 or hsc@research.ucsb.edu. Or write to the University of California, Human Participants Committee, Office of Research, Santa Barbara, CA 93106-2050.

PARTICIPATION IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY IS VOLUNTARY. YOUR SIGNATURE BELOW WILL INDICATE THAT YOU HAVE DECIDED TO PARTICIPATE AS A RESEARCH SUBJECT IN THE STUDY DESCRIBED ABOVE. THANKS.

Printed Name: _____

Signature of
Participant:_____Date:_____Time:_____

Human Participants Approval #:

Version: 2014-01-06

Appendix C, Tables

Table 1

Linking the Interview Questions to the Research Questions

Interview Questions	Research Questions
1., 2., 3., 4., 8., & 9.	1. What are teachers' descriptions of their use of instructional video between teacher and student (and among students) to promote learning?
4., 5., & 12.	2. What are teachers' views of how instructional videos may (or may not) facilitate learning?
10., 11., & 12.	3. What are teachers' views of facilitators and constraints to their use of instructional video?
6., 7., & 12.	4. What are views of the use of video to encourage student responsibility for their own construction of knowledge and student social interaction?

Notes: The prompts for each interview question were not listed and are discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

Table 2

Linking the Interview Questions to the Literature Review

Interview Questions	Literature Review
1.	Brenner, 2006; Hobbs, 2006; Kvale, 1996, 2009; Kvale & Brinkman, 2009.
2.	Brenner, 2006; Hobbs, 2006; Kvale, 1996, 2009; Kvale & Brinkman, 2009.
3.	Ajex, 1999; Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Cuban, 1986.
4.	Fulton, 2012; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hanley, Herron & Cole, 1995; Parslow, 2012; Thompson, 2011.
5.	Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Fulton, 2012; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hanley, Herron & Cole, 1995; Kvale, 1996; Parslow, 2012; Thompson, 2011; Van Laarhoven & Van Laarhoven-Myers, 2006.
6.	Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977.
7.	Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1977.
8.	Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977, 1986; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979.

9.	Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1977; Bandura, Grusec, Menlove, 1966; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hobbs, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979.
10.	Hobbs (2006).
11.	Hobbs (2006).
12.	Brenner, 2006; Kvale, 1996, 2009; Kvale & Brinkman, 2009.
13.	None.

Notes: The prompts for each interview question were not listed and are discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.