



T.C.

AKDENİZ UNIVERSITY

THE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

**MA
THESIS**

**THE IMPACT OF ONLINE INFORMAL
LEARNING OF ENGLISH ON
VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF
HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS**

SEREN ÖZGÜR

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
MASTER'S THESIS**

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Supervisor

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Fatma Özlem SAKA

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DOĞRULUK BEYANI

Yüksek lisans tezi olarak sunduğum bu çalışmayı, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yol ve yardıma başvurmaksızın yazdığımı, yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçalarda gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu ve bu eserleri her kullanışında alıntı yaparak yararlandığımı belirtir; bunu onurumla doğrularım. Enstitü tarafından belli bir zamana bağlı olmaksızın, tezimle ilgili yaptığım bu beyana aykırı bir durumun saptanması durumunda ortaya çıkacak tüm ahlaki ve hukuki sonuçlara katlanacağımı bildiririm.

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Impact of Online Informal Learning of English on Vocabulary Knowledge of High School Students

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To my dear grandmother and grandfather, Fatma ÖZGÜR and Hüseyin ÖZGÜR...

*“Do not go gentle into that good night,
Rage, rage against the dying of the light.”
-Dylan Thomas*

ABSTRACT

The Impact of Online Informal Learning of English on Vocabulary Knowledge of High School Students

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Master of Arts, Department of Foreign Language Education

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In the light of previous studies, this study focused on the role of Online Informal English Learning (OILE) activities in the daily lives of 9th- and 10th-graders in Turkey and tried to explain which informal activities they engaged in more frequently. In addition, it aimed to reveal the relationship between students' out-of-class English activities and their English vocabulary levels. To achieve the aim of the research, a quantitative research method was adopted. The students' daily OILE activities and frequencies were collected using a questionnaire, and their vocabulary levels were determined by the Vocabulary Level Test (VLT). 247 9th and 10th grade Anatolian High School students participated in the study. The results showed that the students in the study were regularly and frequently exposed to English text, audio, and videos through online informal activities. In this context, it was determined that the OILE activity that the students included in the study were most frequently exposed to English through listening to music in English, followed by watching English-speaking videos. It has been observed that a significant amount of time is devoted to movies, and TV series & shows, and it has been found that English-spoken media are mostly watched with Turkish or English subtitles. Playing English single and multiplayer computer games, on the contrary, were among the least preferred activities. In multiplayer games, English interactions are mostly based on writing and reading skills. In addition to this, encounter to or using English on social media was mostly through following social media accounts, sharing English content via messages, and searching on and reading websites; texting in English was the rarest OILE activity. 10th graders spend more time in activities such as social media, messaging, and websites than 9th graders, and that especially their habits of playing computer games differ between genders. Vocabulary levels differed between the 10th- and 9th-graders, and the VLT scores of the 10th-graders were significantly higher. A positive correlation between OILE and word-level emerged from the analysis. This correlation showed a positive correlation, especially with watching videos and reading websites. Within subtitle habits and VLT, watching Turkish dubbing and Turkish subtitled media was negatively correlated, while watching with or without English subtitles was positively correlated with VLT. Finally, students were asked where they learned their English, and their opinions and vocabulary levels were compared. The majority stated that they learned English from school, but the vocabulary levels of those who stated that they learned it outside of school were significantly higher. Finally, previous studies were evaluated by considering the Turkish EFL context and concluded with suggestions for English Teachers and policymakers.

Keywords: *Online Informal Learning of English vocabulary levels, EFL, vocabulary acquisition, out-of-class language learning.*

ÖZET

Çevrimiçi İnfomal İngilizce Öğreniminin Lise Öğrencilerinin Kelime Dağarcığına Etkisi

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Bu çalışma, geçmiş çalışmaların ışığında, Türkiye’deki 9 ve 10. sınıfların Çevrimiçi İnfomal İngilizce Öğrenme (OILE) aktivitelerinin hayatlarındaki yerine odaklanmış, İngilizceye daha çok hangi informal yollarla maruz kaldığını açıklamaya çalışmıştır. Bunun yanı sıra, öğrencilerin yürüttüğü sınıf dışı İngilizce aktiviteleri ile onların İngilizce kelime seviyesi arasındaki korelasyonu ortaya çıkarmayı hedeflemiştir. Araştırmanın hedeflerine ulaşmak için, nicel araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Öğrencilerin günlük OILE etkinlikleri ve sıklıkları anket ile toplanmış, kelime seviyeleri ise Kelime Seviye Testi (VLT) ile belirlenmiştir. Çalışmaya 247 9 ve 10. sınıf Anadolu Lisesi öğrencisi katılmıştır. Sonuçlardan, çalışmadaki öğrencilerin çevrimiçi informal aktiviteler üzerinden düzenli ve sık olarak İngilizce metin, konuşma ve videolara maruz kaldığı görülmüştür. Bu bağlamda, çalışmaya dahil olan öğrencilerin en sık İngilizceye maruz kaldığı OILE aktivitesinin İngilizce müzik dinlemek olduğu saptanmış, bu aktiviteyi İngilizce konuşulan videoları izleme takip etmiştir. Film ve TV dizi & programlarına da önemli ölçüde zaman ayrıldığı görülmüş, İngilizce medyaların çoğunlukla Türkçe altyazılı veya İngilizce altyazılı olarak izlendiği bulunmuştur. En az tercih edilen aktiviteler arasında İngilizce tek ve çok oyunculu bilgisayar oyunları oynamanın olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Çok oyunculu oyunlarda, İngilizce etkileşimlerin çoğunlukla yazma ve okuma becerileri üzerinden olduğu görülmüştür. Bunun yanı sıra, sosyal medya üzerinden İngilizce ile karşılaşma veya dili kullanma, çoğunlukla sosyal medya hesaplarını takip ederek, mesaj ile İngilizce içerik paylaşmak ve internet sitelerinde arama ve okuma yapmak için İngilizceyi kullanmak olmuş; İngilizce mesajlaşma ise en nadir yürütülen OILE aktivitesi olarak bulunmuştur. Sosyal medya, mesajlaşma, internet siteleri gibi aktivitelerde 10. sınıfların 9. sınıflara oranla daha fazla zaman ayırdıkları, ayrıca özellikle bilgisayar oyunu oynama alışkanlıklarının cinsiyetler arasında farklı olduğu ortaya konmuştur. Kelime seviyesi ise 10. ve 9. sınıflar arasında farklılık göstermiş, 10. sınıfların VLT puanları anlamlı olarak daha yüksek çıkmıştır. OILE ile kelime seviyesi arasında pozitif korelasyon bulunmuştur. Kelime seviyeleri, özellikle video izleme ve internet sitesi okuma ile pozitif korelasyon göstermiştir. Altyazı alışkanlıkları ve VLT arasında ise, Türkçe dublaj ve Türkçe altyazılı medya izlemenin negatif yönde, İngilizce altyazılı veya altyazısız izlemek pozitif yönde VLT ile ilişkili bulunmuştur. Öğrencilerin İngilizceyi daha çok nerede öğrendikleri sorulmuş, görüşleri ile kelime seviyeleri karşılaştırılmıştır. Çoğunluk İngilizceyi okuldan öğrendiğini belirtmiş, fakat okul dışından öğrendiğini belirtenlerin kelime seviyeleri anlamlı olarak yüksek çıkmıştır. Son olarak, önceki çalışmalar Türk EFL bağlamı ile ele alınarak değerlendirilmiş, İngilizce Öğretmenleri ve yabancı dil programı yapıcılara öneriler ile sonlanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Çevrimiçi İnfomal İngilizce Öğrenimi, kelime seviyeleri, EFL, kelime edinimi, sınıf dışı dil öğrenimi.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

With the rapid spread of digital technologies, people's everyday lives have become increasingly involved with the internet for leisure, work, and countless other activities. These activities include the use of English by means of exposure to English media and interaction with people all around the world. Hence, numerous opportunities have appeared for developing language skills through exposure and interaction with the language, especially for the learners whose opportunities for language use are limited to classroom settings.

Until now, the engagement with the target language outside of the classroom was only possible through interaction with written texts and face-to-face communication with the target language speakers or living in the country where the target language is spoken. Considering the use of the target language, the possibilities for one to use the target language communicatively in the contexts where the target language is identified as a foreign language were scarce. As a result of the recent advancements and increase in accessibility to the internet, researchers in the area have begun to investigate the growing phenomenon of using online activities involving the target language and their effects on language development.

The recent body of research on the subject has revealed the potential of informal involvement with the target language regarding language learning. Earlier research by Toffoli and Sockett (2010) suggested that more than half of the students who attended English classes were regularly involved in online informal language activities. Another study focusing on the media exposure of the children who have no prior English instruction discovered that the media exposure correlated positively with the Dutch-English translation skills of the children (Kuppens, 2010). After a decade of these earlier studies, new evidence (Hannibal Jensen, 2019; Kusyk, 2017; Lai et al., 2015; Lee & Dressman, 2018) has suggested the changing habits of the foreign language learners' involvement with the target language as the new digital technologies and the expanding use of the internet increased the accessibility to English media. Thus, the changing face of the language learners' engagements with online English resources should be investigated to shed light to present affordances for language learning beyond the classroom.

The earlier and recent studies and the theoretical background of the online informal language engagements of the language learners will be discussed in depth in the following chapters.

1.2. Background of the Study

To date, the occasions for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students to come into contact with the language were limited within the classroom context (Lamb, 2002), and most of the previous research, theory, and practice in the field focused on this particular language learning and teaching environment, the classrooms (Richards, 2015). The emergence of the various digital technologies has given learners an array of opportunities to acquire and use the language communicatively and in a naturalistic way beyond the classroom setting (Benson, 2011a; Nunan & Richards, 2015). Today, most learners spend their time connected to the Internet and digital devices. This change in the learners' daily lives led researchers to investigate the effects of the engagements, especially in terms of language learning. The focus of research has begun to shift to these informal digital spaces.

Though informal learning is not a new concept, digital technologies enabled new opportunities that were nonexistent in the past. Before the prevalence of digital technologies and the internet, informal learning has been considered unfavourable regarding possible language outcomes and availability of the authentic language within the environment of foreign language learners. The informal settings consisted of a limited number of activities, such as travelling abroad, reading English newspapers and novels available, listening to the radio and watching TV in English, and using e-mail in English (Benson et al., 2003; Dressman, 2020; Lamb, 2002; Pickard, 1996; Yap, 1998).

Compared to 2000, internet use has grown approximately 1200%, and at present, more than half of the world population are considered internet users (Internet World Stats, 2020). The growth in accessibility to the internet has opened up a vast array of new language learning possibilities within the daily life of language learners. Those possibilities could include interest-driven practices such as watching films, playing video games, surfing the internet, and watching videos through streaming platforms or social media.

Changing habits of learners' involvement with the target language has led the research field to flourish, bringing new concepts and definitions regarding informal language learning.

Defining informal language learning as any kind of involvement with the language outside the classroom setting would be problematic because of its broad scope. Taking into account the lack of framework on the subject, Benson (2011a) proposed a framework that involves four dimensions for learning a language outside the classroom; location, formality, pedagogy, and locus of control. Location refers to the setting where learning takes place, such as learning the language out-of-class or in extramural settings, and the formality dimension refers to the distinction between the formal and informal aspects of learning and teaching. Benson describes the dimension of pedagogy to distinguish between self-instruction and more naturalistic learning of the language. The fourth dimension, locus of control, focuses on the decisions about learning and teaching, whether the learners or the teachers make decisions. The proposed framework of Benson is indeed helpful for understanding language learning beyond the classroom. However, as he points out himself, the framework is “somewhat rudimentary” (Benson & Reinders, 2011, p. 15). Benson (2007) mostly focuses on the deliberate intentions to learn a language, such as “taking classroom-based language courses to find opportunities for language learning and use outside class” (p. 26) and leaves little room for analyzing various types of the unintentional involvement with the language in digital spaces (Sokkett, 2014).

Benson (2011b) has defined out-of-class learning as “any kind of learning that takes place outside the classroom” (p. 77), and such kind of learning could involve self-instruction, naturalistic learning, or self-directed naturalistic learning. Though Benson’s definition of out-of-class learning may seem to involve any kind of learning activity –and thus covering the learners’ unintentional language involvement using the internet-; he points out that most of the out-of-class learning takes the form of “‘self-directed naturalistic learning’, in which the learner engages in language use for pleasure or interest, but also with the broader intention of learning.” (Benson, 2011b, p. 139). Therefore, the definition mainly covers the deliberate learning of English and may exclude the learners who do not have an explicit objective of language learning while engaging with the language.

The ubiquity and breadth of today’s opportunities for language involvement have blurred the distinction between the previous terms, such as informal, incidental, and deliberate out-of-school language learning. Consequently, new definitions involving new scopes of research have been coined by researchers in the field of language education. Conceptualization of informal language learning has taken the terms such as Toffoli and Sokkett's (2015) Online Informal Learning of English (OILE), Lee and Dressman's (2018) Informal Digital Learning of

English (IDLE), or Sundqvist and Sylvén's (2014) Extramural English (EE), or Cole and Vanderplank's (2016) fully autonomous self-instructed learners (FASILs) to investigate further the phenomenon of the language learning beyond the classroom contexts. Although the terms are similar in terms of the scope, they differ in their view of the intention of the language learners and the occasions the learners are involved in informal engagements with the target language. Sundqvist (2009) reserved Extramural English for any involvement with English outside the classroom walls regardless of the learners' intention. However, Sundqvist (2009) has underlined the fact that such activities are mostly voluntary on the part of the learner, though the deliberate intention is not excluded from the concept.

On the other hand, Sockett (2014) defines Online Informal Learning of English as a range of activities learners carry out online, and in this context, language development emerges from the learners' intention to communicate in the target language; in other words, the development is mostly a by-product of these activities. Emphasizing the self-directed nature of the informal language involvements, Lee (2017) conceptualizes IDLE as informal English learning using various digital tools and resources independent from formal education. Terms and concepts that have been brought into the field reflect a continuous effort on the theoretical framework of informal learning (Sockett & Toffoli, 2020) and are provided throughout research opportunities in the field.

Growing practices of out-of-school language involvement of the learners not only flourished the field by bringing new concepts and scopes of research but also brought the classroom instruction into question by the educators and researchers. Variations in the forms and practices of the classroom make it challenging to present the contributions of the classroom instruction (Benson, 2017). Furthermore, whether instruction itself affects second language acquisition has been argued over the years (Ellis, 1984). For instance, the developmental sequences cannot be altered through instruction; even more, the instruction can have an adverse effect on the acquisition process by slowing it down (VanPatten & Williams, 2015b). Even though it is widely assumed that classroom instruction provides 'some' benefits for language learning, such as accelerating and extending learners' progress, out-of-class language involvement also plays a vital role for learners to reach high levels of proficiency in the target language. Developing second or foreign language (L2, from now on) competence in the classroom settings is the most possible through providing a sufficient amount of opportunities for learners to participate in language interaction (Ellis, 2005). However, in a foreign language

teaching context, opportunities for sufficient L2 input and output offered in the classroom settings are limited because of shortcomings such as unfavourable class size, limited time, and lack of opportunity for authentic communication. As Ellis (1994) suggests, the learners obtain the most benefit from formal language instruction when it is reinforced with natural exposure to the target language. Therefore, through out-of-class language opportunities for L2 input and interaction in addition to the instruction, language learners could achieve high levels of L2 proficiency.

Supporting the idea, the successful language learners tend to seek opportunities to use the language in out-of-class settings, and they attribute their L2 achievements to continuous engagement with the target language (Lamb, 2002; Nunan, 1991; Pearson, 2004; Pickard, 1996; Richards, 2015). Similarly, the learners' frequency of informal language involvement has been found to be positively correlated with their L2 achievement in terms of various aspects of language learning, including vocabulary knowledge (Çetinkaya Bektaş, 2021; Ertürk, 2021; İnci, 2021; Sundqvist, 2009), overall proficiency (De Wilde et al., 2020b; De Wilde & Eyckmans, 2017; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012), and motivation (Lamb, 2007; Lamb & Arisandy, 2020; Özgür & Caner, 2022). Indeed, suggesting a causal relationship between learners' frequency of informal language contact and their L2 achievement is no easy task, as it is not possible to know for certain whether learners become more proficient in L2 thanks to the informal language activities they carry out, or learners with higher L2 proficiency engage in these informal language activities when compared to the less proficient learners (Sundqvist, 2009). Nevertheless, the apparent relationship between engaging informal language activities and L2 achievement indicates great potential in terms of language learning.

In addition to its potential for improved language learning outcomes, the language learners' experiences with informal language learning need to be investigated in order to form a more coherent representation of language learning. As Klein and Dimroth (2009) emphasize, it is necessary to examine language acquisition outside the classroom without the influence of teaching in order to inform the principles of second language acquisition. Furthermore, examining naturalistic learning may also have implications for classroom instruction to assist language learners better and enhance our ability to efficiently reach a broader range of learners (Polat & Kim, 2014). Thus, the investigation of the informal language practices of language learners may highlight the constraints unique to the classroom and force foreign language education systems to shift to more responsive roles, supporting learners' autonomous advances

into globalized online spaces (Benson & Chik, 2010; Cole & Vanderplank, 2016). Considering the potential of the learners' informal language engagements, the present study attempts to shed light on the prevalence and effects of those engagements in terms of language outcomes, especially vocabulary knowledge.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

In countries like Turkey, where English is taught as a foreign language, the opportunities for encountering and interacting with English outside the classroom are incredibly limited (Richards, 2015). One of the major challenges in classroom learning is that the time provided for the English language (L2) exposure is very limited, and thus, acquisition of the L2 is almost impossible in the Turkey high school context, where only four hours of class time are provided weekly for the English teaching (MEB, 2018). Lack of exposure and inadequate opportunities to practise English in the classroom is often mentioned to be a significant problem in Turkey's EFL context (Ekşi & Aydın, 2013; Solak & Bayar, 2015; Soner, 2007). As Krashen (1985) suggested, L2 speech emerges from the exposure to the L2, and furthermore, Prabhu (1987) argued that the development of competence in L2 is possible through the creation of situations in which learners involve in an effort to cope with communication. In the same vein, Ellis (1994, p.617) proposed that foreign language acquisition develops rapidly if a combination of instruction and exposure to L2 is provided to the learners. From this perspective, it can be claimed that language learning does not solely belong to the language classroom (Pickard, 1996; Verspoor et al., 2011). Now that the internet has become prevalent in the daily lives of young people, new opportunities emerge for foreign language learners to encounter and be involved with the English language. Beyond the limitations of interacting with English in an EFL country, it has long been argued that classroom instruction alone would not be sufficient for language learning to take place, especially in the contexts where English is taught as a foreign language.

The studies investigating out-of-class language affordances of language learners in Turkey are lacking despite the growing interest in the phenomenon across the world. The OILE's potential for language learning has been demonstrated to be evident from previous studies conducted in various EFL contexts; for instance, in France (Kusyk & Sockett, 2012), China (Lai et al., 2015), South Korea (Lee, 2017), Denmark (Hannibal Jensen, 2019), Sweden (Sundqvist & Sylén, 2014) and Brazil (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016). Contrary to the numerous

studies conducted in various parts of the world, little attention has been given to the out-of-class language involvement of the learners in Turkey, primarily focusing on learner-initiated online activities. The studies focusing on language learners' out-of-class engagements in the Turkey EFL context are mostly limited to the self-directed aspect of informal language learning, including the investigation of activities such as translation, dictionary usage, doing homework or other exercises, self-study and etc. (Ekşi & Aydın, 2013), or outdated out-of-class activities investigated, in which learners rarely involve while digital and online affordances seem more available and preferable, such as reading English newspapers, listening to news, writing e-mails, writing articles and other practices (Orhon, 2018).

In Turkey, opportunities to use English mainly were limited to formal and academic contexts. Although the importance of teaching and learning English has been emphasized and new methods and approaches have been implemented in the foreign language curriculum in Turkey, it has not been possible to reach the desired aims in the field (Solak & Bayar, 2015). Among the main challenges, the theory-based and teacher-centred approach and grammar-based methods the language teachers adopted in English lessons were highlighted, as well as the lack of a suitable setting for learning a foreign language (Gökdemir, 2005). Besides, lack of exposure and inadequate opportunities to practise English in the classroom is often mentioned to be major problems in Turkey's EFL context (Ekşi & Aydın, 2013; Solak & Bayar, 2015; Soner, 2007). In the study conducted by Ekşi and Aydın (2013), some students highlighted the necessity to practise presented words in out-of-school settings to improve their language skills. Similarly, the participants in Solak and Bayar's (2015) study expressed the lack of practice and input as one of the difficulties they face in language learning.

While previous evidence presents problems in the classroom settings in Turkey, online informal practices can be carried out by language learners to enhance the language learning process. The investigation of the learners' online informal practices may inform language teachers to enhance their teaching. In order to understand language learning thoroughly, it should be considered what learners are experiencing both in and outside of the school (Barron, 2004; Richards, 2015). In the same vein, it has been argued that classroom learning is only one among a number of practices of learners' engagement with language learning (Benson, 2008) and what goes on outside the classroom should also be taken into consideration for informing the language learning and teaching area (Richards, 2015).

In view of this information, the present study tries to shed light on learners' engagement with foreign language beyond the classroom settings, especially the activities that emerge from the intention to communicate rather than an immediate objective to learn the language.

1.4. Significance of the Study

Out-of-class activities have a great potential to support learners' L2 lexical acquisition in today's world, in which technology enhances the possibility of language exposure. Out-of-class activities are engaging and attractive, as learners involve voluntarily, as a leisure time activity. That is why they target learner interests ideally. The desired learner engagement can be transferred from out-of-class to classroom settings thanks to out-of-class activities. When it is taken into account that in Turkey's context, where the English language is spoken as an L2, communicative practices are limited, benefitting the affordances of out-of-class activities is significant. On the other side, the vocabulary size of learners is a demanding topic because grammar oriented, deductive teaching style is dominant in the Turkish total language education system. Therefore, the central inquiry of this thesis is significant to be researched.

The findings of this study may be significant in understanding the correlation between out-of-class activities and lexical acquisition. The research goal is to end up with suggestions which may guide the English language teachers and designers for better content and applications of L2 vocabulary. The findings may show some insights into learners' L2 lexical acquisition and contributions of out-of-class activities. The study seeks to contribute to the future research by suggesting recommendations that might stimulate educators to apply practices related to vocabulary teaching and modifying out-of-class activities in the classroom setting. The findings may also support institutions and educational designers in terms of how to place vocabulary within the curriculum and navigate their vocabulary teaching strategies and techniques.

1.5. Purpose of the Study

The main aim of the present study is to discover whether Online Informal Learning of English (OILE) has an impact on students' vocabulary. The study also seeks to define how popular informal online language practices among Turkish high school students are and to explicate any possible relationship between the variables, i.e., types and frequency of these

online informal language activities and vocabulary levels of students. Revealing and extending the potential of informal language learning, the present study intends to examine the high school learners' informal language practices in online spaces. Upon examining the language practices carried out by the learners, the relationship between the frequency of engaging in these online informal language activities and the learners' current English vocabulary knowledge will be evaluated. In addition, it is necessary to examine the correlations between OILE and the vocabulary levels of the students. The research questions below aim to expose the association between the variables. Lastly, after examining the relationship between OILE and students' vocabulary size, it is intended to discover students' beliefs on where English is learned and their relationship to Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) scores.

With the purpose of the inquiry into the above-mentioned issues, the present study seeks to find answers to the following research questions:

1. Which types of online informal English input are more common among Turkish 9th and 10th-graders?
 - 1.1. Are there any gender differences in terms of the type of online informal English practices overall?
 - 1.2. Are there any grade differences in terms of the type of online informal English practices overall?
2. Which Online Informal Learning of English activities (video gaming, watching films or series, watching videos and internet posts etc.) are more common among Turkish 9th and 10th-graders?
 - 2.1. What are the subtitles preferences for watching English-speaking TV series & shows, films, and videos of 9th- and 10th-graders?
 - 2.2. Which type of interaction throughout the multi-player video gaming in English are the most common among 9th- and 10th graders?
 - 2.3. Are there any gender differences in terms of involvement in main online informal activities carried out in English?
 - 2.4. Are there any grade differences in terms of involvement in main online informal activities carried out in English?
3. Which additional Online Informal Learning of English activities (following English accounts on the internet, sharing comments on the internet, texting in English, using

search engines in English, looking up lyrics of English songs etc.) are more common among Turkish 9th and 10th-graders?

3.1. Are there any gender differences in terms of involvement in additional online informal activities carried out in English?

3.2. Are there any grade differences in terms of involvement in additional online informal activities carried out in English?

4. What is the receptive vocabulary knowledge of 9th- and 10th graders at the 2,000, 3,000 and 5,000-word levels?

4.1. Are there any gender differences in terms of vocabulary level scores?

4.2. Are there any grade differences in terms of vocabulary level scores?

5. Is there a correlation between;

5.1. learners' overall involvement in various types of English input through online informal activities and vocabulary levels scores?

5.2. learners' involvement in main online informal activities and their vocabulary levels scores?

5.3. learners' involvement in additional online informal activities and their vocabulary levels scores?

5.4. learners' subtitle preferences for watching English-speaking media and their vocabulary levels scores?

5.5. learners' involvement in various types of interactions through playing multi-player video games in English and vocabulary levels scores?

6. What are learners' beliefs on where English is learned?

6.1. Do the beliefs on where English is learned differ in terms of the vocabulary levels of the learners?

1.6. Scope of the Study

The study of inquiring learners' practices through online informal spaces emphasized the prevalence of these practices, as Sockett (2014) implied; the first step is to measure how widespread the phenomenon is among the language learners. Furthermore, vocabulary knowledge is evaluated within the scope of this research. In particular, there appears to be some uncertainty regarding what is included in out-of-class practices in English. Benson (2011a), in this regard, evaluated the out-of-class activities through emphasizing the intentional and

deliberate attempts of language learners, while others highlighted the interest-driven and by-product of communication aspects of learners' engagement with English beyond the language classroom (Sockett, 2014; Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2016). It is not possible to draw the line between the deliberate and unintentional aspects of the engagement with English out-of-class, however, considering the lack of presence in the literature in the Turkish context and the promising potential of English contact as a driving force to interest and daily practices of learners (Richards, 2015), the present study adopted the OILE perspective (Sockett, 2014) for inquiring the language affordances beyond the classroom. That is, the activities were chosen for investigation based on learners' everyday practices and routines to shed light on the presence of English in learners' lives, not as a school subject but as the means for accessing learner-related interests. From this point of view, also, the gap between formal English education and the informal presence of English could have been brought to the field and might suggest further in-depth exploration of the interaction between the formal and informal presence of English. Moreover, those practices are kept limited to the online affordances with the hope of giving an insight that involves every aspect of them. Within the scope of the research, the vocabulary levels of the learners were gathered and evaluated by taking into account the online informal practices to shed light on the Turkish EFL context.

1.7. Limitations Assumptions

Naturally, studies have certain limitations. A single method was applied to collect data in this study. Furthermore, the data of the study could not be gathered face-to-face because of the Covid-19 prevention. The whole data collection procedure was undertaken online. The collected data are limited in terms of the number of participants involved in the present study. That is why; it does not reflect the population. Additionally, the data were obtained within Istanbul province only. The participants of the study are learners from high schools taking place in Istanbul.

As having carried out during the Covid-19 period, the present research presents some limitations in divergence of the participants. Thus, the limited variance of the sample could be mentioned, as it compromised of only language learners in the 9th and 10th grade in Anatolian High schools. Further research could provide more insightful results by including varying age groups. In addition to the varying age groups, different context such as schools that are other than Anatolian High schools could be included for future research.

1.8. Functional Definitions and Use of Concepts

To assist in the understanding of the words in the context of this study, the following essential concepts have been specified:

OILE: Online Informal Learning of English is defined as an emergent process where learners' engagement with various online activities through using English is not necessarily with the intention to learn English (Sockett, 2014), and the engagement emerges from the intention to communicate (Toffoli & Sockett, 2010). OILE, in this context, is used to refer to the activities that learners carry out in English beyond the classroom, in addition to using the term online informal activities.

Vocabulary Levels: Vocabulary levels are used to refer to the 1,000-word family, which is a unit of counting words which are used in the British National Corpus and are categorized based on the frequency (Webb & Nation, 2017). In the present study, the most frequent 1,000-, 2,000-, and 5,000-word families are investigated.

L2: Within the context of the present study, L2 is used to refer to the English language within the context of foreign language learning in the Turkish EFL context.

MEB: Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Turkey.

Single-player Video Games: Used to refer to the video game mode played by one person, which could be played through various platforms such as computers, consoles, and mobile devices.

Multi-player Video Games: Used to refer to the video game mode that allows more than one person to play using various platforms such as computers, consoles, and mobile devices. The player could play both together with the people they know or play by connecting over a wide area network.

Social Media Platforms: Digital channels that allow users to create and share information as well as to access others' created and shared content.

Default Device Language: Used to refer to the display language of systems on digital devices.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the underlying theories and concepts regarding second or foreign language learning will be presented in relation to out-of-class language learning. Because the present study focuses on the possible language outcomes of the language engagements in out-of-class settings, the theoretical background of the language learning process will be explained in the following sections. In the first section, the terminology of second language acquisition (SLA) in relation to the present investigation will be discussed.

2.2. Second Language Acquisition

Second language acquisition, or SLA, is a research area regarding applied linguistics and studies the process of second language learning. Ellis (2015) defines SLA as an “all-inclusive term for learning *any* language after the first” (p. 18) while stating a contextual distinction between the ‘second’ and ‘foreign’ language acquisition. Even as the second language has a role as a means of communication in the community, the foreign language takes place in the context in which the language plays no crucial role in the community (Ellis, 1994). Another distinction that needs to be mentioned is second language acquisition and L2 acquisition. As a field of enquiry, second language acquisition is a multi-disciplinary field of study and “draws on insights and methods of research from a range of disciplines” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 3). On the other hand, L2 acquisition can be referred to as an “object of enquiry” and used to describe the learning that occurs in both foreign and second language learning contexts (Ellis, 2015, p. 18). Since both SLA and L2 acquisition will be used in the present study, the distinction is made to avoid confusion.

In the Turkish context in which English is taught as a foreign language, the language is referred to as English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in SLA research. Even though English as a Second Language (ESL) has been essentially differentiated from the EFL contexts (Ellis, 2005; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005), today’s affordances blurred the contextual distinction between ESL and EFL by providing the language learners with the chance to have an active role and socialize in English speaking community (Lam, 2004; Sockett, 2014; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2016). From

this point of view, the English language could be broadly labelled as *L2* with some exceptions in which drawing the distinction between EFL and ESL regarding the learning purposes and circumstances is necessary (Sundqvist, 2009).

2.2.1. Key concepts in Second Language Acquisition

Since the beginning of the theory of SLA, various areas have inspired the field. As the field grows and flourishes, some theories and constructs have been introduced to explain the phenomenon better. Monitor Theory has been one of the most influential theories among them since its development by Krashen in the 1970s. According to the Monitor Theory, adults have two separate systems for learning a second language: subconscious language *acquisition* and conscious language *learning*, and these systems are inextricably linked (Krashen, 1981).

The fundamental distinction between '*learning*' and '*acquisition*', namely *the acquisition-learning hypothesis*, ought to be defined to understand the Monitor Theory fully. The acquisition can be described as a subconscious process in learners pick up a language through L2 exposure, similar to the way a child acquires the mother tongue. Learning, on the other hand, refers to the conscious process of studying and learning a language through explicit or formal instruction (Krashen, 1981). With this in mind, Krashen (1981, p. 2) describes the theory as a monitor available for the learned system, which is consciously learned by the learner. The produced language is generally based on our acquired system, in which we picked up the language through meaningful and comprehensible interaction; thus, the learned rules of the language could only serve as a monitor to change the output of the acquired system (Krashen, 1981). To put it another way, language learners edit the utterances they initiated by the acquired system with their learned system to improve accuracy. This phenomenon may explain "why what is taught is not always learned, why what is learned may not have been taught" (VanPatten & Williams, 2015a, p. 25).

Another aspect of the Monitor Theory is the input hypothesis suggesting that acquisition of L2 takes place when the learner understands the messages in the L2. Krashen (1981) defines those messages as *comprehensible input* which comprises language slightly beyond the learner's current level of the internalized language. To demonstrate, Krashen refers to the learner's current proficiency as *i*, and the language just a level above the learner's as *i+1*. It is not clearly stated what 1 in *i+1* refers to; however, the *i+1* term has been practically used to support the definition of the comprehensible input phenomena (Krashen, 1982). The idea

behind the comprehensible input is that the learners could acquire the language naturally through exposing the language that is comprehensible and necessary for them, only if there is some gap between the learners' language and the exposed language.

These fundamental theories and concepts regarding language acquisition could shed light on the informal language learning process, as the issue of the reasons why language learners always learn what it is being taught is still apparent today. Nearly a half-century ago, Allwright (1984) raised the long recognized question of the effectiveness of instruction and the language teaching and learning process in his work and explained the issue with present theories and concepts in SLA while suggesting ways to investigate the phenomena further. He also addressed the role of interaction in the language learning and teaching process by emphasizing its role in the overall output of the language lesson on behalf of the learners. As Allwright (1984) mentioned, the teacher's perception of the lesson may differ from the learners' since the learners could see the interaction aroused during the lesson as an opportunity, whereas the teacher's perception could be limited to items explicitly taught according to the lesson plan; therefore, what the learners get out of a lesson presumably include the interaction they personally worked on, and consequently, memorable for them.

Interaction holds a fundamental role in SLA. As mentioned earlier, the Monitor Theory suggests that comprehending the message within the communicative interaction where L2 learners focus on the meaning is a prerequisite for the acquisition process (VanPatten & Williams, 2015a). From the SLA view, interaction refers to the process in which learners communicate through L2, and it covers not only exposing to the language input as a result of interaction in their environment but also getting feedback on their correctness during their language production. To put it another way, L2 learners receive interactional feedback on their success in communicating effectively using L2 and notice their mistakes in the process of communication, and eventually could decide how to adjust their current linguistic knowledge (Gass & Mackey, 2015).

The construction of this process has been explained through various terms, including *negotiation for meaning* and *noticing the gap*. As Long (1996) referred, *negotiation for meaning* that triggers interactional adjustments by more competent L2 speakers facilitates acquisition through connecting input, learner capacities, and output. In other words, learners' attention is directed to the problem that hinders communication, and consequently, they arrange their L2 production using the new linguistic items noticed throughout the interaction. Schmidt's (1990)

term, *noticing the gap*, as mentioned within the process of the negotiation for meaning, refers to the learners' realization of a hole in their interlanguage as a result of not being able to express what they wanted to express. Another aspect that should be mentioned within the review of the interaction's role in SLA is the learners' language production in L2, or namely, the output. After Krashen's introduction of the previously mentioned hypothesis, such as the acquisition-learning hypothesis, input hypothesis, and monitor hypothesis, other terms and concepts have followed since there was little empirical evidence to illustrate the language learning thoroughly with Krashen's theories alone. Interaction has been one of the aspects that SLA is tried to be described through; as reviewed earlier, Long's interaction hypothesis and Schmidt's noticing term have been coined to demonstrate the L2 acquisition within the interaction better. While those generally focused on the input and feedback from the other speaker and neglected the role of learners' language production, Swain (1995) proposed the comprehensible output hypothesis, which emphasises the role of the output in L2 acquisition. She argued that in order for learners to proceed to syntactic use of language, language production was needed. As exemplified previously, learners notice the gaps in their interlanguage as a result of the language production throughout the interaction; thus, they rearrange their output for the ideal comprehension. Furthermore, the output is necessary to establish automaticity, which refers to the routinization of language use; accordingly, continued use of language supports more fluent utterances on behalf of the learners (Gass & Mackey, 2015).

Taken together, the interaction does serve as not only a medium of practice but also the form through which language development takes place (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Interaction effect on learning depends on the attentional resources of learners since the interactional adjustments to be made require selective attention to the problematic aspects of language use that break the communication. In this sense, attention throughout the interaction mediates between input and learning, through which learners create new knowledge or modification of existing knowledge (Gass, 2003). Furthermore, Schmidt (1990) emphasizes the necessity of consciousness in the language learning process and facilitative for learning. Being cautious about the fact that unconscious learning could take place, Schmidt (2001) suggested that attention can be implicitly attracted to stimuli, and learners do not have to intentionally focus on a specific aspect of L2 input in order to learn it. Though the assumption would seem to contradict Krashen's Input Hypothesis, in which the L2 acquisition is a subconscious process, SLA has recognized the facilitative role of noticing the acquisition (Ellis, 2015).

Explicit and implicit knowledge and learning have been the subject of debate along with the concepts of consciousness and awareness in L2 acquisition, as those provide the basis for implicit/explicit learning and knowledge. Though implicit/explicit learning and knowledge are clearly related concepts, it is necessary to differentiate the learning and knowledge regardless of their implicit or explicit aspects to avoid confusion while illustrating the processes in relation to L2 acquisition.

On the part of the learning, Ellis (2009) defines explicit learning as the process that includes intentionality and awareness of the subject that is being learned, while refers to implicit learning as the learning process in which attention, awareness and intentionality features are nonexistent. However, this definition of explicit and implicit learning focuses on the learners' processing of exposed L2 input (VanPatten & Williams, 2015b).

Further scrutiny on SLA has been the subject of the relationship between implicit/explicit learning and implicit/explicit knowledge and the interaction of those two types of learning and knowledge. Ellis (2009) on this matter suggested that learning explicitly or implicitly refers to the process involved in learning, while implicit/explicit knowledge concerns the product of learning. That is to say, learners could develop an explicit representation of an implicitly acquired knowledge, or explicitly learned knowledge could provide incidental implicit learning of another aspect of L2. The mentioned likelihood of interfaces between implicit and explicit knowledge is referred to as 'interface issue', which is used to address the relation between implicit and explicit learning and their reconstruction among themselves on behalf of L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2015).

Within the scope of the present research, where the effects of informal language learning are in question, implicit learning and knowledge have been emphasized regarding their facilitative role in L2 acquisition. Krashen (1981) suggested that L2 implicit and L2 explicit systems are separate; that is, the noninterface position was referred to regarding the two types of knowledge, and it has been seen as the two types of knowledge cannot be transformed into the other one. As mentioned within the Monitor Theory, implicit knowledge is essential for comprehension and production, whereas explicit knowledge could serve as a means to monitor the accuracy of output (Krashen, 1982; Robinson et al., 2012). On the contrary, the weak interface position claims that given the right conditions, such as when the learner is developmentally ready to progress, explicit knowledge can become implicit knowledge (Ellis, 2009). In the same vein, Ellis argues that it is the learner's conscious effort to produce

meaningful utterances that lead to developing explicit knowledge, whereas implicit knowledge develops during the comprehension and production of fluent language. Either way, implicit knowledge acquired through repetition and exposure to the form in meaningful contexts is a fundamental part of further language production and development (Robinson et al., 2012).

Another issue partly related to the implicit and explicit debate is the instruction, whose effectiveness has long been debated among SLA researchers. The concept of instruction has been mainly used to refer the grammar teaching (Ellis, 1994); however, within the present research, the concept is employed to refer to any type of interference to achieve L2 development of language learners. While the effects of instruction include many aspects within SLA, such as order of acquisition of language items, and within the scope of the present research, the instruction has been argued on the ground to its effectiveness on the L2 development. Whether the instruction makes a difference has been brought into question at the very beginning of the SLA research. Long (1983) emphasized the significance of arguing the issue, stating that the most basic question should have been faced by the language teaching professionals; and further suggested that the instruction, especially in the early stages of SLA or in environments lacking in L2 input, had benefits. However, he underlined the fact that it was not clear-cut to assume that instruction had positive effects on L2 development, as many language professionals would have liked. Norris and Ortega (2000) suggested that whether it is implicit or explicit in nature, instruction serves obvious developmental benefits. Consequently, many other studies focused on the instruction, and the scope of the inquiry has shifted from the effectiveness of instruction to the type of instruction that is the most effective for specific L2 gains since the instruction was undoubtedly beneficial. The scope of research in SLA, then, has shifted to the L2 development and opportunities beyond the formal instruction to both inform the learning and acquisition processes that take place in instructed environments, that is, learning in classroom settings and enhancing L2 instruction to benefit learners in the most effective means. Keeping in mind that majority of L2 learning for language learners takes place in the instructed settings, much of the research in SLA focused on understanding and enhancing instructed language learning (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Ellis (2005) contributed to the issue by formulating general principles, including the requirement of extensive L2 input, opportunities for interaction and output, and a predominant focus on the meaning. Evaluating from the EFL context, fewer opportunities are present for learners to get extensive L2 input to benefit the formal instruction at its best.

2.3. Informal Language Learning

Having covered the general principles to explain the language learning or acquisition processes and pointing out the limited opportunities provided through the formal instruction in the foreign language teaching and learning context, the opportunities for language development outside of the classroom followed. First, as being various contexts, it is necessary to differentiate and define the formal and informal learning environments. As a matter of setting or context, formal learning refers to the formal language instruction got through institutional settings; that is, learning and teaching took place in the classrooms. On the other hand, informal learning of L2 includes any learning that takes place outside of formal education without language instruction (Godwin-Jones, 2020). While this definition does not mark a clear cut to differentiate the formal and informal learning of L2, it has been a fundamental starting point for the SLA researchers dealing with the language learning and acquisition practices of the learners.

As exemplified earlier, the main focus has been on formal language learning and, thereby, aspects of L2 teaching and learning in language classrooms in general. Those aspects within the language teaching and learning processes through formal instructions included syllabuses, approach, materials development, and teachers (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Nevertheless, ongoing evolution within the field to better illustrate the aspects that lead to effective L2 development has resulted in questioning the instruction effect, and evidence on the L2 development without any formal instruction and existing limits to the instruction effectiveness in varying settings have drawn the attention to the affordances that L2 learners might benefit outside of the classroom.

Informal language learning refers to the language learning by-product of affordances through which learners are involved outside of any institutional context. Thus, any language learning, with or without the purpose of learning, is considered to be learned informally (Reinhardt, 2019). In this sense, the distinction from formal language learning is mainly based on the setting in which no curriculum and pedagogy are applied. However, defining and limiting the area of scope has not been easy; as Benson (2011a) emphasizes, “If language learning beyond the classroom is to be concerned with everything that classroom language learning is not concerned with, it will evidently be an extensive, and not easily delimited field” (p. 8). As the research on the affordances of L2 learning out-of-class has deepened and flourished, various concepts and terms to describe the nature of the learners’ involvement with L2 have been

utilized to define the field. Among those, Benson's framework presented an inclusive and elaborative description of the issue by suggesting four distinct dimensions; that is location, pedagogy, formality, and locus of control. The fundamental aspects to be addressed within the scope of research on the issue concerns the types of places, other than traditional classrooms, where language learning takes place and their characteristics; as well as the types of learning activities that take place within these places, and their role in the larger picture of individuals' language learning (Benson, 2011a).

Within those dimensions, location is used to refer to the setting where language learning takes place, both virtually and physically. It could imply supplementary to classroom learning, according to Benson (2011a). He argues that the location only refers to the place where learning takes place; therefore, the school also is included since there could be student-initiated activities such as speaking clubs and performances. Whether or not the school is included, the main argument is that language learning is not initiated and proposed by teachers or through any institutional planning. Other examples of the terms pointing out the location contain "out-of-class", "out-of-school", "extramural", and "extracurricular". While the location dimension might have seemed like the determining aspect of overall informal language learning, another crucial dimension that further describes the nature of the learning is the formality. Benson uses formality as whether or not the learning is organized as a part of an institutional programme; in this sense, the formality dimension points out the distinction between the informal, non-formal, or formal nature of learning and teaching processes. When it comes to the pedagogy dimension, Benson (2011a) emphasized the degree to which teaching is concerned and the role and the types of pedagogy involved, that is, whether the instruction throughout the learning has ensued. Within the pedagogy dimension, he argues that self-instruction, in which the learners make use of specifically designed materials to learn the language intentionally, and naturalistic learning, which involves no instruction or designed material, and no explicit intention for learning the language, lie at two ends of a pedagogical continuum. Considering the two ends being so distinctive, Benson (2011b) refers to 'self-directed naturalistic learning' (p. 77) for instances where learners are involved in a situation with the intent of language learning first, but once rolled into the situation, learners' focus may shift to the communicative aspect and enjoyment, or learning another subject other than the language itself. And the last dimension proposed to reveal the facets of language learning beyond the classroom focuses on who decides and controls the participation in the language study. The dimension involves terms such as

‘independent’, ‘self-directed’, and ‘autonomous’. Learners to shift their locus of control towards, he suggests, are to drop self-instructional materials designed for solely learning the language and rather try learning in more informal and naturalistic ways. Even though Benson’s (2011a) model is ‘rudimentary’ (p. 13) and still requires further development, his model is indeed very helpful in analysing and conceptualizing the aspects of language learning beyond the classroom (Chik, 2014).

Benson (2011a) further brought about two related concepts regarding the defined language learning beyond the classroom, namely ‘setting’ and ‘mode of practice’. The setting is suggested to involve several aspects, such as the fundamental features of the physical and learners’ concurrent relationship with people and objects within the setting; consequently, the setting, in this sense, is aligning and contemplating the four dimensions mentioned previously. Dealing with the setting, modes of practice emphasizes how those dimensions are actualized within the setting. Benson argues that learners’ engagement within a setting indicates the mode of practice, as it comprises learners’ making use of the setting regarding language learning.

Taken together, four dimensions, namely formality, pedagogy, locus of control, location, and mode of practice and setting as the aspects supporting those dimensions. On evaluating his framework, Benson suggested that further investigation of the language learning beyond the classroom, as he refers, could contribute to the framework. However, overall, the proposed framework has been criticized for being too broad and unclear for study and examining the phenomena for specific context and outcomes (Sokkett & Toffoli, 2020).

Having used the terms within the theoretical framework, “learning” has been primarily emphasized as an intentional effort for language learning beyond the classroom. Therefore, intentionality on the part of the learners is an initial starting point for engaging in language learning activities out-of-class. In the same vein, Benson (2007) repeatedly highlighted the idea that learners’ ability to ‘find’ and ‘create’ opportunities for language learning beyond the classroom and focused on the intentional effort to create those opportunities. Learners' role and willingness to devote time and effort in independent learning outside of the classroom, in this perspective, has been mentioned to describe out-of-class language learning, stating that “...somewhat narrowly, to refer to the efforts of learners taking classroom-based language courses to find opportunities for language learning and use outside class.” (Benson, 2007, p. 26). Similarly, again emphasizing the intention aspect, he stated that “... much out-of-class learning takes the form of ‘self-directed naturalistic learning’, in which the learner engages in

language use for pleasure or interest, but also with the broader intention of learning.” (Benson, 2011b, p. 139). The emphasis on intentionality might be derived from the autonomy concept, as Benson’s framework is comprised of learner autonomy in general. With regard to out-of-class learning, Benson (2011c) suggested that out-of-class learning requires autonomy, and thus, he seems to frame out-of-class practices with the concept of learner autonomy. Within the autonomy practices, he mainly pointed out the self-access centres and study-abroad as the language learning beyond the classroom settings where learners are provided with opportunities to learn a language.

While explaining the autonomy concept in language learning, learners’ independence and taking charge of their own learning have been centred on the investigation and also included the efforts of learners to use the language independently and for communication (Benson, 2011b; Dickinson, 1995; Little, 2007). However, unintentional or incidental aspects of using L2 have mainly been ignored. Among those, another inclusive term suggested within the inquiry of language learning was incidental language learning. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) describe incidental language learning as “the learning without an intent to learn, or as the learning of one thing, e.g. vocabulary, when the learner’s primary objective is to do something else, e.g. to communicate.” (p. 10). However, the concept is mainly comprised of studies examining the L2 acquisition; moreover, the out-of-class setting has not been the requisite for the inquiry.

In sum, whether it is informal language learning, which Dressman (2020) reserves as “... any activities taken consciously or unconsciously by a learner outside of the formal instruction that leads to an increase in the learner’s ability to communicate in a second (or other, non-native) language.” (p. 18), or language learning beyond the classroom as Benson (2011a) reserves, constituted the role of umbrella terms with a more broad conceptualization of the phenomena than other terms in the field. Other proposed terms, which are to be illustrated followingly, focused more on digital and computer-based environments, as the present study focused.

One among them is *Extramural English*, which Sundqvist (2009) introduced to the field by stating that “Although there were a number of theories and concepts that came close to describing the object of the study, none of them was deemed entirely adequate.” (Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2016, p. 5), and she reserved the term to conceptualize the learners’ engagement with the English language outside the classroom, which is not initiated by any teachers or educational

professionals, rather, the learners themselves initiate this engagement regardless of their intention. The deliberate intention is not necessary on the part of the learner, nor is it excluded from the concept. In this sense, the learner's engagement with English might be spontaneous and not even have a reason. With these in mind, possible Extramural English activities involved watching films, listening to music, reading books, and playing video games in English. Therefore, the Extramural English concept involves all the out-of-class engagement that is not initiated by a teacher but by learners, and deliberate intention is not necessary; however, as the scope of the present study concentrates on the learners' engagement with English in the online spaces, the term Online Informal Learning of English (OILE) has been adopted to serve the purpose of the present research.

Sockett (2014) introduced the concept for investigating the complex range of internet-based activities and situated the concept by emphasizing the intention to communicate as an incentive for engaging informal activities in English. Furthermore, he underlined the role of intention; "While the unintentional character of OILE is one of its defining features, and distinguishes it from other forms of learning, ... learners may get involved with English online for a range of sometimes contradictory reasons." (p. 18). Since the nature of those involvements of learners with English in online spaces is stressed to be complex while defining the concept, Sockett suggested that it is best understood within the dynamic systems theory (DST) framework. Sockett and Toffoli (2012) suggested that especially four of the characteristics of dynamic systems theory aligned with the inquiry of OILE. First, the critical role of the initial conditions for learning outcomes is especially relevant in light of the fact that these conditions are no longer uniform since each learner obtains their own set of target language preferences gathered through a varying process of informal contact. As a result, there is much personalization in the learning process. Second, studying attractor and repeller states in a system may help to see how some learning strategies might benefit the informal learner at first but then become a barrier. Thirdly, the ability for pieces in the system to co-adapt may result in unanticipated learning behaviours arising from interactions between the learner's considerable number of tools and settings. Finally, the nonlinear character of complex dynamic systems should result in examples of phase transition, such as leaps in degrees of fluency or comprehension that are independent of an increased amount of exposure to the target language. In sum, within the OILE concept, it is emphasized that each learner uniquely experiences input and interaction regarding their repertoires and individual differences (Sockett, 2014).

Having scrutinized the underlying SLA theories regarding the inquiry of informal language learning practices of language learners and has described the nature of the adopted concept for the present research, the related studies on the issue are to be presented consequently.

2.3.1. Previous Studies on Informal Language Learning

Before the turning of the century, the research focus in the field of SLA had been mainly on the classroom settings as they constituted the primary language learning places due to a lack of learners' access to the target language and its users (Benson, 2011c). Though the limited opportunities existed for learning outside of the classrooms before the century, some researchers in SLA emphasized the role of those engagements, both for the implications for the formal language education and for investigation of the social aspect of language learning. Early research regarding out-of-class language learning has been relevant to the social aspect of language learning that outside of the classroom setting provided and strategy used in language learning processes in and out-of-class.

As a result of her study regarding conscious strategies for L2 learning, Bialystok (1981) stated that functional practice -among other language learning strategies including formal practising, monitoring, and inferencing- was crucial for the achievement of all tasks in the study and consequently, she emphasizes the benefits of any exposure to the target language since it improves learners' competency, and she claims that the most functional situations are more likely to take place outside the classroom, in which learners' primary goals regarding the language used to convey the message in natural situations. Employing the same model, Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) investigated the role of functional strategies, which included activities such as watching films and TV programmes, and concluded that learners who performed well in oral communication reported using functional practice strategies more often than those who did not.

Pickard (1996) focused on the out-of-class language learning strategies employed by the German-speaking undergraduate foreign language learners with the purpose of informing the field and found out that learners are generally involved in activities primarily based on their interest rather than suggested and obliged materials by language instructors. Rather than focusing on the structures and linguistic features, they tended to focus on the meaning in general since they used dictionaries just for unknown words that are necessary to the meaning. For

reading practices, they reported having no interest in reading English newspapers throughout the university enrollment; however, they started to read those after graduation, at which they became more interested in the everyday life of people and culture in general. Overall, learners chose the materials on the basis of their needs, giving much less emphasis to the materials suggested by their language instructors; furthermore, the intrinsic interest of the learner was the primary encouraging factor in making use of the materials.

Inquiry of the out-of-class involvements of the language learners had been in scope regarding the language learning strategy used. Later, the scope was reevaluated within the autonomy and independent learning concepts. Lamb (2004) investigated the learner autonomy practices in the Asian context as a different sociocultural context from the Western context, where the concept was issued forth and focused on the language learning attitudes and activities of 11-12-year-old Indonesian language learners. As the result of the study, it was found that much of the language learning had been occurring outside of the classroom and mainly included activities such as listening to music, and watching movies and TV shows, while reading and studying were less popular among the Indonesian learners. Regarding the findings, Lamb (2004) suggested that autonomy also could work in the Asian context and pointed out the need for employing sociocultural perspectives to expand understanding of the situation.

Wagner (2004), on the other hand, raised the question of why the social theories regarding language learning are confined to an educational context by emphasizing the potential for language learning outside the classroom and argued that classrooms should have extended up to the outside world to give students with real-life experiences and to assist them in developing their own engagement in communities of practice.

In Hyland's (2004) study, social factors and context are also emphasized, and it is suggested that English student-teachers in Hong Kong tend to engage with out-of-class in English within their private domain since they feel constrained while using English within public contexts. Thus, the activities carried out in English included writing e-mails, reading academic books and articles, surfing the internet, and watching films and Tv programmes; however, they generally avoided producing English utterances because of the judgements from the public. Despite the pressure, they perceived English as a rich source of pleasure and delight, and they had improved their language abilities through the medium of reading and writing for an audience.

A growing body of investigation on the topic has also pinpointed the successful language learners, and consequently, their involvement with out-of-class activities in English has been a crucial factor that appeared as a result of those studies. Nunan (1991) studied 44 ‘good’ learners, comprised of Asian EFL teachers, to reveal common and recurring patterns regarding their experiences. One of the most common issues revealed from the study was that the learners had mentioned that the formal instruction was insufficient. When it comes to the most common pattern that appeared among the good learners was found to be taking the risk and having motivation and determination to apply their skills outside of the classroom. When the things that benefit the most regarding their language learning, they listed the following activities; conversation with English speakers, finding opportunities to practice out-of-class, and viewing media.

To sum up, inquiry of the language learners’ involvement with English has been included in the studies with various scopes. Whether the scope was the language learning strategies or learner autonomy and independent learning practices, the turn of the century has led the field to further mediate on the informal practices taking place outside of the classroom walls, thanks to the numerous opportunities that appeared and expanded access to the English media. In the following, the investigation of those recontextualized involvements is to be presented.

2.3.2. Recent Studies on Informal Language Learning

As the learners’ involvement in the English language increased thanks to the internet and digital devices, the benefits of those involvements in language learning began to be further examined by researchers. Thus, contrary to the previous studies focused on out-of-class learning of learners studying in a foreign country, the research context has begun to shift and expand to the online and digital spaces. Involving English within everyday life becomes possible with the introduction of the Internet and its progressive reaching into the homes of an increasing number of people throughout the world. Individuals were suddenly able to connect with one another, regardless of where they were in the globe, thanks to online chat rooms and communities. Regardless of L1, English was the overall internet lingua franca. As a result, the occasions to utilize and be exposed to English began to grow.

Though the focus was not necessarily on out-of-class language learning, the community practices of language learners in online spaces constituted substantial informal involvement

space where learners not only develop their language skills but also construct an L2 identity that benefits them to become a part of a wider English-speaking interest-driven community. Lam (2000) ethnographic study, among one of the earliest investigations of informal L2 use in online spaces, emphasized L2 literacy and its relation to the L2 identity construction of a Chinese immigrant teenager living in the USA through synchronous and asynchronous communication with his peers. At the beginning of the study, the student had expressed his problems regarding English, having the fear that he would not be able to progress in L2 learning, and consequently, to live in the USA, saying that he did not belong there. Later, however, the teenager began to express and communicate in English and overcame his feelings of fear once he became actively involved in the Internet. After having taken some classes on e-mail and browsing, he explored how to design his own website on Internet, through which he later connected to other people via a Japanese singer-themed webpage and found pen-pals with similar interests. Lam, on the result of the study, suggests that the Internet empowered the student by developing a sense of belonging and connectedness to an international English-speaking community, as well as improving his proficiency in English. In a similar sense, Lam (2004) further expanded the study by examining the L2 language practices occurring within a virtual community and how this afforded socialization of two Chinese immigrants living in the USA. Interacting in English on the Internet, Lam (2004) argued, entailed acquiring new identities for speaking the language and adopting and negotiating new use norms.

Black (2006) investigated the L2 engagement of an 11-year-old Chinese immigrant who moved to Canada without any English skills through her interest in fanfiction. At first, she was reported to have difficult times making friends; however, her interest in fanfictions became a conduit for her L2 development as those texts online on fanfictions were posted in English. Later on, she created a personal fanfiction website to post narrative texts in English based on existed anime series; moreover, not only did she want to be a part of the fanfiction culture, but she also wanted to enhance her writing skills in English. Likewise, others could read the stories written by her and comment on the stories individually; thus, the site was used to negotiate linguistic and cultural differences in a way that promotes connection and affinity across potential obstacles.

Another interest-driven informal language learning study was conducted by Murray (2008), examining adult Japanese EFL learners who reached intermediate level to advanced level of fluency without attending any studies or being in a study abroad context. The

participants were chosen based on their language learning background; thus, the sample consisted of those who learned English while living in Japan. The aim of the study was to reveal the learners' language learning outside of the classroom processes, that is, what actions they took to learn the language in an out-of-class context. Among the participants, the common theme and conduit for learning English appeared to stem from their interest in pop culture. Besides providing the motivation for learning English informally, Murray (2008) argued that their interest in pop culture provided content for their learning and moreover stated that all of the highly motivated participants were involving informal practices out-of-class. Murray (2008) emphasized the interest-driven nature of participants' language learning by arguing that "... an astonishing array of attractive English foreign language (EFL) materials was readily available at affordable prices in bookstores. Yet most of the participants looked to pop culture to provide the content for their English language study." (p. 8) and the pop culture content that offered input and topics for dialogues included films, music, books, and magazines.

In the study examined the Chinese students, who attend to English as Academic Purposes course, use out-of-class activities for language learning, and the nature of those activities for 12 weeks, Pearson (2004) suggested that learners used out-of-class opportunities to benefit their personal language needs and to bring enjoyment to their language learning. The researcher and learners met every two weeks to discuss carried out-of-class activities, and the researcher distributed questionnaires at the end of the session. The most frequently involved activities are listed as follows: listening to or watching the news, studying at the library, reading magazines, books, or newspapers, watching TV programs, videos, or films, and listening to music. Accordingly, the exploitation of materials mostly was implied to be based on learners' desire to enter university, and those who have a more comprehensive view of their language development and intrinsic motivation seemed to involve those activities more enthusiastically and actively took a role in using the language. Furthermore, the more proficient students used a self-access centre for a greater amount than the less proficient students, which emphasizes the importance of learner autonomy in successful L2 learning.

Kuppens (2010) conducted an empirical study to reveal the effect of learners' informal English media viewing on English proficiency with 374 Flemish Dutch-speaking 6th graders who had no formal English instruction background. For gathering learners' English media use, a survey that included questions on how they used a variety of English-language media, including watching subtitled or non-subtitled films and TV shows, listening to music, surfing

the internet websites, chatting, and playing video games; as well as attitudes about English, self-assessment of English ability, active use of English, language(s) spoken at home, other languages studied, and socioeconomic background. Proficiency levels of the students were tested orally and covered English to Dutch translation and Dutch to English translation. The most popular activities carried out in English were found to be listening to music, and it was followed by watching subtitled television and films; where the least everyday activity among 11-year-olds was watching non-subtitled television and films, as Kuppens (2010) stated that it was not surprising since they had no prior English instruction. In line with Sundqvist's (2009) study, Kuppens (2010) found that boys spent much more time playing English video games as well as visiting English websites. Regarding the relationship examined between translation test scores and out-of-class activities, it was revealed that students who watched subtitled English films and TV shows had higher test scores, and the effect was more substantial in girls. In addition to the subtitled media viewing, playing computer games seemed to have an effect on higher scores; however, this relationship was limited to the English to Dutch translation scores.

Similar results appeared in the study in which Lindgren and Muñoz (2013) looked at the impact of exposure to a foreign language on children's listening and reading ability regarding the impacts of an early start in foreign language instruction. The scope of the analysis included the data regarding out-of-school exposure (viewing, playing, and listening), parents' educational level and use of the foreign language in the workplace, and cognate linguistic distance. As reported in Kuppens (2010), listening to music and watching films appeared to be the most favoured informal activities among the learners. Nevertheless, watching foreign language TV and films explained the majority of the variance in proficiency test scores, supporting Kuppens' (2010) study findings. Listening to music with foreign language lyrics and playing computer games were also significant predictors, although not as much as watching television and films, especially subtitled ones.

Sundqvist (2009) examined the potential impact of out-of-class involvement with English, and she used the term *Extramural English (EE)*. The study consisted of 80 Swedish 9th-graders, and data regarding learners' spent time on linguistic activities carried out informally out-of-class was collected over a period of one year using a questionnaire and two language diaries, in which the learners took a log of the activities they carried out in a week. The activities involved reading books, playing video games, watching films and TV shows, surfing the Internet, and other related informal activities. Learners' spent time with those activities were

correlated with their oral proficiency score, which was calculated using five interactional speaking tests, and vocabulary score, which was measured using two vocabulary tests. As a result of the analysis, the spent time on informal activities was significantly correlated with learners' oral proficiency levels and vocabulary sizes; that is, learners who spent more time on informal activities out-of-class had higher oral proficiency levels and vocabulary knowledge. However, the relationship between spent time and vocabulary knowledge was found to be correlated stronger when compared to the spent time in relation to oral proficiency of the learners. Though involvement in informal activities out-of-class in English seemed to impact the vocabulary knowledge of learners more; it was also suggested that the type of activity also mattered regarding oral proficiency and vocabulary sizes; that is, some activities were found to be more important for language gains measured in the study, especially the activities where learners use the language actively, such as video games. Apart from oral proficiency and vocabulary knowledge, the background variables were also investigated, including gender and the learners' beliefs on where they had learned most of their English. Regarding gender differences, boys were found to significantly spend more time playing video games in English and surfing the internet. Another finding regarding genders was that the boys scored higher in vocabulary size; however, oral proficiency scores did not differ significantly between the genders. Similarly, spent time on informal activities did not differ significantly, either. Regarding the belief on where they had learned most of their English, it was revealed that the majority of the students reported having learned English mainly from the school.

Being careful with the findings, Sundqvist (2009) underlined the fact that the relationship between spent time on informal activities and language gains should not have been interpreted as spending more time caused to higher oral proficiency and vocabulary size since it could be the opposite; proficient students attended more to those activities. Furthermore, she argues that it was not possible to claim any causality. However, this does not necessarily mean ignoring the potential of learners' informal engagement with English regarding language learning, as there is a clear relationship between those. On the causality dilemma, Sundqvist (2009) argued accordingly; "For one, which is the chicken and which is the egg? Do learners become more proficient thanks to EE, or do proficient learners engage in EE activities to a larger extent than less proficient learners?" (pp. 31-32).

Another analysis of the informal practices in English involved in regard to vocabulary gains and proficiency was carried out by Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012), and the sample consisted

of 86 Swedish 5th-graders. Adopting a similar approach to the previous research study (Sundqvist, 2009), the spent time on informal activities and a variety of those were gathered through using a questionnaire and a language diary, where learners logged their informal activities carried out in English, including how much time they spent on those on a daily basis, in one week period. Much as the study primarily addressed the informal video game practices in English, other informal activities were within the scope of analysis. The students reported having spent 9.4 hours on informal activities in English in a week, and playing video games in English was the most favoured one among other activities, and it was followed by watching TV series or shows, listening to English songs, watching films, and using the internet, which encompassed chatting with friends and visiting English websites. Aligning with other findings of the studies, gender differences appeared regarding the spent time on informal activities, where boys spent much more time on English video games. However, since the study emphasized informal gaming practices carried out in English, the game mode, whether the game was multi-player or single-player, was also examined regarding the gender variable; accordingly, boys preferred online multi-player games while girls played more single-player video games. Among the research aims of the study, vocabulary knowledge of the students was measured using a test designed by the researchers and involved assessing both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge; and general English proficiency was obtained through listening and reading comprehension, which was the part of a mandatory national test of English in Sweden. Frequent gamers, those who spent 5 hours and more on gaming, had higher vocabulary test scores both in receptive and productive parts of the test; moreover, genders were also differed in terms of vocabulary scores, where the boys outperformed the girls on all parts of the vocabulary test, in line with the results of Sundqvist's (2009) previous study. Regarding proficiency in English, frequent gamers had higher listening and reading comprehension scores, but contrary to the results regarding vocabulary knowledge, no difference was found between the genders in terms of proficiency tests. Summarizing the findings of the study, Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) concluded that the research is significant since it examines possible relation between playing digital games and incidental and informal L2 English acquisition, yet they reminded us that potentially significant characteristics; such as linguistic aptitude, general cognitive ability, and learning styles, might have impacted their vocabulary knowledge and proficiency gains.

To determine the nature of informal activities carried out using computers and the relationship between spent time on those activities and English learning motivation, Sundqvist and Sylvén (2014) conducted a study with 112 4th-graders in Sweden using a questionnaire and a language diary to map learners' contact with English in informal settings. As a result, 4th-graders, despite their young age, were involved in language-related computer use frequently, and the informal activities, the order from the most popular to the least, included watching TV, playing video games, listening to music, watching films, and surfing the internet. Similar to the previously mentioned studies, gender differences were revealed for the frequency of involving informal activities; boys spent more time on informal activities overall and played video games and watched films more frequently than the girls. On the contrary, girls significantly spent more time surfing the internet in English than the boys did. Commenting on the results, Sundqvist and Sylvén (2014) argued that boys appeared to be driven by competitive and interactive aspects of those activities, such as the competitive nature of video games and in-game interaction with other players. Girls, on the other hand, seemed to be driven by the opportunities that provide social interaction within a specific space, such as chatting and texting via social media. Among the research aims, the overall motivation for learning English was reported as highly positive, and speaking anxiety was low among the Swedish young learners of English. Specifically, frequent gamers reported much less anxiety about speaking in English. One of the interesting findings was that the 4th-graders studied in the research spent more time involved with English informally than they did in school.

In a similar fashion, Hannibal Jensen (2017) conducted a study aiming to reveal Danish young learners' engagement with English in informal spaces. Using a one-week language diary and vocabulary test, the data of 107 Danish young learners aged between 8-10 were analysed to discover the nature of learners' involvement with English and whether these involvements were related to their vocabulary test scores. The study emphasized the gaming and TV viewing practices primarily; however, the impact of other activities, including listening to music, visiting websites etc., were in the scope of analysis. Regarding the popularity of the activities, girls preferred listening to music, and it was followed by watching TV in English, whereas boys preferred gaming practices and it was followed by watching TV. Supporting the findings of previous studies (Kuppens, 2010; Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014), playing video games differed significantly between genders; boys involved in gaming practices much more than the girls; however, girls significantly spent more time listening to music. Vocabulary

scores, on the other hand, did not differ between genders. However, since the participants comprised of early (age 8) and late starters (age 10), who had received nearly the same hours of formal English instruction in school due to a policy change in Denmark, the study also investigated the difference between mentioned groups regarding vocabulary scores. As a result, early starters scored higher than the late starters did. Hannibal Jensen (2017) argues on the issue that the difference in vocabulary scores between late and early starters might, in fact, stem from the involvement in informal activities; that is, late starters had more years to involve with English outside of the classroom than the early starters due to the age difference. Thus, even though they had the same amount of instruction, the difference in vocabulary scores supports the importance of spending time on informal activities in English. As the scope of the study mainly concerned with the informal gaming practices, Hannibal Jensen (2017) gathered not only the spent time on games but also the various input types provided by the video games. In line with the Sylvén and Sundqvist's (2012) study, the boys preferred video games that provide both written and oral input, or only oral input when compared to girls' game preference. A comparison of engagement with games and vocabulary test scores suggested that gaming in English was significantly related to vocabulary scores. The relationship between those specifically appeared for the video games that provide both oral and written input, whereas the video games that provide only written input or oral input had no significant relationship with vocabulary scores of the young learners.

Putting emphasis on the various type of exposure provided by informal activities carried out in English, Peters (2018) examined the impact of informal language learning activities such as music, television and movies with and without subtitles, computer games, books, magazines, and the internet on two groups of Dutch-speaking teenagers in recent research. Contrary to the previous studies, the participants consisted of 16 and 19-year olds. Two groups of EFL learners in Flanders were administered a vocabulary knowledge test and a questionnaire; one group was in their third year of formal teaching and the other group was in their sixth year of formal instruction. On the preferred type of informal activities, watching TV and films, listening to music, playing video games, and the internet were among the most popular ones. Regarding the difference in the types of activities preferred and spent time on, genders were, again, revealed to differ; that is, male students spent more time playing video games in English, reporting playing several times a week. Moreover, 16-year olds involved in playing video games in English more frequently when compared to 19-year olds, whereas, 19-year olds spent more

time watching English-speaking TV programmes without subtitles. On the analysis of the variance in vocabulary knowledge test scores, two groups were differed; 19-year old learners had higher scores than 16-year old learners, however, no significant difference was revealed regarding genders, on the contrary to the findings of previous studies. To fulfill the aims of the research, vocabulary knowledge of the learners were examined in relation to their spent time on various informal language learning activities. As a result of the study, Peters (2018) came to the conclusion that there was an apparent relationship between vocabulary knowledge and exposure to non-subtitled television and movies, the Internet, and printed materials exposed through out-of-class settings. Effect sizes presented that the most prominent effect size was found for the use of the internet in English, and it was followed by non-subtitled TV programmes and non-subtitled films. Though among the popular activities, the impact of listening to English songs was found to be negligible in terms of vocabulary knowledge. Contrary to the previous studies' findings emphasizing the role of informal gaming practices in vocabulary knowledge, Peters (2018) found no relation between gaming and vocabulary knowledge among 16- and 19-year-old EFL learners, which might be due to the participants' older age, as university learners may game less frequently than younger learners. It was also underlined that the out-of-class exposure had a greater impact on learners' vocabulary knowledge than teaching length. In contrast with the findings of previous studies, watching TV programmes or films with subtitles appeared to have no impact on vocabulary knowledge, and Peters argued that this finding could be due to the lack of variance in the sample, as nearly all of the participants watched subtitled TV programmes or films in their spare times. Overall, having evaluated a range of informal activities in regard to vocabulary knowledge, the study provides insight into the impact of out-of-class exposure through media and the internet.

Expanding on Peters (2018) previous research findings, Peters et al. (2019) reached out to a larger sample consisting of 138 Flemish learners of English and French as foreign languages attending secondary education and higher education, that is, 2nd and 4th graders from high schools, and first-year students from the university. Different from the previous research, they also examined the French vocabulary knowledge and out-of-class exposure in order to compare the results with the English. In line with the previous studies, males reported more frequent engagement with video games when compared to females. Moreover, contradicting the findings of Peters' (2018) study though aligning with other studies in the field, males had higher vocabulary scores than females in general. Still, this finding did not appear in the further

analysis. Education level also was observed to be parallel with vocabulary knowledge. Structural equation modelling for English vocabulary knowledge further revealed that playing video games in English, among six factors related to out-of-school involvement, had a significant effect on the vocabulary knowledge of all participants. This finding also contradicted the Peters' (2018) previous study but aligned with the other studies focusing on vocabulary knowledge and out-of-class engagement. Considering all of this evidence, it seems informal language learning and successful L2 English learning appear to be inextricably related.

Other numerous recent studies on vocabulary knowledge and out-of-class engagement aligned with those mentioned to this end. Listening to music, playing video games, watching English-speaking media, including films, series, and videos online, and using social media were among the most prevalent activities carried out in English beyond the classroom. Moreover, those activities have appeared as a substantial part of learners' daily lives even though the age and context of learners varied within the studies (Cadierno et al., 2022; Cengizhan, 2019; De Wilde et al., 2020b, 2020a, 2022; De Wilde & Eyckmans, 2017; Hannibal Jensen, 2019; İnci, 2021; Kussyk, 2017; Niitemaa, 2020; Toffoli & Sockett, 2014). From these studies, in addition to the prevalence of informal activities among language learners, substantial implications have been suggested. Especially for vocabulary knowledge, the impact of out-of-class engagement resulted as a significant factor even when evaluated with word related and learner-related variables, including cognateness, instruction, and age. De Wilde et al. (2022) suggested that language gains were evident for language learners who had not received any English instruction thanks to their involvement with English through out-of-school exposure; and other studies found the same pattern on the issue (De Wilde et al., 2020b; De Wilde & Eyckmans, 2017; Peters et al., 2019). Moreover, the age of learners is mainly found to be related to both the engagement with English beyond the classroom and vocabulary gains (Niitemaa, 2020; Peters, 2018; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). Cadierno et al. (2022) revealed that learners with the same length of English instruction with differing ages had varying vocabulary knowledge and out-of-class exposure; 9-year-olds scored higher compared to 7-year-olds and gained more vocabulary knowledge in a year from the 7-year-olds even though they both had 6 years of English instruction. Word related variables have also been studied along with out-of-class engagement and presented insightful findings. For example, though word-related variables such as cognateness were deemed to play a crucial role, vocabulary knowledge was explained better when the impact of out-of-class engagement was included (De Wilde et al., 2022). Learner-

related factor such as age has also been highlighted; males significantly had higher scores regarding vocabulary tests in various studies, and this finding appeared as the impact of gaming practices; that is, males spent more time on gaming and had broader vocabulary knowledge in turn (Cadierno et al., 2022; Hannibal Jensen, 2017; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). To put it another way, males' frequent participation in gaming practices in English resulted in broader vocabulary knowledge of males.

To this end, engagement with English through online informal activities has been shown to be connected with higher vocabulary knowledge, and even when the other factors are present, including length of instruction, age, word-related variables, gender, still, out-of-class contact explained the vocabulary knowledge of language learners.

2.3.3. Informal Language Learning Research from Turkey

To date, various studies inquiring about the nature and the impacts of language learners' involvement in informal opportunities outside the classroom have appeared. Despite the rising interest in the phenomena throughout the world, studies exploring out-of-class language affordances of language learners in Turkey are sparse. Previous research in different contexts, as demonstrated above, has proved the potential of informal language learning for language acquisition; for example, in France (Kusyk & Sockett, 2012), China (Lai et al., 2015), South Korea (Lee, 2017), Denmark (Hannibal Jensen, 2017, 2019), Sweden (Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012), and Brazil (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016).

Among the few studies conducted in Turkey on the issue, Inozu et al. (2010) investigated out-of-class activities and materials used by 309 freshmen ELT students. The participants reported not having opportunities to use English; hence they felt anxiety and lack of confidence in using English outside the classroom. Among the materials used in out-of-class context, a dictionary was the most popular one, followed by the internet and listening to English songs. When they asked the reason for using materials for learning English, the majority mentioned personal goals, or they used them because it was advised by the teacher and to prepare for the examinations. Regarding the activities carried out in English out-of-class, using the internet for research, e-mail and chat came first and was followed by listening to music or radio, watching TV programmes and films. Moreover, English vocabulary skills were reported to be the most benefitted among other skills by using language learning materials used out-of-class. Though

the scope of the study was limited to the self-instructional aspect of informal language, it provided a vital starting point for informal language learning practices in Turkey.

Coşkun (2016), on the other hand, focused on speaking skills in his study, asked volunteer university-level learners to choose a speaking activity that they could carry out outside of the classroom and interviewed them weekly. At the end of the implementation, a survey including open-ended questions with the purpose of revealing the nature of chosen activities, as well as how the participants enrolled in them, the reason behind choosing the specific activity, and lastly, the perceived benefits of the activity, was employed. The student-initiated speaking activities that emerged from the study included role-playing games, continuous story games, radio programmes, and live streaming online. The participants mostly reported benefits of those self-invented speaking games, and overall, their reactions were positive. The study was experimental in nature, nevertheless, the revealed patterns of learners' choice of out-of-class activities in the study might give insight into the reasons why they choose specific activities in informal settings naturally; that is, their self-initiated activities mostly compromised gaming elements that could provide enjoyment and challenge, and emphasize meaningful communication within the activities in Coşkun's (2016) study, similar to the nature of preferred activities by language learners in other studies, such as watching TV and films, playing video games, listening to songs, and reading websites for fun.

The sample of two studies presented above consisted of the students studying English-related degrees, Inozu et al.'s (2010) study was carried out with ELT students, while Coşkun's (2016) study was carried out with English Translation and Interpretation students. Ekşi and Aydın (2013) explored the out-of-class language practices of students participating in English Preparatory Classes. The data were gathered using a questionnaire that included open-ended questions to reveal students' experiences outside the classroom. The results showed that the students' favourite pastime was listening to music, followed by watching films and using a dictionary. Open-ended questions highlighted three themes: the significance of out-of-class language learning for students, reasons why they were unable to participate in out-of-class language learning, and the person who supervised their out-of-class language learning. The most common reason to involve informal practices appeared to learn new vocabulary items in English and to increase the amount of English input. When asked the reasons behind their lack of involving out-of-class activities in their daily life, the participants reported having no opportunities for practice outside the classroom, as well as having no place to study, and

mentioned their lack of interest and motivation towards self-study English. Overall, the study emphasized the self-instruction aspect of the out-of-class engagement. While the preference of activities implied that the participants simply chose them because those activities provided enjoyment and aligned with their general interest, the open-ended questions in the study solely focused on the self-study practices of the participants, ignoring the investigation of most common activities that learners carried out without the deliberate intention to improve their language skills.

From a similar point, Orhon (2018) examined the informal language learning practices of 109 Turkish EFL students attending the English Preparatory Programme using a questionnaire. As a result, listening to music was the most popular out-of-class activity, and it was followed by watching TV programmes and films, and playing video games in English, as supported by other studies from different contexts. The findings also revealed that the activities in which learners are required to use the language for production, such as writing and speaking, are performed rarely. Even though the questionnaire included self-instruction activities, learners seemed to be not engaged in language activities that focus solely on language development, such as writing articles, reading books, or working on projects. On the perceived benefits of the activities carried out in English outside the classroom, the participants reported having benefitted from watching TV or films the most, and it was followed by listening to English songs.

Investigating the out-of-class contact on vocabulary knowledge from a unique perspective, Çetinkaya Bektaş (2021) conducted a study with the high achievers' ELT students regarding their vocabulary size; after employing vocabulary size test on ELT students, the interviews were carried out with the students achieved largest vocabulary size in order to reveal the factors facilitated their vocabulary learning. Common characteristics of these students were that they were playing video games on a daily basis, surfing the internet, and watching TV and films regularly; therefore, their use of English was based on the daily life purposes along with entertainment aspects.

Lastly, in the studies carried out by Cengizhan (2019) and İnci (2021), consistent patterns regarding the involvement in online informal activities were reported. Listening to English songs came the first in popularity among Turkish EFL learners in both studies, and it was followed by watching TV series and films. In Cengizhan's (2019) study, however, learners consisted of ELT students, while İnci's (2021) sample was middle and high schoolers. Playing

video games, thus, differed between the studies; ELT students played much less while it was the third most preferred activity among İnci's (2021) sample. Nevertheless, the congruent findings were evident, as mentioned in previous studies; learners opted for receptive activities. 10th-graders engaged with English more, in line with previous studies indicating that older learners tended to engage more in online informal activities (Cengizhan, 2019; Peters, 2018). One finding that is somewhat surprising was that females spent significantly more time with English beyond the classroom in İnci's (2021) study.

2.4. Vocabulary and Foreign Language Learning

Vocabulary has been a major area of interest within the field of foreign/second language learning. In a variety of ways, the necessity of mastering vocabulary is demonstrated. Extensive research has shown the fundamental role of developing vocabulary knowledge as knowing the words in the target language is viewed as being key to communication (Webb & Nation, 2017). Wilkins (1972, as cited in Li, 2016) emphasizes the functionality of vocabulary knowledge by having stated: "Without grammar, very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed." (pp. 111-112).

Empirical research presented numerous pieces of evidence on the relationship between various means of language proficiency and vocabulary knowledge. Among the most thorough investigation on the matter, Alderson (2005) discovered that the vocabulary test battery and the checklist test, including language skills and sub-skills, correlated with reading, listening, writing, and grammar. As a result of the correlation analysis, vocabulary knowledge accounted for 37–62% of the variance in language proficiency scores comprised of various measures. Schmitt (2010) argues that even though there was a wide range of factors by which these results might have been influenced, he states that it is remarkable that a single element, vocabulary knowledge, could explain such a vast portion of the variation. The link between vocabulary and writing is solid, but specific skill subcomponents (such as inferencing) have a substantial relationship to vocabulary knowledge as well. In conclusion, the study reinforces the intuitive view that vocabulary is critical for language proficiency, and Alderson (2005), on the result of the study, concludes: "...the size of one's vocabulary is relevant to one's performance on any language test, in other words, that language ability is to quite a large extent a function of vocabulary size." (p. 88).

Other studies emphasizing the function of vocabulary knowledge in L2 investigated how much vocabulary is needed for a language learner to be able to communicate in L2. According to the general idea, English language learners need to know about 3,000-word families to comprehend spoken discourse and 8,000 to 9,000 to understand written language in L2 (Peters & Webb, 2018). Though L2 learners are not required to reach native-like vocabulary sizes to use English communicatively, still, they need to achieve a certain level of vocabulary knowledge for the purpose; however, developing vocabulary knowledge is not an easy task for the majority of the language learners.

Considerable research shows that vocabulary acquisition is a gradual process in which learners gradually increase knowledge of new words through the recurrent encounter with that word over time and that measurable learning requires at least 10 such encounters (Webb, 2007). Nevertheless, acquiring vocabulary is a significant problem for L2 learners, particularly in circumstances where language contact is limited (Ellis, 1994; Siyanova-Chanturia & Webb, 2016). In EFL contexts, it is safe to assume that classroom time is not sufficient for learners to encounter words repeatedly. In the EFL classrooms, the balance between deliberate learning and other learning, occurring in natural settings where the target language exposure is abundant, is uneven; deliberate learning generally takes up a larger amount of class time than it should (Rodgers & Webb, 2011). Learners need greater exposure to the language than is typically provided in foreign language classes in order to acquire a significant number of words; consequently, formal learning should be supplemented with informal learning (De Wilde et al., 2020a). Deliberate learning could result in a relatively rapid and efficient increase in learners' vocabulary knowledge; however, these gains provided by deliberate learning are unlikely to be adequate to enable learners to process and use words (Webb & Nation, 2017).

If the learners are to comprehend speech and writing in L2, they need to know 9,000 most frequent word families (Nation, 2006), which requires an effective and well-organized vocabulary learning method as well as extensive exposure to the target language. Evidence regarding the vocabulary growth in the EFL context suggested limited progress. In one example, Webb and Chang (2012) found that only 16% of Taiwanese EFL learners in the sample had achieved the words in the 2,000-word families as a result of 9 years of English language instruction. In a large scale study conducted with Vietnamese EFL learners aged 18, van Duy and Nguyen (2019) revealed that 14% of the students mastered 2,000-word families even though they had received 10 years of English instruction. Similar results were obtained in

Nguyen and Webb's (2016) study; most of the Vietnamese EFL university students, who had completed 7 years of English instruction, could not achieve the 2,000-word level in the study. In the Turkey context, Ertürk (2021) investigated the receptive vocabulary knowledge of the 176 EFL learners attending university and discovered that only 22% of them mastered the first 1,000 word families, and 11% mastered the 2,000-word level. Contrary to the previous research in the Turkey EFL context, the majority of the sample in Kavanoz and Varol's (2019) study had the mastery of 2,000-word level; however, considering that the sample consisted of private middle schoolers who had English instruction 12 hours a week with both native and non-native English teachers since 1st grade, it seems problematic to generalize the results over to the population, since public middle schools in Turkey only provides 3 to 6 lesson hours for English instruction in a week. Kavanoz and Varol (2019), in the same vein, argued that the vocabulary scores of middle schoolers having 12 hours of English instruction since the first grade was relatively low when considering abundant input to the target language.

In the light of the brief empirical evidence presented above, EFL learners are mostly unable to achieve the minimum level of vocabulary knowledge to communicate in L2. Thus, extracurricular or informal practices have been emphasized for developing the vocabulary knowledge of EFL language learners. On the issue, extensive reading and viewing programmes have been argued in regard to supplementing the vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners. It is argued that, in order to promote vocabulary development, a proactive and systematic strategy is required, which incorporates both explicit education and exposure to vast volumes of linguistic input, mainly through extensive reading (Schmitt, 2010). Extensive reading has a lot of appealing advantages when viewed solely as a language or vocabulary acquisition technique. Because it extends learning time, the learner's development is not limited solely by the constraints of classroom time. According to Nation (2012), developing vocabulary through reading benefits learners because of recurrent encounters with the same word. Extensive reading offers learners opportunities for recurrent exposure to the same lexical item; it also allows them to encounter words in their contexts of usage, assisting them in noticing, reading, analysing, and finally learning new things. That is, it could be assumed that extensive reading practices benefit learners with L2 words and structures in ways that are reflected in increased integrative performance (Nakanishi, 2015; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010), but the direct effects of involvement in an extensive reading program on vocabulary growth remain mostly unknown (Horst, 2005). Cobb (2007) revealed that even with extensive reading, language

learners might be unlikely to master the most frequent 3,000 words. Thus, the benefits and effectiveness of extensive reading programmes have been argued.

The studies emphasized that incidental learning practices have become evident in the literature. Webb and Chang (2012) concluded that unassisted repeated reading of short texts provides beginner learners improvement in receptive knowledge of the form and meaning of the target words. Television viewing is also suggested as being among the other various ways to improve learners' vocabulary knowledge as there is a recurrent encounter with words in a short TV viewing (Webb & Rodgers, 2009). In another study, Rodgers (2013) discovered that EFL learners were able to acquire words and enhance their listening comprehension by viewing L2 television on a daily basis. In the corpus-driven study conducted by Rodgers and Webb (2011) on narrow viewing, in which the entire seasons of television shows were analysed to draw on the findings on probable comprehension increases, it was concluded that language learners could learn vocabulary by watching episodes of television. Briefly, television is argued to be implemented in the classroom on a regular basis to improve L2 learning, especially the vocabulary knowledge, which could be a valuable resource for incidental vocabulary learning in EFL settings (Peters & Webb, 2018; Rodgers, 2013; Rodgers & Webb, 2011; Webb & Nation, 2017; Webb & Rodgers, 2009).

The majority of the studies mentioned above were conducted in a controlled setting and emphasized the viewing practices to be implemented in classroom learning. Taken together with the studies mentioned above, whether the opportunities are provided in or outside the classroom, or whether they are teacher-initiated or not, the viewing and other related input in the target language had a substantial impact on vocabulary knowledge.

2.4.1. Measuring Vocabulary

As Milton (2009) underlines, there is limited consensus on which approaches are best appropriate for assessing vocabulary knowledge within the field of SLA. One of the thoroughly researched tests is the vocabulary checklist test, which assesses passive vocabulary recognition to give an estimate of how much vocabulary one knows. It is time-efficient since learners have to tick the words they know. However, it comes with limitations, as all vocabulary measuring tests do. The disadvantages of the vocabulary checklist include that the learners could guess when they are not sure of a word. Other very widely used tests are recognition and recall tests, in which learners ought to match the word with its translation or explanation in the target

language. As adopted in this study, the Vocabulary Levels Test is a recognition test that allows an estimation of knowledge of words. Guessing could be taken place in the assessment of the test; however, Gyllstad et al. (2015) argue that the test was designed to minimize the guessing effects.

The Vocabulary Levels Test was created with the intention of being used in the teaching of English as a diagnostic tool and determines how large a learner's receptive vocabulary is (Nation, 2012). It is a monolingual test, which means it is entirely in English. The VLT's first level evaluated words from the second and third most common 1,000-word families, while the second level assessed words from the third most common 1,000-word families. The third level examined terms at the 5,000 Level, which was thought to be halfway between high and low-frequency vocabulary (Nation, 2012). As a result, as the words get more difficult/rare, learners are likely to know less at each successive level of the test.

2.5. Summary

To this end, the underlying theories in the field of SLA and language learning and teaching, in general, have been reviewed and discussed within the scope of the research, that is, learners' online informal practices carried out in English and language gains especially vocabulary knowledge. As a field of inquiry, informal language learning has been emphasized throughout the review of numerous studies, and the learners' practices beyond the language classroom have been evaluated the unintentional and not deliberate in nature, as they are seen as a by-product of communication and interests.

OILE, with the emphasis on online practices in learners' daily lives, in this sense, has been presented through scrutinising the previous research. Both the prevalence of online informal practices and the impact of those practices on L2 development had prominence in the field of study. Nevertheless, the studies conducted in Turkey had come short in explaining a general picture of learners' practices in out-of-class settings, especially the inquiry of indeliberate and interest-driven aspects of those practices remained unveiled to date. Beyond the lacking of emphasis on learners' engagement with English without the initial purpose of learning English, the impact of those involvements on language learners' vocabulary knowledge is yet to be discerned. Therefore, the scope of the present study further aims to contribute to and precede the inquiry of Turkish EFL learners' nature and in-depth analysis of

English use and exposure, not only as language learners but also as language users. Bearing in mind that the inquiry of the discussed issues above regarding the Turkish EFL context is in infancy, the present research hopes to add one more stone to the foundation of the body of research on learners being referred to as English language users since they are driven by the intention to communicate and be a part of the global community. By doing so, the research on the phenomenon could keep up with global research trends and consequently make the implications evident not just for policymakers and language teachers but also for the authorities.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In the present chapter, the design and procedure of the study are presented, including the research design, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, and employed data analysis methods. To begin with, the adopted research design for the study and its implications are discussed, followed by the instruments deployed for gathering data. After presenting the instrument, the data collection procedure, including the participants and setting, is discussed. Finally, employed statistical methods to reveal the relationship between online informal practices and vocabulary levels in the study are presented.

3.2. Research Design

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between online informal practices carried out in English and the vocabulary levels of high school students. The study also explores the common online informal practices carried out in English and the relationship between various types of informal practices in regard to vocabulary levels. Considering its characteristic features as it involves focusing on variables and common features of groups of people (Dörnyei, 2007), a quantitative approach was adopted for the present study to reveal the general pattern of the online informal language practices carried out by L2 learners and relationship with their vocabulary levels. Since the present study is both descriptive and exploratory in nature, the cross-sectional survey method is employed to fulfil the aims of the research.

The survey method offers an effective way of reaching out to a larger sample and having more generalized results, providing processable data that could be used to reveal the relationship between the variables and how and why they are related, and describing the nature of existing tendencies across the population (Cohen et al., 2007). In a cross-sectional design, the data are gathered at one point in time (Punch, 2003), and the design was used in the present study as it provides a snapshot of the existing relationship between the language learners' informal involvement with English and their vocabulary levels, in addition to the other variables that might affect or explain this relationship.

There are several ways of inquiring about learners' practices with the English language outside the school, quantitatively or qualitatively. While adopting a qualitative method would be preferable for investigating and describing the individual differences and the nature of the involvement with the English language in informal spaces; inquiry of the common features of the target population regarding their informal practices, and identification of the relationships between these practices and other variables including the language outcomes requires a quantitative method to be used. Supporting the idea, Sundqvist (2011) argues that quantitative methods enable researchers to compare the different learner populations regarding their engagement with English beyond the language classroom, their backgrounds, and other variables related; consequently, a solid base for further research on the issue could be founded to formulate new research questions.

Though learners' variability of the involvement with the English content in informal spaces in terms of frequency, type, or intention, and furthermore, individual differences in informal practices carried out might be discovered and represented in detail by using a qualitative approach; adopting the quantitative method provided a general picture and the prevalence of phenomenon in Turkey. As an understudied concept, the researcher primarily focused on revealing the Turkish learners' informal language learning in online spaces with the hope that the present research would path the way for a detailed further investigation that dissects the individual differences and intentions regarding those involvements.

3.3. Settings and Participants

To reveal language learners' engagement with English in informal online spaces, 9th- and 10th-graders attending high school were selected as the research group. The reason behind selecting 9th and 10th-graders was to reach a sample that differs in their time spent online yet get the same amount of formal English instruction. As students are required to choose a branch at 11th grade with the purpose of focusing on a specific area of study regarding science or social branches, 11th- and 12th-graders were not included as their English instruction per week differed from non-branch students. 12th- and 11th-graders also devote much of their time to preparing for the university entrance exam (YKS) (İnci, 2021); thus, their involvement in online informal activities might not reflect their regular daily engagement. Other criteria included the type of school; among the types of high school education in Turkey, including general, vocational and technical, and religious education, Anatolian high schools were chosen as the school type for

high school general education. Since the amount of formal English instruction differs for each school type, it was determined to include only a type of high school. It was also taken into consideration in the selection of the school type in which the students' involvement with English outside of the classroom would be the most heterogeneous within the sample. Taken together, 9th and 10th graders from Anatolian High Schools seemed to suit the best for the present study.

The Anatolian high schools were selected by adapting a convenience sampling strategy. Convenience sampling is a method of sampling in which participants are chosen based on a set of practical criteria and are willing to participate in the study (Dörnyei, 2007). Eight schools were selected within three districts in Istanbul. Then, among the selected schools, learners attending to 9th and 10th grades were chosen; therefore, the participants' selection was based on criterion sampling. In this sense, a mixed sampling method was employed by combining convenience and criterion sampling.

Table 3.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants by Schools

Grade	Gender	High Schools in the Study								Total
		B1	B2	B3	B4	K1	K2	K3	S1	
9th	Male	13	3	3	4	7	2	0	3	35
	Female	26	9	4	4	13	14	4	13	87
	Total	39	12	7	8	20	16	4	16	122
10th	Male	21	4	3	1	2	7	1	3	42
	Female	26	5	4	3	7	26	6	6	83
	Total	47	9	7	4	9	33	7	9	125
Total	Male	34	7	6	5	9	9	1	6	77
	Female	52	14	8	7	20	40	10	19	170
Total		86	21	14	12	29	49	11	25	247

The collected data consisted of 247 participants. The schools were named according to their districts, which are B1, B2, B3, and B4 were from the same district, and K1, K2, and K3 were from another district. The third district only consisted of one school, namely S1. Thus, B district compromised 53.8% of the sample, and K district compromised 36% of them. 34.8% of the students participated from school B1, 19.8% from school K2, 11.7% from school K1, 10.1% from school S1, and other remaining were from school B2, B3, B4, and K3. For gender, the female participants in the sample were higher in number, making up 68.8% of the sample. Grades, on the other hand, were almost equally represented in the sample; 49.4% were in 9th

grade, and 50.6% were in 10th grade. The number of participants by their schools is demonstrated in Table 3.1.

3.4. The pilot study

The pilot study was carried out before the main data collection process to revise the developed questionnaire. The initial questionnaire included social media platforms and gathered how much time was spent on those platforms in both their mother tongue and in English. The initial questionnaire were conducted to 45 high school students (9th to 12th grade students) via Microsoft Forms. Their feedbacks on the questionnaire were gathered through asking whether they had hard time completing the questionnaire. Since the participants stated that they had a difficult time deciding on the spent time for each social media platform, especially the time they were involved with English for each platform, the items were extracted only to focus on the activities carried out in English. Another reason for the extraction of the social platform items was that they took a considerable amount of time to complete and decreased the feasibility of the questionnaire.

After the initial analysis of the pilot questionnaire, the items regarding the activities were decided to be gathered around main activities since the analysis of the individual items had been observed not to have served to present a general picture of learners' engagements with informal online activities in English. For example, the initial questionnaire included four items regarding the video gaming practices, aiming to reveal speaking, listening, reading, and writing practices in English during the gameplay. However, the analysis of those items did not provide a general picture of gaming practices in English since the items were not revealing the time spent on those but rather discovered the most used English skill during the gameplay. With this in mind, video game items were grouped into two categories, regarding single and multi-player video games, and the participants were asked to choose spent time gaming in English per week so that the study would be able to present how much time they spent on English gaming practices. The other items, revealing speaking, writing, listening, and reading during the gameplay, were not extracted from the questionnaire; rather, they were presented as follow-up items with the purpose of detailing the practices regarding the main activity. Other items, as exemplified through video gaming items, were gathered up as "main online activities", revealing the actual time spent per week, and others were added as follow-up items revealing

the frequency. As a result, five main activities were employed, with follow-up items revealing details for each activity.

The other items that could not be added as follow-up items under the main activities are referred to as additional activities. Since the actual time spent on “following English posting accounts” or “messaging in English with someone” would not be measurable by means of minutes or hours, those items were grouped as additional activities and gathered learners’ frequency of doing those activities. In other words, the items that were not related to the main activities and not practically measurable by means of time intervals were grouped as additional activities with the purpose of revealing learners’ messaging, social media surfing, and search engine use in English habits.

The main activities and other items regarding English use beyond the classroom also were formed through receiving feedbacks of two participants who had also took the initial questionnaire. These two participants were attending to 9th and 10th grades at the time. Their feedback was taken after the initial analysis of the pilot questionnaire. The participants were asked to present instances where they came across the English language in informal and online spaces. The activities which the participants encountered in English were noted down by the researcher to form main activities and additional activities. In a similar manner, their feedback regarding the piloted questionnaire was obtained; the time-consuming aspect and vagueness of the items that focused on social media platforms separately were highlighted.

With the help of participants’ feedback and initial analysis of the piloted questionnaire, the revised questionnaire was formed. Before applying the questionnaire, three expert opinions were consulted. Two experts were faculty members in the field of foreign language teaching in a university, and the other expert was a faculty member in the field of educational sciences in the same university. Revisions regarding the wording of the items and subtraction of items that were found unnecessary were applied to create the final form of the questionnaire.

3.5. Instruments

Two data collection tools were employed for the study: a questionnaire and a vocabulary test. Their employment in the study is to be presented in the following.

3.5.1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in the present study was developed by the researcher by adapting the questionnaire used in Sundqvist's (2009) study and aimed to gather data about participants' background information, their spent time on the online informal activities in English, and their habits on using English online, and their beliefs on where they learned English from. The questionnaire was translated into Turkish by the researcher.

As described in the previous section, the pilot study was carried out to finalize the questionnaire. The final form of the questionnaire took 25 to 35 minutes to complete and was distributed online using a data collection service provided by Microsoft Corp. In order to distribute as a single data collection tool, the vocabulary test was included within the questionnaire. Therefore, the completion time involved both a questionnaire and a vocabulary test.

In the final form of the questionnaire distributed (see *Appendix F*), the informing letter was presented at the beginning of the questionnaire, including the research aims, participants' data privacy, researcher's contact information, and instructions regarding the questionnaire and vocabulary test. In the following part, the demographic part was presented, including learners' names, genders, grades, the name of the school, and the compromise of the first part of the questionnaire. In the next part, the items regarding the main activities and additional activities were presented, and the Likert scale was employed. For main activities, time intervals were presented as options and participants were asked to choose the time interval they approximately spent on that specific activity. For an example, *Item 7*, "How much time do you spend on watching English-speaking TV series & shows?" had options as follows: "None", "Once per month or less", "Once per week or less", "A few times per week", "An hour per day or less", "1 to 3 hours per day", "3 hours and more per day". All the six main activities had 7 options to choose from and were coded from 0 to 6. For additional activities and follow-up items of main activities were based on frequencies, the data were gathered through a 6-point Likert scale, including options as follows: "Never", "Rarely", "Occasionally", "Sometimes", "Often", "Always"; and coded 0 to 5. Their beliefs in English were collected at the end of the questionnaire. *Item 21* asked the participants' beliefs on where they learned English, and options consisted of "All through school", "Most through school", "Most through out-of-school", and "All through out-of-school". The questionnaire was followed by the vocabulary test (*Items 22-48*).

3.5.2. Vocabulary Levels Test

Vocabulary levels of the learners were collected using Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT), revised by Schmitt et al. (2001). VLT was initially developed by Nation (1983, 1990) to be used in the classroom to assist teachers in developing a vocabulary teaching and learning strategy. Later, Schmitt (2000) revised the Levels Test developed by Nation (Version A) and further, maintaining the previous specifications, developed three equivalent versions (Versions B, C and D) using new bunches of words for each level (Schmitt et al., 2001). All versions have been widely used for assessment of the learners' vocabulary and estimating vocabulary levels (Schmitt, 2010) in various research studies (e.g., Arndt & Woore, 2018; Gibriel, 2017; Rodgers & Webb, 2017; Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Wikström, 2015).

Differing from earlier VLT tests, Schmitt et al. (2001) increased the number of items per level from 18 to 30 to enhance reliability. In Schmitt et al. (2001) study, the validity and reliability of the two new forms, namely Version 1 and 2, were explored through conducting interviews with participants having taken the test to probe their vocabulary knowledge, that is, whether the participants knew the target words or not. As a result of interviews and further statistical analysis, Schmitt et al.'s (2001) concluded that VLT Version 1 and 2 introduced through the study were highly reliable; Cronbach's Alpha was found to be .922 for 2,000-word level, .927 for 3,000 and 5,000-word level. In the present study, Version 2 of VLT developed by Schmitt et al. (2001) was employed.

The test was designed to provide an estimate of vocabulary size at each of the three frequency levels, namely 2,000-, 3,000-, and 5,000-word levels. Each level consisted of 10 items, and each item consisted of three definitions and six words to be matched. The test-takers are required to match the words with the correct definitions, and three words would be left unmatched for each item accordingly. In sum, there were 30 items in the test, and 90 items were to be matched with their definitions (*Item 22-48*). VLT took approximately 15 minutes to complete. For scoring the VLT, Schmitt et al. (2001) proposed that if a test taker's score was 26/30 or higher, they had mastered that level. However, Schmitt (2003) later indicated that a lower cut-off point of 24/30 was sufficient for mastery of a level (as cited in Xing & Fulcher, 2007). And the cut-off point of 24 was taken as the basis for the achievement of the level.

3.5.3. Reliability of the Instruments

The degree to which test results are devoid of measurement errors is referred to as the reliability of an instrument, and could be ensured by measuring internal consistency (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Cronbach Alpha is a reliability indicator that evaluates internal consistency, and an instrument should obtain coefficient of minimum .70 to deem reliable (Dörnyei, 2007).

For the questionnaire, items gathering the frequency of involving online informal activities and beliefs on English were found to be reliable ($\alpha = .81$). Moreover, as mentioned within the pilot study section, expert opinion was consulted. Two control questions were added to the questionnaire, one located before the vocabulary test and the other was at the beginning of the vocabulary test. Those who failed to pass both control questions were excluded from the data analysis. As mentioned in the previous heading, reliability analysis of the employed VLT test was carried out by Schmitt et al. (2001), and Cronbach Alpha coefficient was also found as reliable ($\alpha = .92$).

3.6. Data Collection Procedure

After having obtained the official permissions from the Ethical Committee of University and the Ministry of National Education (MEB) (See Appendix A and B) for data collection tool to employ, the data collection procedure began with visiting high schools selected and contacting principals and teachers to distribute the online form to the students. At the time the data collection procedure took place, the schools were closed due to the Covid-19 pandemic; only principals and required staff and teachers were present at the schools. Therefore, the teachers were contacted to describe the data collection process and to give necessary instruction to complete the questionnaire and VLT. The detailed contact information of the researcher and explicit instruction were provided within the online-distributed questionnaire.

The data collection process took place in June 2021, and 8 schools in Istanbul participated. As the study is cross-sectional in design, the data were collected in one shot (Dörnyei, 2007). Participation in the study was on a voluntary basis. To encourage participation, the five participants selected randomly were rewarded with a bookstore gift card, and the promotion was announced at the beginning of the questionnaire and through the teachers who had distributed the questionnaire. Therefore, to reach out to the random participant rewarded with the gift card, the names were collected within the questionnaire. The gift cards were

delivered through their teachers by indicating the reward winner names only to the schoolteacher responsible for the award winner participant.

3.7. Data Analysis

The study consisted of quantitative data obtained through a questionnaire and VLT, and thus, data analysis was performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 23. Among 247 participants in the sample, five participants' data were excluded from the data analysis as they could not pass both control questions placed within the test. In conclusion, 242 participants' data were analysed. For the analysis of VLT scores, however, 16 participants' data were excluded in total since they did not rate any item in VLT and failed in the control item at the beginning of VLT, leaving 228 participants for the analysis of VLT scores.

As the present research aimed to reveal Turkish 9th- and 10th-graders' involvement with English in online informal spaces and investigate the relationship between online informal contact with English and vocabulary knowledge, the analysis carried out involved both descriptive and inferential statistics in fulfilling the aim. Descriptive statistics were employed to present participants' involvement with English in online informal spaces, and accordingly, frequency tables were used to illustrate the involvement in main activities, additional activities, and beliefs on where English is learned. In addition, within the scope of the research questions, gender and grade differences were demonstrated through both descriptive and inferential statistics. Thus, descriptive statistics data were presented by gender and grades to distinguish possible differences within the variables. However, the comparison was investigated mainly with the inferential statistics to reveal whether the differences between groups were statistically significant, such as in the case in which the amount of involvement was compared within genders and grades. Same processes were adopted to describe the participants' overall vocabulary knowledge. For the research question aiming to discover the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and involvement in online informal activities carried out in English, inferential statistics were employed to compare individual VLT scores and time spent on a specific activity.

Regarding inferential statistics, a number of statistical tests were used in the present research. With the purpose of comparing genders and grades regarding their spent time on individual online informal activities, the Chi-square test and Mann-Whitney U test were

employed since the data were not normally distributed across gender and grade variables. On the contrary, since VLT scores were found to have normal distribution across the gender and grade variables, the Independent Samples T-test was employed. On the correlation with individual online informal activities and VLT scores, Spearman rank correlation was employed with the activities which were not distributed normally, and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was employed for the normally distributed items. Lastly, the Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to reveal whether the VLT scores of four groups based on their belief on where they learned English differed significantly. Effects sizes were interpreted using Cohen et al.'s (2007) suggestions.



CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

In the present chapter, the analysis, and results with regard to participants' online informal learning of English activities and vocabulary level scores, obtained through the questionnaire and Vocabulary Levels Test, are presented. The findings of participants' preferences and frequency of involving online informal activities are introduced, followed by the analysis of gender and grade differences regarding the results. After presenting the results and analysis of the frequencies of online informal activities, the Vocabulary Levels Test results of the participants in regard to gender and grade variables are introduced. In order to reveal the relationship between VLT scores and online informal activities, a correlation analysis is presented. Background variables and other concepts covered by the questionnaire are introduced afterwards in relation to participants' VLT scores and online informal activity involvement. The results are presented in line with the research questions. The present chapter ends with a summary of the findings and a conclusion.

4.2. General Audio, Text, and Video Involvement in English Online

Three items in the questionnaire (*Items 6a, 6b, 6c*) asked participants how often they encountered audio, text, and video in English. Percentages regarding each item investigating different inputs in English were presented by gender and grades in Table 4.1.

42.6% stated they often encountered English texts online, whereas 30.2% reported always having encountered those. The proportion of those who stated they had never encountered English texts online was 1.2%. Similarly, 0.8% stated they never encountered English videos online, while those who stated they always encountered videos online was 30.2%, and 36.8% stated they often encountered them. For English speaking and music, 45.9% stated they always encountered those online, while the proportion for those stating they often encountered them was 36.8%. Overall, the participants reported having encountered English audio, texts, and videos frequently; the majority further stated they encountered those online always or often.

Table 4.1. Participants' General Audio, Text, and Video Involvement in English Online

			Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
			%	%	%	%	%	%
How often do you come across English texts on the online platforms you use?	9 th	Male	.8	1.7	.8	5.8	14.0	5.8
		Female	.0	9.1	5.8	9.1	33.1	14.0
		Total	.8	10.7	6.6	14.9	47.1	19.8
	10 th	Male	.8	.8	1.7	4.1	11.6	13.2
		Female	.8	3.3	1.7	8.3	26.4	27.3
		Total	1.7	4.1	3.3	12.4	38.0	40.5
	Total	Male	.8	1.2	1.2	5.0	12.8	9.5
		Female	.4	6.2	3.7	8.7	29.8	20.7
		Total	1.2	7.4	5.0	13.6	42.6	30.2
	9 th	Male	.0	1.7	3.3	5.8	12.4	5.8
		Female	.8	5.8	8.3	14.0	28.1	14.0
		Total	.8	7.4	11.6	19.8	40.5	19.8
How often do you come across English videos on the online platforms you use?	10 th	Male	.8	.8	2.5	4.1	12.4	11.6
		Female	.0	5.8	4.1	8.3	20.7	28.9
		Total	.8	6.6	6.6	12.4	33.1	40.5
	Total	Male	.4	1.2	2.9	5.0	12.4	8.7
		Female	.4	5.8	6.2	11.2	24.4	21.5
		Total	.8	7.0	9.1	16.1	36.8	30.2
How often do you come across English speaking & music on the online platforms you use?	9 th	Male	.0	1.7	3.3	1.7	12.4	9.9
		Female	.0	1.7	2.5	9.1	30.6	27.3
		Total	.0	3.3	5.8	10.7	43.0	37.2
	10 th	Male	.0	.8	1.7	3.3	10.7	15.7
		Female	.8	.8	3.3	4.1	19.8	38.8
		Total	.8	1.7	5.0	7.4	30.6	54.5
	Total	Male	.0	1.2	2.5	2.5	11.6	12.8
		Female	.4	1.2	2.9	6.6	25.2	33.1
		Total	.4	2.5	5.4	9.1	36.8	45.9

As for the research question regarding the gender and grade differences, the Mann-Whitney U test was employed between 9th and 10th graders, and female and male participants. The mean and median scores for genders and grades are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Mean, Median and Standard Deviation for Participants' Encountering with English Audio, Text, and Video Online

		Grade								
		9 th			10 th			Total		
		Gender			Gender			Gender		
		M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
English texts	Mean	3.66	3.52	3.56	4.00	4.04	4.02	3.84	3.77	3.79
	Median	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
	(SD)	(1.19)	(1.26)	(1.24)	(1.19)	(1.13)	(1.14)	(1.19)	(1.22)	(1.21)
English videos	Mean	3.60	3.48	3.51	3.90	3.93	3.92	3.76	3.70	3.71
	Median	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
	(SD)	(1.12)	(1.23)	(1.20)	(1.21)	(1.25)	(1.24)	(1.17)	(1.26)	(1.23)
English speaking & music	Mean	3.89	4.12	4.05	4.21	4.33	4.29	4.05	4.22	4.17
	Median	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
	(SD)	(1.18)	(.93)	(1.01)	(1.00)	(1.02)	(1.01)	(1.10)	(.98)	1.01)

In order to reveal the differences between genders and grades, The Mann-Whitney U test was employed. First, the test result regarding the gender differences was presented in Table 4.3, and it was followed by the grade differences on the frequency of encountering English audio, texts, and videos on online platforms.

Table 4.3. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing the Frequency of Encountering with English Audio, Text, and Video Online by Genders

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
English texts	Male	74	123.24	9120.0	6087.0	-.272	.785
	Female	168	120.73	20283.0			
English videos	Male	74	122.38	9056.0	6151.0	-.135	.892
	Female	168	121.11	20347.0			
English speaking & music	Male	74	115.13	8519.5	5744.0	-1.018	.309
	Female	168	124.31	20883.5			

As a result of the analysis presented in Table 4.3, no significant difference between the female and males' encountering frequency with English audio, texts, and video on online platforms was revealed. The same procedure was applied to the grades and presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Mann-Whitney U Test Results for Comparing the Frequency of Encountering with English Audio, Text, and Video Online by Grades

	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
English texts	9 th	121	107.06	12954.5	5573.5	-3.396	.001**
	10 th	121	135.94	16448.5			
English videos	9 th	121	107.94	13060.5	5679.5	-3.146	.002*
	10 th	121	135.06	16342.5			
English speaking & music	9 th	121	111.28	13464.5	6083.5	-2.460	.014*
	10 th	121	131.72	15938.5			

**p < .01. *p < .05

Contrary to the comparison of genders with regards to their encountering with English audio, text, and video online, the 9th and 10th graders differed in terms of frequency, as seen in Table 4.4. For English texts online, 10th graders were revealed to encounter more frequently ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 1.14$) when compared with 9th graders ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.24$), and the difference was statistically significant ($p < .01$). The same were recorded with the English videos; 10th graders seemed to encounter with English videos online more ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.24$) when compared to 9th graders' encounter with English videos ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.20$, $p < .05$). And as for the English speaking and music, again, 10th graders had more frequent encounter ($M = 4.29$, $SD = 1.01$) in comparison to 9th graders ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 1.01$, $p < .05$).

In short, 10th graders significantly had a more frequent encounter with English audio, text, and videos on online platforms in comparison to 9th graders. The effect sizes, however, revealed that grade had a small effect on the frequency of encountering English texts ($\eta^2 = .043$), videos ($\eta^2 = .038$), and speaking & music ($\eta^2 = .021$).

4.3. Students' Involvement in Main Online Informal Learning of English Activities

The results related to the frequency of various online informal activities the participants carried out in English are based on the questionnaire. Each activity, including watching films, TV series, videos, listening to music, and playing digital games, was answered individually; thus, the percentages for each activity are presented below separately with the gender and grade variables. After investigating each activity in detail, the Chi-square test was employed to investigate further the differences regarding involvement in the online informal activities between genders and grades.

4.3.1. Watching TV Series & TV Shows

As for the first online informal activity, the participants were asked how much time they spent watching English-speaking TV series or TV shows in their leisure time. Table 4.5 presents the frequencies by percentages. After evaluating the overall participation in the activity, the gender and grade differences were investigated and presented.

Table 4.5. Participants Spent Time Watching English-speaking TV series & TV shows

		How often do you watch English-speaking TV series & TV shows?							Total
		None	Once per month or less	Once per week or less	A few times per week	An hour per day or less	1 to 3 hours per day	3 hours and more per day	
Grade	Gender	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
9 th	Male	2.5	6.6	5.0	9.1	.8	5.0	.0	28.9
	Female	6.6	11.6	7.4	17.4	9.1	13.2	5.8	71.1
	Total	9.1	18.2	12.4	26.4	9.9	18.2	5.8	100.0
10 th	Male	4.1	5.8	1.7	5.8	5.0	6.6	3.3	32.2
	Female	5.0	8.3	9.1	19.0	5.0	15.7	5.8	67.8
	Total	9.1	14.0	10.7	24.8	9.9	22.3	9.1	100.0
Total	Male	3.3	6.2	3.3	7.4	2.9	5.8	1.7	30.6
	Female	5.8	9.9	8.3	18.2	7.0	14.5	5.8	69.4
	Total	9.1	16.1	11.6	25.6	9.9	20.2	7.4	100.0

As seen in Table 4.5, 20% reported watching TV series or TV shows 1 to 3 hours every day; and 7.4%, similarly, reported watching TV series or TV shows 3 hours and more daily. On the other hand, 9.1% of the sample stated they do not watch any English-speaking TV series or TV shows, while the most considerable proportion stated they watch a few times per week was made 25.6% of the participants. Overall, the majority of the participants seemed to involve in watching English-speaking TV series or shows weekly in their leisure time.

The Chi-square test did not show any significant differences between genders and grades' spent time watching TV series and shows in English.

4.3.1.1. Subtitle Preferences

With the purpose of further illustrating the TV viewing habits of learners in their informal spaces, subtitle preferences were asked, that is, whether they watched dubbed, with subtitles, or in the original language. Frequency and percentages regarding learners' preferences on subtitles while watching English-speaking TV series & TV shows were presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Participants' Subtitle Preferences while Watching English-speaking TV Series & TV Shows

		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
Turkish dubbing	<i>f</i>	128	38	14	14	23	3	220
	%	58.2	17.3	6.4	6.4	10.5	1.4	100.0
Turkish subtitles	<i>f</i>	8	19	16	28	74	75	220
	%	3.6	8.6	7.3	12.7	33.6	34.1	100.0
English subtitles	<i>f</i>	40	69	28	53	22	8	220
	%	18.2	31.4	12.7	24.1	10.0	3.6	100.0
Without any subtitles	<i>f</i>	102	52	19	22	20	5	220
	%	46.4	23.6	8.6	10.0	9.1	2.3	100.0

As seen in Table 4.6, more than half of the students (58.2%) stated they never watched English-speaking TV series and TV shows with dubbing, and 17.3% stated they rarely watched with Turkish dubbing. On the other hand, 34.1% stated that they always watch with Turkish subtitles, and 33.6% stated they often watch with Turkish subtitles; thus, the majority preferred Turkish subtitles while watching English-speaking TV series and TV shows. Regarding watching with English subtitles, the proportions stating they rarely watch with English subtitles (31.4%) and they sometimes watch with English subtitles (24.1%) were close in proportion. However, 18.2% stated they never watch English subtitled TV series and shows, whereas the proportion for those stating they always watch with English subtitles was 3.6%. Lastly, watching TV shows and series in their original format, that is, without any subtitles, seemed not to be favoured by the students, as 46.4% stated they never watch without subtitles. However, when mean scores for each subtitle preference were compared, the least favoured one appeared watching TV series with Turkish dubbing ($M = .98$, $SD = 1.44$), and it was followed by watching them without any subtitles ($M = 1.19$, $SD = 1.45$).

4.3.2. Watching Films

The frequency of watching films in English was collected individually, as the watch time for the TV series and TV shows may differ from the films. The involvement with English-speaking films of the participants is presented in Table 4.7 by percentages.

As shown in Table 4.7, 21.1% reported watching English-speaking films a few times a month, and it is followed by the 19% who stated watching two or three times a week. While the participants who never watch English-speaking films made up 9.1% of the sample, 11.2% stated watching 3 or more films in a week. Taken together, nearly half of the participants seemed to watch films weekly in their leisure time.

Table 4.7. Participants' Spent Time Watching English-speaking Films

		How often do you watch English-speaking films?							Total
Grade	Gender	None	A few times per year	Once per month	A few times per month	Once per week	2 to 3 times per week	More than 3 times per week	
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
9 th	Male	2.5	4.1	5.0	9.1	1.7	4.1	2.5	28.9
	Female	7.4	9.1	9.9	12.4	9.1	15.7	7.4	71.1
	Total	9.9	13.2	14.9	21.5	10.7	19.8	9.9	100.0
10 th	Male	2.5	4.1	1.7	7.4	5.8	5.8	5.0	32.2
	Female	5.8	8.3	4.1	13.2	16.5	12.4	7.4	67.8
	Total	8.3	12.4	5.8	20.7	22.3	18.2	12.4	100.0
Total	Male	2.5	4.1	3.3	8.3	3.7	5.0	3.7	30.6
	Female	6.6	8.7	7.0	12.8	12.8	14.0	7.4	69.4
	Total	9.1	12.8	10.3	21.1	16.5	19.0	11.2	100.0

Similar to the findings on English-speaking TV series and TV shows watching, the spent time watching films appeared to be unaffected by the gender or grade variable.

4.3.2.1. Subtitle Preferences

In addition to investigating participants' spent time on English-speaking films, their subtitle preferences for watching films were also directed through 4 Likert-type items (*Items 10a, 10b, 10c, 10d*) so that their involvement with English via films were to be demonstrated. The frequencies and percentages regarding their subtitle preferences while watching English-speaking films were presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. Participants' Subtitle Preferences while Watching English-speaking Films

		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
Turkish dubbing	<i>f</i>	123	40	12	16	21	8	220
	%	55.9	18.2	5.5	7.3	9.5	3.6	100.0
Turkish subtitles	<i>f</i>	7	23	21	22	73	74	220
	%	3.2	10.5	9.5	10.0	33.2	33.6	100.0
English subtitles	<i>f</i>	53	65	23	47	27	5	220
	%	24.1	29.5	10.5	21.4	12.3	2.3	100.0
Without any subtitles	<i>f</i>	115	56	16	15	16	2	220
	%	52.3	25.5	7.3	6.8	7.3	.9	100.0

According to the results, as presented in Table 4.8, watching English-speaking films with Turkish dubbing and without any subtitles was the least preferred, since 55.9% stated they never watch with Turkish dubbing and 52.3% stated they never watch without any subtitles.

However, watching without any subtitles seemed less favoured compared to watching it with Turkish dubbing; while 18.2% stated they rarely watch with Turkish dubbed, the proportion rarely stating watching without any subtitles was 25.5%. When it comes to watching English-speaking films with Turkish subtitles, 33.2% stated they often did, whereas 33.6% stated they always use Turkish subtitles for watching English-speaking films. English subtitles, on the contrary, were not favoured among the participants; 24.1% stated they never watched English-subtitled films, whereas 29.5% stated they rarely use English subtitles while watching. When mean scores for each subtitle preference were calculated, though, watching films with English subtitles ($M = 1.75$, $SD = 1.45$) were favoured more when compared to watching them with Turkish dubbing ($M = 1.07$, $SD = 1.53$).

4.3.3. Watching Videos

Apart from watching films and series, watch time for online videos may vary widely, as the videos could be uploaded by individuals. The frequency of viewing videos online was gathered through *Items 13a*, *13b*, and *13c* and presented using percentages in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. Participants' Spent Time Watching English-speaking Videos

How often do you watch English-speaking videos on video sharing and streaming platforms?									
Grade	Gender	None	Hardly ever	Once per month or less	1 hour per week or less	A few hours per week	2 hours per day or less	More than 2 hours per day	Total
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
9 th	Male	.8	.8	6.6	4.1	8.3	4.1	4.1	28.9
	Female	5.8	5.8	17.4	8.3	14.0	13.2	6.6	71.1
	Total	6.6	6.6	24.0	12.4	22.3	17.4	10.7	100.0
10 th	Male	.0	.0	4.1	5.0	9.9	8.3	5.0	32.2
	Female	5.0	1.7	7.4	12.4	15.7	15.7	9.9	67.8
	Total	5.0	1.7	11.6	17.4	25.6	24.0	14.9	100.0
Total	Male	.4	.4	5.4	4.5	9.1	6.2	4.5	30.6
	Female	5.4	3.7	12.4	10.3	14.9	14.5	8.3	69.4
	Total	5.8	4.1	17.8	14.9	24.0	20.7	12.8	100.0

It can be seen from the data in Table 4.9 that 24% stated they spent a few hours a week watching English-speaking videos online, and it was followed by the 20.7% who stated they watch videos on a daily basis. On the contrary, the participants who reported never watching videos online made up 5.8% of the sample, while the proportion for the ones stating they hardly

watch those was found to be 4.1%. Overall, the majority of the participants appear to watch English-speaking videos online on a daily basis.

No difference in the frequency of watching videos online was found regarding the gender and grade variables.

4.3.3.1. Subtitle Preferences

In line with the investigation of English-speaking films and TV series & shows, the preferences for video watching in English were asked to the participants to discover their engagement with English through videos online. Contrary to the subtitle preferences regarding film and TV watching, however, there were 3 items (*Items 14a, 14b, 14c*) investigating the subtitle preference on watching videos since online videos are not dubbed. The frequencies and percentages regarding the participants' subtitle preferences while watching English-speaking videos were presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. Participants' Subtitle Preferences while Watching English-speaking Videos

		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
Turkish subtitles	<i>f</i>	44	54	31	38	43	18	228
	%	19.3	23.7	13.6	16.7	18.9	7.9	100.0
English subtitles	<i>f</i>	38	43	36	59	40	12	228
	%	16.7	18.9	15.8	25.9	17.5	5.3	100.0
Without any subtitles	<i>f</i>	47	45	24	30	57	25	228
	%	20.6	19.7	10.5	13.2	25.0	11.0	100.0

As seen in Table 4.10, 23.7% stated that they rarely watch English-speaking videos with Turkish subtitles; furthermore, 19.3% stated they never watch with Turkish subtitles. On the contrary, 25% stated that they often watch without subtitles, while the proportion for those stating they always watch without subtitles was 11%. For watching English-subtitled videos, 25.9% stated they sometimes, and 18.9% stated they rarely watched those. Overall, it seemed that none of the subtitle preferences was dominant over any other. However, watching without any subtitles ($M = 2.35$, $SD = 1.74$) slightly had higher mean score than watching with Turkish subtitles ($M = 2.16$, $SD = 1.50$) and English subtitles ($M = 2.16$, $SD = 1.62$).

4.3.4. Listening to English Music

Beside the media viewing frequency of the participants, their involvement in listening to music or podcasts is obtained through the questionnaire (*Item 11*). The frequency of listening to music and podcasts are presented in Table 4.11 by percentages.

Table 4.11. Participants' Spent Time Listening to English Music

		How often do you listen to English-speaking music?							Total
		None	Hardly ever	Once per month or less	1 hour per week or less	A few hours per week	1 hour per day or less	More than 1 hour per day	
Grade	Gender	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
9 th	Male	2.5	1.7	1.7	3.3	4.1	7.4	8.3	28.9
	Female	.8	4.1	7.4	3.3	10.7	13.2	31.4	71.1
	Total	3.3	5.8	9.1	6.6	14.9	20.7	39.7	100.0
10 th	Male	.0	.8	1.7	2.5	5.8	9.9	11.6	32.2
	Female	1.7	.8	1.7	3.3	9.9	16.5	33.9	67.8
	Total	1.7	1.7	3.3	5.8	15.7	26.4	45.5	100.0
Total	Male	1.2	1.2	1.7	2.9	5.0	8.7	9.9	30.6
	Female	1.2	2.5	4.5	3.3	10.3	14.9	32.6	69.4
	Total	2.5	3.7	6.2	6.2	15.3	23.6	42.6	100.0

As for the music and podcasts, 42.6% reported listening to music and podcast more than 1 hour per day, and it was followed by the 23.6% who stated spending 1 hour or less every day on listening to music and podcasts in their leisure time. As seen in Table 4.11, only 2.5% of the participants stated that they do not listen to English music or podcasts, and 3.7% reported they rarely listen to music and podcasts. From these results, it is safe to say that majority of the participants listen to English music and podcast daily.

Furthermore, the Chi-square test revealed that none of the grade and gender differences was significant regarding the frequency of attending to listening to music and podcast in English.

4.3.5. Playing Video Games

In order to obtain participants' involvement in video games, two questions are asked regarding the game modes, namely single or multi-player video games (*Items 19a, 19b*). Since the nature of interaction in those game modes may vary as the player of a single-player video game interact only with the game, rather than other players as in the multi-player video games,

two separate questions are employed to obtain the answers. First, participants' involvement in the single-player video games is presented with percentages. After presenting the involvement in the single-player video games, the gender and grade differences in terms of involvement were investigated and reported. Consequently, the multi-player video game involvement of the participants was presented using percentages, and differences among variables were calculated using the Chi-square test, as used to investigate the single-player video gaming frequencies and the gender and grade differences.

4.3.5.1. Single-player Video Games

Participants' frequency of playing single-player video games was obtained through *Item 19a* and presented in Table 4.12. After presenting the participants' overall involvement in the single-player video games in English, the gender and grade differences were investigated correspondingly.

Table 4.12. Participants' Spent Time Playing Single-player Video Games in English

		How often do you play single-player video games in English?							Total
		None	A few times per month or less	1 hour per week or less	1 to 3 hours per week	3 to 5 hours per week	5 to 7 hours per week	More than 1 hour per day	
Grade	Gender	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
9 th	Male	5.0	4.1	5.0	2.5	3.3	3.3	5.8	28.9
	Female	37.2	14.9	7.4	5.0	3.3	.0	3.3	71.1
	Total	42.1	19.0	12.4	7.4	6.6	3.3	9.1	100.0
10 th	Male	6.6	7.4	4.1	.8	3.3	1.7	8.3	32.2
	Female	22.3	23.1	5.0	9.1	4.1	.0	4.1	67.8
	Total	28.9	30.6	9.1	9.9	7.4	1.7	12.4	100.0
Total	Male	5.8	5.8	4.5	1.7	3.3	2.5	7.0	30.6
	Female	29.8	19.0	6.2	7.0	3.7	.0	3.7	69.4
	Total	35.5	24.8	10.7	8.7	7.0	2.5	10.7	100.0

As seen in Table 4.12, 35.5% of the participants stated not playing single-player video games, while 24.8% of them reported playing a few times or less in a month. On the other hand, the participants who reported playing single-player video games for more than one hour a day made up 10.7% of the sample. Regarding the "None" option for gender, proportions differed considerably between males (29.8%) and females (5.8%). The Chi-square test was employed to reveal whether the difference was significant, and the result was presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. Participants' Spent Time Playing Single-player Video Games by Gender

		How often do you play single-player video games in English?							Total
		None	A few times per month or less	1 hour per week or less	1 to 3 hours per week	3 to 5 hours per week	5 to 7 hours per week	More than 1 hour per day	
Male	<i>f</i>	14	14	11	4	8	6	17	74
	%	18.9	18.9	14.9	5.4	10.8	8.1	23.0	100.0
Female	<i>f</i>	72	46	15	17	9	0	9	168
	%	42.9	27.4	8.9	10.1	5.4	.0	5.4	100.0
Total	<i>f</i>	86	60	26	21	17	6	26	242
	%	35.5	24.8	10.7	8.7	7.0	2.5	10.7	100.0

The Chi-square test revealed a significant difference between genders' spent time on single-player video gaming. As can be seen in Table 4.13, though the single-player video games are not preferred overall; males in total spend much more time when compared to females, as only 18.9% of the male participants reported not playing any single-player games, while females with the proportion of 42.9% reported not playing the single-player video games. In the same vein, 23% of the male participants reported spending more than one hour in a day on single-player video gaming; on the contrary, only 5.4% of females reported spending that much time respectively. Accordingly, further analysis revealed moderate relationship using Cramer's V ($\chi^2 = 43.40$, $df = 6$, $p < .001$, $\phi = .42$).

When the frequency of playing single-player video games between 9th and 10th graders was compared, no significant difference appeared as a result of Chi-square tests.

4.3.5.2. Multi-player Video Games

Participants' frequency of playing multi-player video games was obtained through *Item 19b*. The percentages for each option were presented in Table 4.14 by gender and grade. The demonstration of overall participation was followed by the comparison of the differences between the genders and grades regarding spent time on multi-player video gaming.

As seen in Table 4.14, 43% reported not playing any multi-player video games in English. The participants who stated playing more than 1 hour per week made up 31% of the sample, while 13.6% of them reported playing more than 1 hour per day. 26% stated not playing multi-player games regularly, as they spend 1 hour per week or less playing those games in their leisure time.

Table 4.14. Participants' Spent Time Playing Multi-player Video Games in English

		How often do you play multi-player video games in English?							Total
Grade	Gender	None	A few times per month or less	1 hour per week or less	1 to 3 hours per week	3 to 5 hours per week	5 to 7 hours per week	More than 1 hour per day	
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
9 th	Male	3.3	3.3	4.1	2.5	1.7	5.0	9.1	28.9
	Female	44.6	14.0	5.8	3.3	.0	1.7	1.7	71.1
	Total	47.9	17.4	9.9	5.8	1.7	6.6	10.7	100.0
10 th	Male	5.0	2.5	.8	1.7	4.1	6.6	11.6	32.2
	Female	33.1	17.4	4.1	5.0	.8	2.5	5.0	67.8
	Total	38.0	19.8	5.0	6.6	5.0	9.1	16.5	100.0
Total	Male	4.1	2.9	2.5	2.1	2.9	5.8	10.3	30.6
	Female	38.8	15.7	5.0	4.1	.4	2.1	3.3	69.4
	Total	43.0	18.6	7.4	6.2	3.3	7.9	13.6	100.0

Overall, playing multi-player video games in English was not preferred by the participants. As appeared in the results for single-player games, the “Never” option differed considerably between female (4.1%) and male (38.8%) participants. A Chi-square test was employed to examine the difference. Table 4.15 presents the number of learners and percentages for each option.

Table 4.15. Participants' Spent Time Playing Multi-player Video Games by Gender

		How often do you play multi-player video games in English?							Total
		None	A few times per month or less	1 hour per week or less	1 to 3 hours per week	3 to 5 hours per week	5 to 7 hours per week	More than 1 hour per day	
Male	<i>f</i>	10	7	6	5	7	14	25	74
	%	13.5	9.5	8.1	6.8	9.5	18.9	33.8	100.0
Female	<i>f</i>	94	38	12	10	1	5	8	168
	%	56.0	22.6	7.1	6.0	.6	3.0	4.8	100.0
Total	<i>f</i>	104	45	18	15	8	19	33	242
	%	43.0	18.6	7.4	6.2	3.3	7.9	13.6	100.0

In line with the findings of the single-player video game involvement of the genders, the Chi-square test revealed significant gender differences regarding the spent time on the multi-player video games; consequently, the gender had found to be a large effect on the spent time as a result of Cramer's V ($\chi^2 = 87.00$, $df = 6$, $p < .001$, $\phi = .60$). It is apparent from Table 4.15 that only 4.8% indicated spending more than 1 hour per day on multi-player video games

within the female sample, while 33.8% of the male sample indicated the same spent time. Likewise, the participants who reported not playing any multi-player video games among the genders differed, as 56% of females indicated not playing while the proportion among the males was recorded as 13.5%.

On the contrary to the gender differences, no significant difference between the 9th and 10th grades was evident in terms of spending time on multi-player video games in English.

4.3.5.2.1. Multi-player Video Gaming Interactions

4 items in the questionnaire (*Items 20a, 20b, 20c, 20d*) further asked the participants who stated playing multi-player video games in English to rate the frequency of interactions during the gameplay, including speaking with other players, typing to other players, listening other players' talking, and reading other players' messages or text in the game. The frequencies and percentages are given in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16. Participants' Frequency of Interaction while Playing English-speaking Multi-player Video Games

		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total*
Speaking	<i>f</i>	50	33	21	18	31	18	171
	<i>%</i>	29.2	19.3	12.3	10.5	18.1	10.5	100.0
Typing	<i>f</i>	25	22	21	24	48	31	171
	<i>%</i>	14.6	12.9	12.3	14.0	28.1	18.1	100.0
Listening to other players' talking	<i>f</i>	35	28	25	30	35	18	171
	<i>%</i>	20.5	16.4	14.6	17.5	20.5	10.5	100.0
Reading other players' typing/texts	<i>f</i>	27	21	18	24	57	24	171
	<i>%</i>	15.8	12.3	10.5	14.0	33.3	14.0	100.0

* Number of participants who stated they play English-speaking multi-player video games

Among 171 multi-player video game players, 29.2% stated that they never speak in English, and 19.3% of them reported speaking in English rarely throughout the gameplay (Table 4.16). Those stating they often speak in English with other players were made up 18.1%, and the proportion for the players stating they always speak was 10.5%. Thus, the players seemed not to prefer speaking in English during the gameplay. Contrary to the speaking with other players, 28.1% stated they often typed to other players in English during the gameplay, and 18.1% stated they always typed in English. The proportion of those stating they never type in English during gameplay was 14.6%. Though typing in English appeared more favoured by players when compared to speaking in English, overall, both speaking and typing in English

did not seem to be prevalent among the players. With regard to listening to other players talking in English during gameplay, only 10.5% stated they always listened, and 20.5% stated they often listened to other players talking in the game. However, the other 20.5% reported not listening to others, while the proportion for those stating they rarely listened to others was 16.4%. Overall, the players did not favour listening to other players' speaking in English. In contrast, players seemed to involve in reading other players' texts in English, as 33.3% stated they often read those, while 14% stated they always read the texts. Yet, 15.8% reported not reading others' text in English. When the mean scores for 4 interaction types during the gameplay were investigated, typing in English to the other players in the game ($M = 2.82$, $SD = 1.72$) and reading other players' text or typing in English during the gameplay ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 1.70$) were more common among the players when compared to listening other players' speaking in English ($M = 2.33$, $SD = 1.68$) and speaking in English with other players ($M = 2.01$, $SD = 1.78$) during the gameplay.

4.4. Learners' Involvement in Additional Online Informal Activities Carried out in English

Apart from the main activities carried out online in English, the questionnaire gathered the data regarding other activities such as messaging using English (*Items 15a, 15b*), using English on social media platforms (*Items 14a, 14b, 14c*), or language preferences of the participants while using search engines (*Items 16a, 16b*) and devices (*Item 17*). The frequency for each activity was collected through the employed Likert scale, including statements as follows; *Never, Rarely, Occasionally, Sometimes, Often, and Always*. Percentages were given for each activity with the gender and grade variables. The mentioned additional activities are presented under three sections according to the platforms and the activity types, and an overview of frequencies was followed by the analysis of the gender and grade differences using The Mann-Whitney U tests at the end of each section.

4.4.1. Using English on Social Media Platforms

To reveal participants' involvement with English in social media, three questions (*Item 14a, 14b, 14c*) which focused on the viewing habits of English content and using English to interact with the social media posts were addressed. The percentages of each option were offered in Table 4.17 by gender and grade.

Table 4.17. Participants' Social Media Habits Carried out in English

			Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
			%	%	%	%	%	%
How often do you share English content on social media?	9 th	Male	31.1	6.8	4.1	1.4	4.1	.0
		Female	19.6	7.7	10.1	8.3	3.0	2.4
		Total	23.1	7.4	8.3	6.2	3.3	1.7
	10 th	Male	24.3	8.1	4.1	10.8	4.1	1.4
		Female	11.9	10.1	7.7	10.1	6.0	3.0
		Total	15.7	9.5	6.6	10.3	5.4	2.5
	Total	Male	55.4	14.9	8.1	12.2	8.1	1.4
		Female	31.5	17.9	17.9	18.5	8.9	5.4
		Total	38.8	16.9	14.9	16.5	8.7	4.1
How often do you follow accounts that are sharing English content on social media?	9 th	Male	9.5	5.4	2.7	13.5	6.8	9.5
		Female	4.2	7.1	3.0	10.7	14.3	11.9
		Total	5.8	6.6	2.9	11.6	12.0	11.2
	10 th	Male	1.4	.0	9.5	12.2	16.2	13.5
		Female	3.0	3.6	1.8	5.4	14.3	20.8
		Total	2.5	2.5	4.1	7.4	14.9	18.6
	Total	Male	10.8	5.4	12.2	25.7	23.0	23.0
		Female	7.1	10.7	4.8	16.1	28.6	32.7
		Total	8.3	9.1	7.0	19.0	26.9	29.8
How often do you write comments in English on social media?	9 th	Male	16.2	10.8	4.1	2.7	8.1	5.4
		Female	18.5	10.7	6.5	8.9	3.6	3.0
		Total	17.8	10.7	5.8	7.0	5.0	3.7
	10 th	Male	9.5	14.9	6.8	10.8	5.4	5.4
		Female	13.1	5.4	7.1	12.5	6.0	4.8
		Total	12.0	8.3	7.0	12.0	5.8	5.0
	Total	Male	25.7	25.7	10.8	13.5	13.5	10.8
		Female	31.5	16.1	13.7	21.4	9.5	7.7
		Total	29.8	19.0	12.8	19.0	10.7	8.7

As for the first question investigating the participants' frequency of sharing English content on the social media platforms, 38.8% stated they never share English content through the social media platforms, and it is followed by the 16.9% who rarely share content. 4.1% of the participants reported they always share, and 8.7% stated they often share English content (Table 4.17). Overall, sharing English content on social media platforms was not preferred by the participants.

When the second question was investigated, on the contrary to the sharing habits, the participants stated they frequently follow and thus view English content on social media. 29.8% stated always, and 26.9% often stated they follow the social media accounts which share

English content. Those who reported never following the mentioned accounts made up 8.3% of the participants, while 9.1% indicated that they rarely follow those accounts (Table 4.17).

The next question asked informants how often they write comments in English on social media platforms to assess their public participation using English online. Accordingly, the majority of the participants reported not writing English comments frequently on social media. This finding aligns with their preference for sharing English content. 29.8% stated they never write comments in English, and it is followed by 19% of the participants who rarely write comments on social media (Table 4.17). When compared to the results on sharing habits of the participants, a higher proportion of participants who stated they always write comments in English on social media was recorded. Additionally, 19% stated they sometimes write comments using English on social media platforms.

Taken together, the results regarding participants' involvement with English on social media platforms suggest that they mainly preferred following the account that shares content in English, while sharing English content and writing comments in English on social media platforms were not favoured. Even though both sharing and commenting were not prevalent in general, the participants reported a higher frequency of writing comments in English on social media.

Table 4.18. Mean, Median and Standard Deviation for Participants' Involvement in Social Media in English

		Grade								
		9 th			10 th			Total		
		Gender			Gender			Gender		
		M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Sharing Content on Social Media	Mean	.74	1.50	1.28	1.36	1.94	1.75	1.07	1.71	1.52
	Median	.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	.00	2.00	1.00
	(SD)	(1.27)	(1.51)	(1.48)	(1.55)	(1.57)	(1.58)	(1.45)	(1.55)	(1.54)
Following Accounts	Mean	2.66	3.16	3.02	3.56	3.78	3.71	3.14	3.46	3.36
	Median	3.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00
	(SD)	(1.80)	(1.60)	(1.67)	(1.21)	(1.52)	(1.42)	(1.57)	(1.59)	(1.59)
Commenting on Social Media	Mean	1.83	1.56	1.64	2.08	2.15	2.12	1.96	1.85	1.88
	Median	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	1.00
	(SD)	(1.85)	(1.57)	(1.65)	(1.61)	(1.68)	(1.65)	(1.72)	(1.65)	(1.67)

Within the aims of research question 2.4, a mean score obtained for each item was compared between the genders and grades using The Mann-Whitney U tests to investigate the

gender and grade differences regarding the social media habits carried out in English. The mean scores of each social media activity carried out in English were presented in Table 4.18, including the mentioned variables.

In order to assess gender differences in social media activities, including sharing English content, following English sharing accounts, and commenting in English, the Mann-Whitney U test was employed, and the results were presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing Social Media Activity Frequency by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Sharing Content on Social Media	Male	74	100.36	7426.5	4651.5	-3.237	.001**
	Female	168	130.81	21976.5			
Following Accounts	Male	74	109.36	8093.0	5318.0	-1.840	.066
	Female	168	126.85	21310.0			
Commenting on Social Media	Male	74	124.95	9246.0	5961.0	-.520	.603
	Female	168	119.98	20157.0			

**p < .01.

As a result of the test given in Table 4.19, the only item significantly differed between genders was the frequency of sharing English content on the social media accounts; that is, the female participants significantly reported sharing more content in English ($M = 1.71$, $SD = 1.55$) when compared to the male's sharing frequency ($M = 1.07$, $SD = 1.45$, $p < .01$). Other items concerning the frequency of following English content sharing accounts and commenting in English did not differ between female and male participants, as can be seen from Table 4.19. When the effect size was calculated, it was found that the gender had very small on sharing English content on social media.

After analyzing the gender differences in English involvement on social media, in the same vein, the grade variable was investigated to reveal whether 9th and 10th graders had differed in terms of their using English on social media. To assess the grade difference, The Mann-Whitney U test was used, and the results obtained from the test are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing Social Media Activity Frequency by Grades

	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Sharing Content on Social Media	9 th	121	110.73	13398.5	6017.5	-2.484	.013*
	10 th	121	132.27	16004.5			
Following Accounts	9 th	121	106.57	12895.5	5514.5	-3.411	.001**
	10 th	121	136.43	16507.5			
Commenting on Social Media	9 th	121	111.17	13451.0	6070.0	-2.349	.019*
	10 th	121	131.83	15952.0			

*p < .05., **p < .01.

The results of the analysis, as presented in Table 4.20, revealed that the grades differed with regard to involvement in social media activities in English. 9th graders were found to involve less frequently when compared to the 10th graders, especially in following English content sharing social media accounts ($p < .001$), and subsequently commenting in English ($p < .05$) and sharing English content on social media ($p < .05$). Further inspection of the effect size indicated that the grade had a very small effect on involving sharing English contents ($\eta^2 = .024$), following accounts that share English contents ($\eta^2 = .045$), and writing English comments ($\eta^2 = .022$).

4.4.2. Using English while Messaging

Two items in the questionnaire (*Items 15a and 15b*) measured the extent to which the participants use English in their daily communication with individuals online. In addition to the question to reveal their messaging frequency in English, the second question regarding their preferences for sharing content in English via message was also addressed with the purpose of discovering English use throughout their interaction with the individuals. The percentages regarding the messaging in English and sharing content via messaging were presented by gender and grades in Table 4.21.

The first question asked the informants about their frequency of using English while messaging. As seen in the top half of Table 4.21, 25.6% of the participants reported that they never use English for messaging someone, and it is followed by the 26% stating that they rarely do it. Those who reported they always use English made up 3.7% of the participants, while the proportion for the ones who often use English while messaging was 15.3%. Overall, the participants did not prefer using English in their personal communication with others, similar

to the results regarding their preference for writing comments and content sharing in English on social media platforms where they could reach more people.

Table 4.21. Participants' Messaging Habits Carried out in English

			Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
			%	%	%	%	%	%
How often do you message someone in English on social media platforms or messaging apps?	9 th	Male	12.2	13.5	8.1	2.7	10.8	.0
		Female	19.0	13.1	7.1	6.0	4.8	1.2
		Total	16.9	13.2	7.4	5.0	6.6	.8
	10 th	Male	5.4	17.6	4.1	8.1	13.5	4.1
		Female	10.1	10.7	9.5	9.5	6.5	2.4
		Total	8.7	12.8	7.9	9.1	8.7	2.9
	Total	Male	17.6	31.1	12.2	10.8	24.3	4.1
		Female	29.2	23.8	16.7	15.5	11.3	3.6
		Total	25.6	26.0	15.3	14.0	15.3	3.7
How often do you share English content with someone via texting on social media platforms or messaging apps?	9 th	Male	12.2	9.5	2.7	8.1	9.5	5.4
		Female	11.9	4.8	8.3	9.5	11.9	4.8
		Total	12.0	6.2	6.6	9.1	11.2	5.0
	10 th	Male	6.8	5.4	9.5	8.1	10.8	12.2
		Female	5.4	6.5	3.6	11.3	11.3	10.7
		Total	5.8	6.2	5.4	10.3	11.2	11.2
	Total	Male	18.9	14.9	12.2	16.2	20.3	17.6
		Female	17.3	11.3	11.9	20.8	23.2	15.5
		Total	17.8	12.4	12.0	19.4	22.3	16.1

For the second question, which sought to discover the participants' habits of sharing English content readily available online to individuals via messaging, 22.3% reported they often share the content through messaging someone. 19.4% stated they sometimes messaged the English contents and followed by 17.8% who reported never messaged the contents (Table 4.21).

Overall, the preference for sharing English content with others through messaging was seemed moderate among the participants; however, more preferable when compared to typing the message in English. Similarly, the participants favoured sharing English content via messaging to the individuals over sharing them on their social media accounts, which are accessible by larger audiences.

To answer the research question regarding the differences between grades and genders on the spent time messaging, median and mean scores for variables were computed and presented in Table 4.22, following with the Mann-Whitney U test to analyze the difference in spent time regarding the variables.

Table 4.22. Mean, Median and Standard Deviation for Participants' Involvement in Messaging in English

		Grade								
		9 th			10 th			Total		
		Gender		Total	Gender		Total	Gender		Total
		M	F		M	F		M	F	
Messaging	Mean	1.71	1.37	1.47	2.36	1.98	2.10	2.05	1.67	1.79
	Median	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	1.00
	(SD)	(1.51)	(1.44)	(1.46)	(1.60)	(1.50)	(1.54)	(1.58)	(1.50)	(1.53)
Sharing Content via Message	Mean	2.20	2.37	2.32	2.90	3.00	2.97	2.57	2.68	2.64
	Median	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	(SD)	(1.81)	(1.69)	(1.72)	(1.71)	(1.66)	(1.67)	(1.78)	(1.70)	(1.72)

First, the gender variable was assessed in order to reveal differences between female and male participants on spent time messaging, including texting someone in English and sharing English content with someone via message. Consequently, the Mann-Whitney U were employed, and the results were presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing Messaging Activity Frequency by Genders

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Messaging	Male	74	133.61	9887.5	5319.5	-1.898	.068
	Female	168	116.16	19515.5			
Sharing Content via Message	Male	74	118.95	8802.0	6027.0	-.383	.702
	Female	168	122.63	20601.0			

Though males seemed more involved English messaging ($M = 2.05$, $SD = 1.58$) compared with females ($M = 1.67$, $SD = 1.50$), no significant difference appeared as a result of the Mann-Whitney test ($p > .05$), as seen in Table 4.23. For sharing English content via message, in line with the results of messaging, no significant difference was recorded between males and females on spent time ($p > .05$).

For the grade variable, the same procedure was followed; that is, the Mann-Whitney U test was employed to reveal the difference regarding the spent time on messaging in English within the variable, 9th and 10th graders. The mentioned test results are shown in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing Messaging Activity Frequency by Grades

	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Messaging	9 th	121	107.12	12961.5	5580.5	-3.269	.001**
	10 th	121	135.88	16441.5			
Sharing Content via Message	9 th	121	108.57	13137.0	5756.0	-2.920	.003**
	10 th	121	134.43	16266.0			

**p < .01.

Contrary to the findings of investigating the gender and spent time on messaging, the grade variable was found to differ in terms of spent time on English messaging activities of participants. 9th graders spent much less time ($M = 1.47$, $SD = 1.46$) when compared to 10th graders ($M = 2.10$, $SD = 1.72$) on messaging in English with someone. In line with the messaging, 9th graders spent less time sharing English content with someone via message ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.67$, $p < .01$) than the 10th graders. The effect size calculation revealed that grade had a small effect on messaging English with someone ($\eta^2 = .042$) and sharing English content with someone via messaging ($\eta^2 = .034$).

4.4.3. Using Search Engines and Digital Devices in English

To determine the participants' involvement with English while using the search engines and surfing on the internet and their preferences on device language, three questions were addressed (*Items 16a, 16b, 17*). The percentages regarding answers were given by gender and grades in Table 4.25.

As for the first question focusing on using English for searching on the web, 27.3% stated they sometimes use English, and 24.8% stated they often use it (Table 4.25). Those results were followed by 19% stating that they occasionally use it, while the proportion for those who stated never using English for search engines was 6.6%. In sum, using English while searching on the web was somewhat preferable for the participants.

The findings regarding the question aimed to investigate the participants' reading of the English content they searched on the web showed that 25.2% stated they sometimes read them, whereas 19.8% of them reported that they rarely read those contents. 19% stated they often read English contents they searched on the web, and %10.7 reported they always read them (Table 4.25).

Table 4.25. Participants' Language Preferences while Using Search Engines and Digital Devices

			Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
			%	%	%	%	%	%
How often do you search in English while using a search engine?	9 th	Male	2.7	10.8	5.4	14.9	12.2	1.4
		Female	5.4	10.1	10.7	13.7	8.9	2.4
		Total	4.5	10.3	9.1	14.0	9.9	2.1
	10 th	Male	1.4	6.8	9.5	17.6	14.9	2.7
		Female	2.4	7.1	10.1	11.3	14.9	3.0
		Total	2.1	7.0	9.9	13.2	14.9	2.9
	Total	Male	4.1	17.6	14.9	32.4	27.0	4.1
		Female	7.7	17.3	20.8	25.0	23.8	5.4
		Total	6.6	17.4	19.0	27.3	24.8	5.0
How often do you read the English content you searched for online?	9 th	Male	2.7	14.9	4.1	10.8	9.5	5.4
		Female	8.3	9.5	11.9	10.1	7.1	4.2
		Total	6.6	11.2	9.5	10.3	7.9	4.5
	10 th	Male	1.4	9.5	8.1	16.2	9.5	8.1
		Female	3.0	8.3	6.0	14.3	11.9	5.4
		Total	2.5	8.7	6.6	14.9	11.2	6.2
	Total	Male	4.1	24.3	12.2	27.0	18.9	13.5
		Female	11.3	17.9	17.9	24.4	19.0	9.5
		Total	9.1	19.8	16.1	25.2	19.0	10.7
How often do you use your devices in English?	9 th	Male	10.8	14.9	6.8	8.1	2.7	4.1
		Female	16.7	10.1	6.0	6.5	3.6	8.3
		Total	14.9	11.6	6.2	7.0	3.3	7.0
	10 th	Male	12.2	13.5	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.8
		Female	11.9	7.1	7.7	6.0	3.6	12.5
		Total	12.0	9.1	7.4	6.2	4.5	10.7
	Total	Male	23.0	28.4	13.5	14.9	9.5	10.8
		Female	28.6	17.3	13.7	12.5	7.1	20.8
		Total	26.9	20.7	13.6	13.2	7.9	17.8

Beside using English for searching and reading English content on the web, the last question was asked informants how often they use their digital devices in English. Accordingly, the participants did not seem to prefer using their devices in English since 26.9% stated they never use them in English. The proportion was followed by the 20.7% who reported rarely using the language for their digital devices. On the other hand, those who said they always use their devices in English made up 17.8% of the population. Taken together, though there was a general tendency among the participants not to use the digital devices in English, a considerable ratio was noted for those who always prefer using English as the system language for their devices.

Three items on the questionnaire measured the extent to which the participants use or view English online apart from their involvement with English on social media platforms and

through messaging. As presented in Table 4.25, the participants' preference for using English on the web for both searching and reading appeared moderate. Using English for the system language of their digital devices was not seemed to be desired by the majority of the participants; however, the portion of those who reported always using English for their devices was noticeably high.

For the research question aimed to assess the differences between genders and grades, in line with the previous procedures, the mentioned activities related to using English on search engines and digital devices were examined separately in accordance with the variables. The mean and median scores regarding the spent time on English web search, reading of English websites, and device language was presented in Table 4.26 with the grade and gender variables accordingly. Further analysis on spent time and variables were presented, beginning with the gender variable.

Table 4.26. Mean, Median and Standard Deviation for Participants' Language Preferences while Using Search Engines and Digital Devices

		Grade								
		9 th			10 th			Total		
		Gender			Gender			Gender		
		M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Searching on Search Engines	Mean	2.57	2.35	2.41	2.87	2.78	2.81	2.73	2.56	2.61
	Median	3.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	(SD)	(1.33)	(1.38)	(1.36)	(1.20)	(1.32)	(1.28)	(1.26)	(1.37)	(1.33)
Reading Websites	Mean	2.54	2.21	2.31	2.90	2.82	2.84	2.73	2.51	2.57
	Median	3.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	(SD)	(1.54)	(1.52)	(1.53)	(1.39)	(1.42)	(1.41)	(1.46)	(1.50)	(1.49)
Device Language	Mean	1.77	1.91	1.87	2.05	2.40	2.29	1.92	2.15	2.08
	Median	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	2.00
	(SD)	(1.55)	(1.84)	(1.76)	(1.75)	(1.93)	(1.87)	(1.65)	(1.90)	(1.83)

To compare the females' and males' involvement with English search engine and device language involvement, The Mann-Whitney U test was employed. The test results were given for each activity in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing Language Preferences by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Searching on Search Engines	Male	74	127.42	9429.0	5778.0	-.895	.371
	Female	168	118.89	19974.0			
Reading Websites	Male	74	128.18	9485.5	5721.5	-1.004	.315
	Female	168	118.56	19917.5			
Device Language	Male	74	117.42	8689.0	5914.0	-.614	.539
	Female	168	123.30	20714.0			

As seen in Table 4.27, the analysis of the involvement of genders in the above-mentioned activities revealed no significant differences.

The investigation of the gender variable regarding the involvement in the search engine and device language preferences was followed by the grade variable. Again, The Mann-Whitney U test was used to reveal the possible involvement differences between 9th and 10th graders. The result of the test is given in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing Language Preferences by Grades

	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Searching on Search Engines	9 th	121	111.52	13493.50	6112.5	-2.274	.023*
	10 th	121	131.48	15909.50			
Reading Websites	9 th	121	109.18	13210.50	5829.5	-2.790	.005**
	10 th	121	133.82	16192.50			
Device Language	9 th	121	113.85	13775.50	6394.5	-1.735	.083
	10 th	121	129.15	15627.50			

*p < .05., **p < .01.

It is apparent from Table 4.28 that involvement in using English while searching on the web significantly differed among 9th and 10th graders; that is, 10th graders favoured using English while searching on the web more ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 1.28$) when compared to 9th graders ($M = 2.41$, $SD = 1.36$, $p < .05$). Similarly, 10th graders significantly spent more time on reading English websites ($M = 2.84$, $SD = 1.41$) compared to 9th graders ($M = 2.31$, $SD = 1.53$, $p < .01$). The effect size of the grades on the involvement in using English while using search engines was found to be small ($\eta^2 = .02$), and the same with the involvement with English website reading ($\eta^2 = .031$). Contrary to the significant differences revealed between 9th and 10th graders in using English on the web, no significant result was recorded in terms of their device language preference.

4.4.4. Online Informal Additional Activities

To determine the participants' overall involvement with English, additional 8 activities analyzed previously (*Items 14a, 14b, 14c, 15a, 15b, 16a, 16b, 17*) were gathered into a single variable by calculating a mean score for each student's involvement in those eight activities. The obtained mean score for all eight activities involving social media habits, internet website visiting habits, and other activities related to English was presented in Table 4.29.

The mean scores presenting learners' engagement with various social media and internet related activities have revealed that learners did not seem to carry out these activities frequently in general. Considering that the maximum mean score could be 5, their general involvement in those 8 activities is occasional.

Table 4.29. Mean, Median and Standard Deviation of Participants' Involvements with All the Additional Activities Combined

		Grade								
		9 th			10 th			Total		
		Gender		Total	Gender		Total	Gender		Total
		M	F		M	F		M	F	
Additional Activities ^a	Mean	2.00	2.05	2.04	2.51	2.61	2.57	2.27	2.32	2.31
	Median	1.75	1.88	1.88	2.25	2.56	2.50	2.13	2.38	2.38
	(SD)	(1.00)	(1.14)	(1.10)	(0.99)	(1.10)	(1.06)	(1.02)	(1.15)	(1.11)

^a Mean scores of eight additional online informal activities combined

To compare the females' and males' involvement in eight additional activities, the Mann-Whitney U test was employed. The test results are given in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing Overall Activity Frequency by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Additional Activities ^a	Male	74	118.93	8800.5	6025.5	-.380	.704
	Female	168	122.63	20602.5			

^a Mean score of eight additional online informal activities combined

As a result of the Mann-Whitney U test, no gender differences appeared regarding the spent time on the eight activities consisting of social media and website habits. Further analysis was employed to investigate 9th and 10th graders' spent time on the additional activities. Mann-Whitney U test results were presented in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31. Mann-Whitney U Test Results Comparing Overall Activity Frequency by Grades

	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Additional Activities ^a	9 th	121	104.70	12668.50	6394.5	-3.736	.000***
	10 th	121	138.30	16734.50			

***p < .001.

As can be seen in Table 4.31, it is apparent that involvement in additional activities in English significantly differed between 9th and 10th graders; that is, 10th graders spent more time on social media and the internet in general ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 1.06$), when compared to 9th graders, ($M = 2.04$, $SD = 1.10$ $p < .05$). The effect size of the grades on the involvement in using English regarding additional activities was found to be small ($\eta^2 = .012$).

4.5. Vocabulary Levels Test

Within the investigation of the online informal activities and VLT scores, the fourth research question aimed at the initial evaluation of the VLT scores. With regard to the VLT test, participants' achieved word levels were demonstrated respectively. After demonstrating the overall vocabulary performance of the participants, grade and gender variables were analysed to reveal whether there were significant differences in their VLT scores.

4.5.1. Learners' Vocabulary Levels Test Results

In order to assess the vocabulary levels of the students, the Vocabulary Levels Test was employed (*Items 22-48*). Before moving on the investigation of the relationship between the online informal activities and the impact on vocabulary levels of the students, a general overview of VLT scores was analyzed. In total, 228 participants completed the Vocabulary Levels Test within the questionnaire; those who did not mark any answer on VLT were not included in the interpretation of the overall vocabulary levels of the participants. The mean score of each level, including the total score, was given in Table 4.32 by gender and grade variables.

Table 4.32. Mean and Standard Deviation for Participants' Vocabulary Level Test Scores by Gender and Grade

Grade	Gender		Vocabulary Level Test			
			Level 2,000 (Max. 30)	Level 3,000 (Max. 30)	Level 5,000 (Max. 30)	Total (Max. 90)
9 th	Male	Mean	15.62	10.76	9.12	35.50
		(SD)	(8.54)	(9.79)	(9.12)	(26.07)
	Female	Mean	15.33	11.75	9.27	36.35
		(SD)	(9.21)	(10.23)	(9.36)	(27.35)
	Total	Mean	15.41	11.46	9.23	36.10
		(SD)	(8.98)	(10.07)	(9.25)	(26.86)
10 th	Male	Mean	19.38	15.59	12.81	47.78
		(SD)	(8.13)	(9.72)	(10.15)	(26.95)
	Female	Mean	20.65	16.84	13.34	50.83
		(SD)	(8.26)	(10.08)	(10.03)	(26.75)
	Total	Mean	20.24	16.44	13.17	49.84
		(SD)	(8.20)	(9.94)	(10.03)	(26.73)
Total	Male	Mean	17.58	13.28	11.04	41.90
		(SD)	(8.48)	(9.98)	(9.78)	(27.06)
	Female	Mean	17.94	14.25	11.27	43.45
		(SD)	(9.13)	(10.44)	(9.88)	(27.93)
	Total	Mean	17.82	13.95	11.20	42.97
		(SD)	(8.92)	(10.29)	(9.83)	(27.61)

As can be seen in Table 4.32, the first 2,000-word level was not achieved by the majority of the students, as only half of the 30-item test was achieved ($M = 17.82$, $SD = 8.92$). Since Schmitt (2003) suggested that mastery of the level could be achieved through getting 24 correct answers out of 30 items (as cited in Xing & Fulcher, 2007), it could be said that, on average, the students overall could not achieve the 2,000-word level vocabulary mastery. The same applies to the 3,000- and 5,000-levels, as the mean score for the 3,000-level was 13.95, and the 5,000-level was 11.20 among the 9th and 10th graders. A similar interpretation also could be suggested on the overall test results, as the students approximately got 43 items correct out of 90 items.

When the threshold level for the mastery of the level is considered, as suggested by Schmitt (2003), as seen in Table 4.33, only 84 students got the 2,000-level mastery, whereas the 3,000-level mastery was limited to 57 students. For the highest level, which is 5,000-level, the mastery was achieved by 37 students among 228 participants.

Table 4.33. *Achieved Vocabulary Levels by Participants*

	N	%
2,000-level	84	36.8
3,000-level	57	25.0
5,000-level	37	16.2

Since the number of students achieving mastery in the mentioned levels is considerably not sufficient for the further analysis where the relationship would be investigated regarding their OILE involvement, the total number of correct answers was taken as a basis for the vocabulary level score for each student throughout the analysis.

Before investigating the relationship between L2 vocabulary levels and online informal activities carried out in English, the overall VLT scores will be presented with regard to providing insight into Turkish 9th and 10th graders' vocabulary knowledge in L2 and describing the processes for preparing the data for the further analysis. Descriptive statistics with the purpose are given in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34. *Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Vocabulary Level Test Scores*

		Vocabulary Level Test			
		Level 2,000	Level 3,000	Level 5,000	Total
Mean	Statistic	17.82	13.95	11.20	42.97
	SE	.59	.68	.65	1.83
95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	16.66	12.60	9.92	39.37
	Upper Bound	18.99	15.29	12.48	46.57
5% Trimmed Mean		18.07	13.83	10.80	42.73
Median		19.00	13.00	9.00	38.50
Variance		79.51	105.89	96.56	762.35
Std. Deviation		8.92	10.29	9.83	27.61
Minimum		1.00	.00	.00	1.00
Maximum		30.00	30.00	30.00	90.00
Range		29.00	30.00	30.00	89.00
Interquartile Range		16.00	18.75	17.75	50.75
Skewness	Statistic	-.33	.15	.52	.15
	SE	.16	.16	.16	.16
Kurtosis	Statistic	-1.20	-1.44	-1.10	-1.36
	SE	.32	.32	.32	.32

All the levels of VLT, including total scores, were observed to be distributed normally considering the skewness and kurtosis statistics of the scores (Table 4.34). In addition to the

skewness and kurtosis data, Q-Q Plot (Figure 4.1) and histogram (Figure 4.2) regarding VLT Total scores seemed to have a normal distribution in general.

Figure 4.1. Q-Q Plot of Participants' Total Vocabulary Level Test Scores

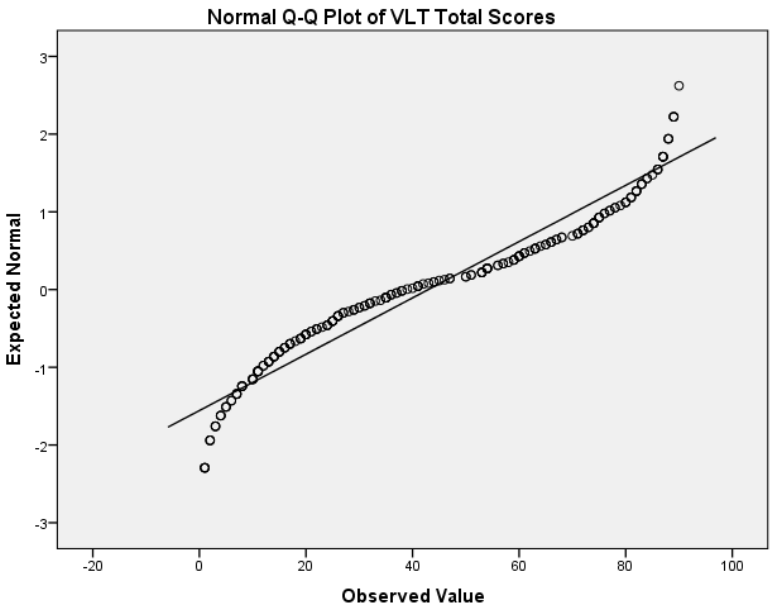
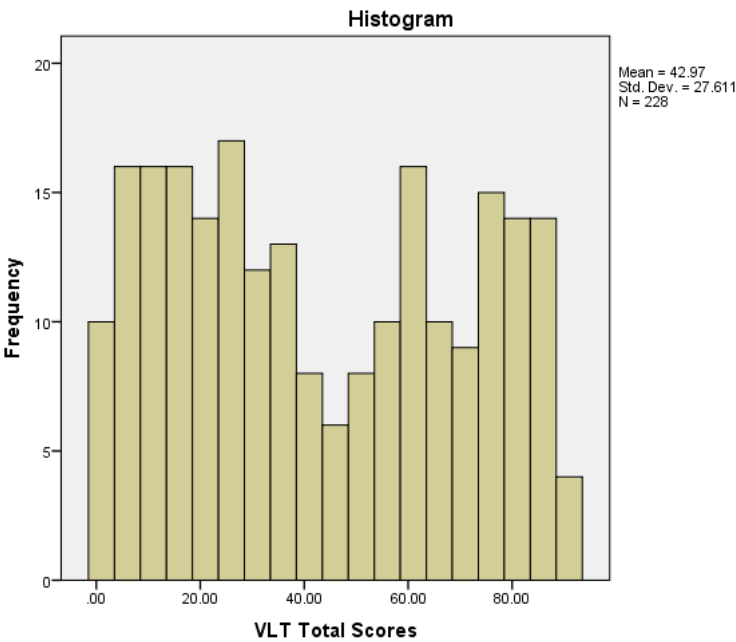


Figure 4.2. Histogram for Participants' Total Vocabulary Level Test Scores



4.5.1.1. VLT Results by Grade and Gender

The vocabulary knowledge of the students was assessed by using Vocabulary Level Test, as mentioned in the previous chapters. Vocabulary Level Test consists of three vocabulary levels which correspond to the most used vocabulary at different levels that are 2,000-level, 3,000-level, and 5,000-level. In addition to the presented levels, a total score was calculated to compare the score between the grades and genders.

To assess the difference between the VLT scores of 9th and 10th graders, the mean scores were obtained. The total score regarding vocabulary levels was observed to be distributed normally within the variables, as Levene's test indicated that the variances for both grade ($F(1, 226) = .156, p = .693$), and for gender ($F(1, 226) = .368, p = .545$) were equal.

The result of the independent-samples t-test indicated that VLT total scores did not significantly differ between genders ($t(226) = .408, p = .684$), and the same result was recorded regarding the VLT 2,000-, 3,000-, and 5,000-levels.

As presented in Table 4.35, on the contrary, the 9th and 10th graders' VLT total scores were differed significantly ($t(226) = -3.89, p = .000134$), as 9th graders VLT total scores were lower than the 10th graders'. However, medium and large effects were found for VLT total scores ($d = 0.51$ 95% CI [.78-.25]), as well as VLT 2,000-level ($d = 0.56$ 95% CI [.82-.30]), VLT 3,000-level ($d = 0.50$ 95% CI [.76-.24]), VLT 5,000-level ($d = 0.41$ 95% CI [.67-.15]).

Table 4.35. Results of T-test and Descriptive Statistics for Vocabulary Levels Test by Grade

	Grade						%95 CI for Mean Difference		t	df
	9th Grade			10th Grade						
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n				
VLT 2K (Max. 30)	15.41	8.98	114	20.24	8.20	114	-7.07	-2.58	-4.23***	226
VLT 3K (Max. 30)	12.24	10.31	114	17.34	10.07	114	-7.76	-2.45	-3.78***	226
VLT 5K (Max. 30)	9.19	9.24	114	13.14	10.04	114	-6.47	-1.43	-3.09***	226
VLT Total (Max. 90)	36.84	27.08	114	50.72	26.85	114	-20.92	-6.84	-3.89**	226

** $p < .01$., *** $p < .001$.

Together these results suggested that the L2 vocabulary knowledge of the participants did not differ in terms of gender. However, the grade variable appeared to affect the vocabulary levels of the students.

4.5.2. Online Informal Activities and Vocabulary Levels Test Results

The results related to the relationship between VLT scores and various online informal activities the participants carried out in English are presented in the following: Each activity, including watching films, TV series, videos, listening to music, and playing digital games, was correlated with VLT scores individually. First, the involvement with English through various inputs was correlated with VLT scores and was followed by main online activities and VLT correlations. Lastly, additional online informal activities with regard to their relationship with VLT scores were demonstrated individually and further; those variables were gathered up into a single variable to reveal the relationship between overall engagement with online informal activities and VLT scores. Subtitle preferences for films, TV, and videos were gathered up to the single variables and correlated with VLT scores, respectively. Lastly, among the main online informal activities, interactions through multi-player video games also were employed for correlation analysis regarding VLT scores.

4.5.2.1. Audio, Text, and Video Activities in English & VLT Results

Four items on the questionnaire (*Items 6a, 6b, 6c*) measured the extent to which the students encountered the English language online via audio, text, and video. The answers for the items consisted of *Never, Rarely, Occasionally, Sometimes, Often, and Always*. A mean score for each item regarding English audio, video, and text involvement was calculated. In order to reveal the relationship between the vocabulary levels and the involvement, a Spearman rank correlation test was employed for each media type, and the result of the test was presented in Table 4.36.

Table 4.36. Correlation Coefficients between Audio, Video, and Text Involvement and the Total VLT Scores

	VLT Total Scores	
	r_s	N
How often do you come across English videos on the online platforms you use?	.514**	228
How often do you come across English texts on the online platforms you use?	.441**	228
How often do you come across English speaking & music on the online platforms you use?	.430**	228

**p < .001. (2-tailed)

There was a positive correlation between the students' total vocabulary level score and English audio involvement ($r_s = .441$, $p < .001$), English video involvement ($r_s = .514$, $p < .001$),

and English audio involvement ($r_s = .43$, $p < .001$). While the effect size for text and audio was found moderate, the effect size was strong for the video watching in English.

In sum, involvement with English audio, text, and videos had a strong relationship with the vocabulary levels and test scores of the students. Moreover, watching videos in English was revealed to have a stronger relationship with higher vocabulary level scores when compared to the other media inputs.

4.5.2.2. Main Online Informal Activities & VLT Results

Beyond analyzing the informal activities concerning the type of English media input, it was among the aims of the present research to reveal the type of online informal activities and their relationship with the VLT scores of the students. Those main online informal activities include watching TV series and shows, films, and videos, listening to music and podcasts, and playing single-player and multi-player video games. Each of the six activities was investigated individually in terms of their relationship with students' total VLT scores. 6 Likert scale items (*Items 7, 9, 11, 12, 19a, 19b*) for main online informal activities included 7 answers for each item. A Spearman Rank Correlation was employed to reveal the relationship between the frequency of involvement in those main online informal activities and the vocabulary levels score. Consequently, the results of the analysis were presented in Table 4.37 by sorting descending according to the correlation coefficients.

Table 4.37. Correlation Coefficients between Main Online Informal Activities and the Total VLT Scores

	VLT Total Scores	
	r_s	N
Watching English-speaking video	.501**	228
Listening to English-speaking music	.428**	228
Watching English-speaking TV series & TV shows	.312**	228
Watching English-speaking films	.257**	228
Playing single-player video games in English	.236**	228
Playing multi-player video games in English	.174*	228

** $p < .001$. (2-tailed) * $p < .01$. (2-tailed)

There was a significant positive correlation between all the main online informal activities presented in Table 4.37 and the total vocabulary level score. As a result of the correlation analysis, there is a strong positive relationship between spent time watching English-speaking videos and the total VLT scores ($r_s = .501$, $p < .001$), and a medium positive

relationship between the total VLT scores and spent time on listening to English songs ($r_s = .428, p < .001$), as well as the total VLT scores and watching English-speaking TV series or shows ($r_s = .312, p < .001$). On the other hand, despite the significance, a modest positive correlation was revealed for the relationship between the total VLT scores and watching English-speaking films ($r_s = .257, p < .001$), and playing multi-player ($r_s = .236, p < .001$) and single-player ($r_s = .137, p < .001$) video games in English.

These results suggest that online informal activities mentioned here have an apparent relationship with the total VLT scores of the students; however, some activities were revealed to have a stronger association with the vocabulary levels, that is, spent time watching videos mattered more than spent time on playing multi-player video games in terms of total VLT score.

4.5.2.3. Additional Online Informal Activities & VLT Results

In addition to the main activities conducted online in English, social media and messaging habits, including sharing content in English, following accounts that share English content, writing comments in English, messaging someone in English, and sharing English content via message, were explored regarding their relationship with the total VLT scores. Moreover, the items concerning the use of English on websites and devices, such as reading English websites, using English on search engines, and using English as the default device language, were studied along with social media and messaging habits within the investigation of the relationship with the students' vocabulary levels.

6 Likert items (*Items 14a, 14b, 14c, 15a, 15b, 16a, 16b, 17*) aiming to reveal the online informal habits of the participants were correlated with students' total VLT scores using Spearman Rank correlation analysis. The result regarding the correlation between the items and scores are presented in Table 4.38.

The results of the correlational analysis revealed that, in line with the previous correlational analysis results, all the items correlated significantly with varying levels of relationship. The strongest relationship with total VLT scores among the additional online informal activities carried out in English was found to be reading the English websites ($r_s = .510, p < .001$). In other words, spending time on reading websites in English was discovered to have a strong positive correlation with the total VLT scores of students. It was followed by a moderate positive correlation that appeared between total VLT scores and spending time sharing English content via message ($r_s = .478, p < .001$). Other activities moderately correlated

in a positive direction included using English as the default language of the devices ($r_s = .438$, $p < .001$), messaging someone in English ($r_s = .418$, $p < .001$), and using English for searching on the web ($r_s = .405$, $p < .001$). Despite the significance, the following accounts that share English content ($r_s = .350$, $p < .001$) and writing comments in English ($r_s = .338$, $p < .001$) appeared to have a modest relationship with total VLT scores. The activity that had the weakest relationship with VLT was discovered to be sharing English content on social media ($r_s = .232$, $p < .001$).

Table 4.38. Correlation Coefficients between Additional Online Informal Activities and the Total VLT Scores

	VLT Total Scores	
	r_s	N
Reading English websites	.510**	228
Sharing English content via message	.478**	228
Using English as the default device language	.438**	228
Messaging to someone in English	.418**	228
Using English on search engines	.405**	228
Following accounts that share English content	.350**	228
Writing comments in English	.338**	228
Sharing English content	.232**	228

** $p < .001$. (2-tailed)

To sum up, all activities related to the use of English on social media and messaging correlated with higher VLT scores. Especially, reading English websites seemed to have the strongest association with higher VLT scores. The results also suggested that those who shared the English content via message had higher VLT scores than those who shared the English content on their social media accounts. Despite the varying degree of relationship, all the activities resulted in having an association with higher VLT scores in general.

To discover the relationship between the students' overall involvement in the eight activities discussed above and VLT scores, an index variable was calculated by summing up the mean scores of students for each activity. In other words, it was aimed to reveal the relationship between students' spent time on those informal activities and their VLT scores to see whether the frequency of involvement with online informal activities, in general, had a relationship with students' vocabulary levels. Afterwards, the index variable formed through all eight items combined was tested using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation in regard to

VLT scores for each vocabulary level of the students. The results of the analysis are given in Table 4.39.

Table 4.39. Correlation Coefficients between Additional Activities Combined and the VLT Scores

	VLT 2,000-level		VLT 3,000-level		VLT 5,000-level		VLT Total	
	<i>r</i>	N	<i>r</i>	N	<i>r</i>	N	<i>r</i>	N
Index variable for eight additional online informal activities carried out in English	.582**	228	.559**	228	.505**	228	.576**	228

**p < .001. (2-tailed)

As can be seen in Table 4.39, all VLT levels, including total score, were positively correlated with spent time on informal activities. To put it another way, the students who spent more time on those activities had higher VLT scores for all vocabulary levels. Moreover, the effect size for the correlations was found to be strong for all levels.

4.5.2.4. Subtitle Preferences & VLT Results

Eleven items on the questionnaire aimed to discover students' preferences regarding media viewing language, that is, whether they choose to watch media Turkish dubbed (*Items 8a, 10a*), Turkish subtitled (*Items 8b, 10b, 13a*), English subtitled (*Items 8c, 10c, 13b*), or without any subtitles (*Items 8d, 10d, 13d*). Three media types are included for investigating subtitle preferences: films, TV series and TV shows, and videos. Preference of subtitles for each media type was gathered individually. For further analyzing the relationship between media subtitle preferences and total VLT score, the mean score for each subtitle preference was calculated by combining the films, TV shows and TV series, and videos. The correlation between those was tested using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, and the results of the analysis were presented in Table 4.40.

Table 4.40. Correlation Coefficients between Media Subtitle Preferences and the Total VLT Scores

	VLT Total Scores	
	<i>r</i>	N
Watching media without subtitles or dubbing	.484**	228
Watching media with English subtitles	.333**	228
Watching media with Turkish dubbing	-.272**	228
Watching media with Turkish subtitles	-.297**	228

**p < .001. (2-tailed)

It can be seen from the data in Table 4.40 that all correlations were significant in varying directions. A negative correlation was found between total VLT scores and favouring Turkish dubbing for watching media ($r = -.272$, $p < .001$), and the same appeared for preferring Turkish subtitles ($r = -.297$, $p < .001$), though both correlations had modest effect sizes. Preferring English subtitles ($r = .333$, $p < .001$) and without dubbing or subtitles ($r = .484$, $p < .001$), on the other hand, were found to be positively correlated with total VLT scores of students with moderate effect size.

Taken together, the students who prefer watching dubbed and Turkish subtitled media had lower total VLT scores, and those who prefer watching English subtitled media and watching them without any dubbing and subtitles had higher VLT scores overall. However, the effect size for the positively correlated items was stronger when compared to negatively correlated items.

4.5.2.5. Multi-player video gaming habits & VLT Results

Among the main online informal activities discussed previously, the multi-player video gaming habits of students were further investigated with 4 Likert items (*Items 20a, 20b, 20c, 20d*), which aimed to reveal students' speaking, writing, listening, and reading frequencies in English during the gameplay. Therefore, language interactions around and through the multi-player video games for further analysis were carried out to discover those interactions' relationship with total VLT scores. Each multi-player video gaming interaction was gathered individually, and answers of the students who stated that they did not play any multi-player game were excluded from the analysis. Correlation between the frequencies of various types of interaction during the gameplay and total VLT scores was tested using Spearman rank-order correlation, and the result of the analysis was presented in Table 4.41.

As seen in Table 4.41, all items were found to be positively correlated with total VLT scores. In other words, students who interacted through multi-player video games using English more had higher total VLT scores overall. A closer inspection of the table shows that especially speaking ($r_s = .349$, $p < .001$) and texting ($r_s = .338$, $p < .001$) with someone during the gameplay in English appeared to have a moderate effect on total VLT scores, that is, the students who involve speaking and texting in English during the gameplay more frequently had higher total VLT score or vice versa. On the contrary to the moderate effect of interacting with

others through language production, listening to ($r_s = .265$, $p < .001$) and reading ($r_s = .269$, $p < .001$) other players' language output had a modest effect on total VLT scores.

Table 4.41. Correlation Coefficients between Multi-player Video Gaming Language Interactions and the Total VLT Scores

	VLT Total Scores	
	r_s	N
Speaking English while playing multi-player video games	.349**	165
Texting someone in English while playing multi-player video games	.338**	165
Listening to other players speaking English while playing multi-player video games	.265**	165
Reading other players' text in English while playing multi-player video games	.269**	165

** $p < .001$. (2-tailed)

To put it another way, participating in speaking and writing during the gameplay seemed to have a stronger correlation than listening and reading during the gameplay concerning the total VLT scores. In short, the frequency of participating in language interaction with other players during the gameplay was suggested to have an apparent relationship with total VLT scores; however, this relationship could not imply that participating in language interaction during the gameplay would have led to a higher vocabulary level or vice versa.

4.6. Beliefs about Where English is Learned & VLT Results

Item 21 asked students where they thought they learned English from, and answers consisted of *All through school*, *Most through school*, *Most through out-of-school*, and *All through out-of-school*. According to the results, 10% stated that they learned English all through school, while those reporting that they learned English mostly from school was 52.5%. On the contrary, the proportion for those who stated they learned English all through out-of-class was 2.5%, and 34.7% stated they learned English mainly through out-of-class. To sum up, the majority reported that they learned English mostly from school or mostly from out-of-class.

Students' beliefs about where English is learned were also investigated in terms of vocabulary levels of the students. The mean scores for vocabulary levels were presented in Table 4.42 by the answers to the question on where English was learned.

Table 4.42. Mean, Median, and Standard Deviation for Participants' Vocabulary Level Test Scores by Their Beliefs on Where English is Learned

Where English is learned		Vocabulary Level Test			
		Level 2,000 (Max. 30)	Level 3,000 (Max. 30)	Level 5,000 (Max. 30)	Total (Max. 90)
All through school	Mean	10.52	7.48	5.24	23.24
	Median	7.00	6.00	3.00	17.00
	(SD)	(6.42)	(7.48)	(6.53)	(19.28)
	N	21	21	21	21
Most through school	Mean	16.64	12.80	10.23	39.68
	Median	17.00	10.00	7.00	32.00
	(SD)	(8.43)	(10.00)	(9.30)	(26.28)
	N	121	121	121	121
Most through out-of-school	Mean	20.96	16.92	13.84	51.73
	Median	25.00	18.00	13.50	54.00
	(SD)	(8.68)	(10.17)	(10.12)	(27.47)
	N	80	80	80	80
All through out-of-school	Mean	25.33	20.00	16.33	61.67
	Median	29.00	25.00	17.50	72.00
	(SD)	(8.24)	(12.54)	(14.33)	(32.96)
	N	6	6	6	6

As seen in Table 4.42, all vocabulary level scores differed in relation to the answer given; that is, those who stated they learned English from out-of-school had higher VLT scores accordingly. In order to reveal whether those differences were significant, the Kruskal Wallis test was employed since the data were not normally distributed across the groups. The test result was presented in Table 4.43.

Table 4.43. Kruskal-Wallis Test for Participants' Vocabulary Level Test Scores by Their Beliefs on Where English is Learned

Where English is learned		Vocabulary Level Test			
		Level 2,000 (Max. 30)	Level 3,000 (Max. 30)	Level 5,000 (Max. 30)	Total (Max. 90)
Chi-Square		34.24	17.24	14.56	22.57
df		3	3	3	3
p		.000	.001	.002	.000

As given in Table 4.43, the differences of VLT scores among the four groups were found to be significant and effect size for VLT 2,000-level ($\eta^2 = 0.13$), VLT 3,000-level ($\eta^2 = 0.06$), VLT 5,000-level ($\eta^2 = 0.05$), and VLT Total ($\eta^2 = 0.08$) was intermediate.

In other words, the beliefs of students on where English is learned from and their VLT scores were revealed to have been associated. Those who stated they learned English from all or mostly from out-of-school had higher VLT scores when compared to those who stated they learned English all or mostly from school.

4.7. Summary of the Findings

With the purpose of revealing language learners' online informal practices regarding their spent time and frequency of engagement and the impact of the online informal practices on the vocabulary knowledge in English, six research questions were addressed.

The frequency and spent time on online informal activities were addressed by categorizing the activities into three; overall involvement in online informal activities, main online informal activities, and additional online informal activities. Overall involvement was addressed through the instances where learners encountered English audio, text, and videos online. Main online informal activities included the primary informal practices, including watching videos, TV, and films, listening to English songs, and playing single- and multi-player video games. Additional online informal activities, on the other hand, consisted of the items investigating social media habits, website and search engine habits, messaging habits, and device use. Overall involvement and additional activities were based on the frequency, whereas main activities were reported through time spent on them. In addition, subtitle preferences for watching English-speaking media (videos, TV, and films) were addressed to discover the nature of the involvement. With the same purpose, multi-player video gaming interactions were addressed.

Overall, learners attended online informal activities quite often. On the involvement, there were grades, and gender differences appeared. Learners in 10th grade reported spending more time on or encountering more often to English. However, the same was not found for main online activities. Gender differences in the spent time or frequency of involvement were less apparent; the spent time playing video games and sharing content on social media differed. Males spent significantly more time playing games, and females more often shared English content on social media.

Within the scope of the fourth research question, learners' word-level achievements were presented, and VLT results were demonstrated with respect to the gender and grade

differences before moving on to the correlation analysis. 36.8% achieved the 2,000-word level, 25% achieved the 3,000-word level, and only 16.2% achieved the 5,000-word level, respectively. On average, 42 correct answers out of 90 items were recorded. No gender differences were found regarding the total VLT score. On the contrary, 9th- and 10th-graders' VLT scores significantly differed, and 10th-graders had higher scores for all levels. The effect size was large for 2,000-word and 3,000-word levels and small for 5,000-word levels.

Correlation analysis with three categories of online informal activities and VLT scores revealed that all activities within the scope were positively correlated with VLT scores, except watching media with Turkish dubbing and Turkish subtitles, where the negative correlations appeared.

The last research question aimed to discover learners' beliefs about where they had learned English. The majority reported having learned English through school. Consequently, VLT scores were investigated in relation to where they learned English. Those who reported having learned English out-of-school scored higher in VLT significantly.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Introduction

The present chapter outlines the findings of the present study in relation to the relevant literature in the field and further evaluates the online informal learning of English practices carried out by high school students in Turkey through the analysis of the gathered data. First, 9th and 10th graders' involvement in online informal practices in English will be discussed by inspecting the findings and commenting on the results in line with the relevant literature on the issue. After individually reviewing the overall involvement in the online informal activities, gender and grade differences for attending those activities will be evaluated. Then, the VLT scores will be reviewed in relation to attending online informal activities, and the results from the present study will be interpreted in accordance with the previous literature on the topic.

5.2. Discussion

This study seeks the general aim of discovering language learners' involvement in online informal activities carried out in English, involves the investigation of the spent time on each online informal activity and learners' preferences and habits of using English on online platforms. To unveil the language learners' involvement in online informal activities in English, the following research questions are inquired:

1. Which types of online informal English input are more common among Turkish 9th and 10th-graders?
 - 1.1. Are there any gender differences in terms of the type of online informal English practices overall?
 - 1.2. Are there any grade differences in terms of the type of online informal English practices overall?
2. Which Online Informal Learning of English activities (video gaming, watching films or series, watching videos and internet posts etc.) are more common among Turkish 9th and 10th-graders?
 - 2.1. What are the subtitles preferences for watching English-speaking TV series & shows, films, and videos of 9th- and 10th-graders?

- 2.2. Which type of interaction throughout the multi-player video gaming in English are the most common among 9th- and 10th graders?
- 2.3. Are there any gender differences in terms of involvement in main online informal activities carried out in English?
- 2.4. Are there any grade differences in terms of involvement in main online informal activities carried out in English?
3. Which additional Online Informal Learning of English activities (following English accounts on the internet, sharing comments on the internet, texting in English, using search engines in English, looking up lyrics of English songs etc.) are more common among Turkish 9th and 10th-graders?
 - 3.1. Are there any gender differences in terms of involvement in additional online informal activities carried out in English?
 - 3.2. Are there any grade differences in terms of involvement in additional online informal activities carried out in English?

Within the investigation of the overall involvement in online informal practices in English, two categories were specified: the main online informal activities and additional online informal activities. Main online informal activities consisted of watching TV series and TV shows, watching films, watching videos, listening to music, and playing single-player and multi-player video games. In the investigation of the involvement in the main online informal activities, spending time on each activity was gathered. Furthermore, habits and preferences regarding each activity were collected through follow-up questions: the subtitle preferences for media viewing and the learners' interactions throughout the gameplay. Additional activities, on the other hand, included social media, messaging, and search engine habits, which were gathered through frequencies rather than time intervals, as in the case with main activities. For this purpose, the learners were asked whether they follow accounts that share English content, message someone in English, or use English while searching on the web. Taken together, language learners' overall involvement in English through online spaces without deliberate intention to learn the language was sought to be discovered.

Further aims are concerned with the potential impact of the mentioned informal practices on language learners' vocabulary knowledge. For this purpose, the following research questions are sought to be revealed thereupon:

4. What is the receptive vocabulary knowledge of 9th- and 10th graders at the 2,000, 3,000 and 5,000-word levels?
 - 4.1. Are there any gender differences in terms of vocabulary level scores?
 - 4.2. Are there any grade differences in terms of vocabulary level scores?
5. Is there a correlation between;
 - 5.1. learners' overall involvement in various types of English input through online informal activities and vocabulary levels scores?
 - 5.2. learners' involvement in main online informal activities and their vocabulary levels scores?
 - 5.3. learners' involvement in additional online informal activities and their vocabulary levels scores?
 - 5.4. learners' subtitle preferences for watching English-speaking media and their vocabulary levels scores?
 - 5.5. learners' involvement in various types of interactions through playing multi-player video games in English and vocabulary levels scores?

Obtained vocabulary levels scores of the learners were analyzed in terms of their involvement in online informal activities. First, each main activity was correlated with the VLT scores of the learners, and other follow-up items were investigated individually in terms of their impact on VLT scores. Consequently, the additional activities were analyzed, again, with regard to VLT scores.

The last research question targeted the learners' beliefs on where English is learned, that is, whether learners thought that they learned English through school or through out-of-school contact. Then, their VLT scores were investigated in relation to their beliefs about where they learned English.

6. What are learners' beliefs on where English is learned?
 - 6.1. Do the beliefs on where English is learned differ in terms of the vocabulary levels of the learners?

5.2.1. Learners' Online Informal English Practices

Within the scope of inquiring about Turkish high school EFL learners' engagement with online informal practices, frequencies or time spent on various activities carried out in English were directed by taking into account the research question 1, 2, and 3, in addition to the sub

research questions revealing whether there are any gender and grade differences regarding the engagement with English through the online informal practices.

The first research question aimed at shedding light on overall engagement based on the types of language input. It was followed by the second research question where the main online informal activities, which include watching TV, films, videos, playing single- and multi-player video games, and listening to music, were investigated. The third research question focused on social media, messaging, using the web, and device language under the additional online informal activities.

In the following, three research questions are to be discussed by evaluating the previous research in the field.

5.2.1.1. Overall Involvement in English Audio, Texts, and Videos

Before emphasizing the main activities, learners' encounters with English in online spaces were investigated by gathering frequencies for each media type, that is, differing language input. The questions were not focused on a specific type of media or language input but rather focused on the frequency of encounters with English throughout learners' daily lives and in their natural settings; nonetheless, videos, texts, and audio were tried to be gathered through separate questions within the first research question.

Findings evidently demonstrated that only a few students have no encounter with English online. In contrast, the majority reported they often encountered English through various media types, including videos and texts. The results, therefore, indicated that language learners frequently encounter English input through online spaces within their daily lives. Especially English speaking and music were reported to be the most frequently encountered type; therefore, it is safe to assume that the encounter with English in online spaces occurs mainly through spoken input rather than written input (Kuppens, 2010; Kusyk, 2017; Sundqvist, 2009). The findings discovered an apparent recurring involvement in English informally. What is surprising, however, appeared as a result of the comparison of 9th and 10th graders' encounters with English content through online spaces; 10th graders have more contact with English regardless of the input type. The effect size was moderate for encountering English texts and small for videos and spoken input. The emerged difference in frequency of encountering L2 in out-of-class settings in the study corroborated with the previous literature. In her study with 16

and 17 year-olds, Niitemaa (2020) supported the finding that 10th-graders have more contact with English text in the present study; older learners engaged with English text more.

5.2.1.2. Involvement in Main Online Informal Activities

As mentioned above, within the aims of the second research question, the online informal practices of learners were investigated through main and additional online informal activities. The main online informal activities consisted of watching TV series and TV shows, films, and videos, listening to music, and playing single-player and multi-player video games. Learners reported how much time they spent on each main activity.

The majority of the learners watch English-speaking TV shows and TV series weekly. Moreover, one-fourth of them reported watching English TV shows and series on a daily basis, meaning that they spend more than an hour daily. It can therefore be assumed that learners regularly get English input through TV shows and series. For watching English-speaking films, the majority watch more than one film monthly, and half of them watch it on a weekly basis. Among the other media viewing activities, watching English-speaking videos online appeared preferable, as the majority of the learners reported watching videos on a weekly basis, and nearly half of them spent 2 hours video watching daily.

For listening to English music, however, nearly half of the sample reported listening for more than 1 hour daily, and others approximately spend more than 1 hour weekly. Within the sample, on average, learners spent 1 hour daily, corresponding to 5-6 hours weekly. Listening to music seemed more favoured among the learners when compared to watching other English-speaking media. Similarly, Toffoli and Sockett (2014) found that students in their study spent 1-3 hours listening to music daily. De Wilde et al. (2022) also reported similar results; listening to music was the most frequent activity carried out among 10–12-year-olds, and on average, they spent 1 hour daily, which align with the present study.

When it comes to playing video games in English, the majority spend less than 1 hour weekly, and nearly half of learners stated they never played multi-player video games. Learners spend more time on single-player video gaming in English; nevertheless, video gaming was the least preferred activity among the main online informal activities.

An average learner in the sample spends 1-2 hours watching TV series and shows, 1 hour watching films, 2-3 hours watching videos online, 5-6 hours listening to music. Looking

at the average spent time on the activities, it can be assumed that a great deal of time is invested in English-speaking online informal activities in learners' everyday lives. Listening to music seems to be the most popular activity carried out in English among 9th- and 10th-graders in the present study. Supporting this finding, Sockett and Kusyk (2015) found that listening to music was the most favoured online informal activity, and it is followed by TV and video watching in English. In a similar vein, in Muñoz's (2020) study, listening to music came the first among online informal activities regarding the popularity among language learners as they spent 4-7 hours weekly, and it was followed by watching videos online, as in the case of the present study. Peters (2018) also revealed that listening to music was the most popular one, followed by watching TV, films and videos, and similar findings appeared in the study of Lindgren and Muñoz (2013). Cengizhan (2019) also found that listening to music was the most popular among Turkish ELT students, and watching TV series and films and vlogs followed it. Though the learning aspect was emphasized in their study, Inozu et al. (2010) found that the internet and listening to music were among the most popular activities that learners involved through English in online informal spaces. Listening to music in English, in this sense, aligned with the findings of the previous studies (Cengizhan, 2019; De Wilde et al., 2020b; Inozu et al., 2010; İnci, 2021; Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Muñoz, 2020; Peters, 2018; Sundqvist, 2009).

However, other studies showed a different pattern of learners' online informal involvement; Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) found that video gaming came first in the spent time weekly; 2.6 hours were spent on video gaming weekly, and watching TV, listening to music, and watching films followed. Contradicting Sylvén and Sundqvist's (2012) findings and others' (Hannibal Jensen, 2017; Muñoz, 2020; Sundqvist, 2009, 2019), yet supporting the current study, Cengizhan (2019) revealed that playing video games was among the least preferred informal activity among learners, as in the case of the present study. Since the sample in the present study mainly comprises female language learners, the appeared unpopularity of video gaming is not surprising, considering that video games are pretty popular among males.

In accordance with the previous research, gender differences were among the present research aims. The studies addressing informal involvement in English revealed gender differences regarding the spent time and the preferred type of activity. In line with the relevant literature findings, video gaming in English was found to vary between males and females; males spend much more time on video gaming in English for both single and multi-player gaming. While half of the female participants do not play video games, only a small number of

males report not playing video games. In the same vein, half of the male participants spend more than 5 hours playing multi-player video games in English weekly and more than 1 hour on single-player video games weekly. Similar results were reported in the literature. Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) found similar findings on the gender differences; the spent time did not vary for activities, except the video gaming; male learners spent 4.4 hours for gaming while it was 1.1 hours for female learners. Muñoz (2020) reported varying preferences across gender and age groups, aligning with the findings of the present study that males spent much more time on gaming compared to females. Relative video gaming differences of genders are further supported by the research on language learning beyond the classroom (Kuppens, 2010; Peters, 2018; Peters et al., 2019; Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sundqvist & Wikström, 2015; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012).

Along with investigating gender differences, 9th and 10th graders' involvement in main online informal activities was explored. No activities significantly differed between the 9th and 10th graders in terms of spending time on each activity individually. On the contrary, the previous research reported age-related differences regarding the spent time on online informal activities. Muñoz (2020) revealed that participants aged between 12-14 reported less frequent involvement than older participants; however, the age effect was more prevalent in the preferred activity rather than the spent time. In addition, for the same study, the age difference was broader, including both adult and adolescent participants, while the present study consisted of 9th and 10th graders only. Peters et al. (2019) revealed similar findings in their study, conducted with 14-, 16-, and 19-year-olds; of those Muñoz (2020), older learners tended to involve more in online informal English activities, especially in written media. In Peters' (2018) study on the spent time on gaming, 16 year-olds spent more time compared to 19 year-olds. The mentioned age differences for spent time on gaming did not appear from the present research.

5.2.1.2.1. Subtitle Preferences and Multi-player Video Game Interactions

With the purpose of shedding light on learners' online informal activities carried out in English further, subtitle preferences were gathered for each media watching type, namely, TV series and shows, films, and videos. For TV shows and series, Turkish dubbing is largely ignored; more than half of the learners never prefer watching dubbed series and shows. On the other hand, watching English-speaking TV series and shows with Turkish subtitles is the most preferred subtitle preference among the others, and it is followed by watching them with

English subtitles. However, most interestingly, watching English-speaking TV series and shows without subtitles is more common than Turkish dubbing among the learners. Similar findings were obtained for watching films in English. Learners mostly favoured watching English-speaking films with Turkish subtitles. Watching it with English subtitles appears as the second preferred subtitle preference. Contrary to not favouring Turkish dubbing while watching TV series and shows, learners preferred watching English-speaking films without any subtitles the least; that is, watching Turkish dubbed films is more common than watching without subtitles. The reason for this is not apparent; however, it may have something to do with learners' placing comprehension of the dialogues ahead for films, while comprehending the dialogues within TV series and shows might not be of such importance for learners due to TV series and shows' recurrent themes and dialogues. For video watching, the Turkish dubbing option was not included within the questions, as the videos on the internet are not dubbed at all. Moreover, English-speaking videos with Turkish subtitles are scarce compared to English subtitles or without subtitles. In line with these, the most common English-speaking video viewing takes place without any subtitles, and it is followed by English subtitles. However, the video viewing preferences might not be solely based on learners' preferences, as the online videos are mostly not presented with subtitle options, contrary to TV series, shows, and films. That is, while there are various subtitle and language options for watching TV series and shows and films, there is only a little freedom for choosing subtitles and language for online videos, as other users on the internet mostly upload them. A similar pattern appeared in Muñoz's (2020) study; watching TV series or films with L1 subtitles was most preferred compared to watching them with L2 subtitles or no subtitles. Peters (2018) revealed that watching TV series & shows and films with L1 subtitles were preferable among 16- and 19-year-olds in out-of-class setting.

The present study further focused on the multi-player gaming interactions to reveal which type of interaction was more prevalent during the gameplay. Video gaming interactions were investigated for items, revealing learners' typing and speaking patterns and their listening to other players' speaking and reading others' typing. As a result, the written nature of the interactions occurring within the game was preferred more by the learners; that is, they mainly typed to other players through in-game chat or read others' typing. Listening to others speaking during gaming, on the other hand, was less frequent. Among the interactions that occurred during multi-player gaming, speaking to other players in English was the least anticipated by the learners. However, while explaining the interaction types considering their occurrences, the

prevalence of written communication that might have resulted from the type of game the learners played should be approached with caution, as some multi-player games do not support voice-chat within the game. Taken together, learners are revealed to communicate using English through multi-player games, primarily through typing to others. Compared to written communication, speaking in English during the gameplay seems to be the least preferred. In line with these findings, Cengizhan (2019) stated that playing games that require speaking were not prevalent among university students.

5.2.1.3. Involvement in Additional Online Informal Activities

Within the aim of the third research question, social media and messaging habits, as well as device language and search engine preferences regarding using English, namely additional activities, were gathered by means of frequencies since the exact time spent on messaging in English or following accounts that share English content is not measurable through time intervals. With respect to the research question aimed to shed light on the other means of engaging English other than main activities, eight activities were employed. The first three activities emphasized learners' engagement with English through social media: sharing English content on social media, following social media accounts sharing English content, and commenting on social media content in English. Consequently, two activities involved items regarding learners' using English through messaging or texting with others: messaging with others in English and sharing English content through messaging or texting. Lastly, the last three activities focused on learners' engagement with English through websites, search engines, and devices: using English while searching on the web, reading English websites, and using English as the default language for digital devices. For the above-mentioned additional online activities, the participants were asked to report how often they did these activities by means of frequencies.

With respect to learners' engagement with English through social media, the results of this study indicate that following accounts that share English content on social media is prevalent among the students; nearly all of the participants follow those accounts on a regular basis, suggesting that learners often come across English content throughout their social media use even though viewing English content is not the basis of this engagement. In other words, engaging with English might seem a normal part of using social media in general. With English being so prevalent among learners' social media practices, it could be assumed that the reason

behind following English content might be its meaningfulness and being relatable to their context. However, it should be kept in mind that the exploration of learners' intention for following English content-sharing accounts on social media is not within the scope of the present study.

Another finding regarding the social media habits of learners appeared is that learners do not prefer sharing English content, nor do they prefer commenting in English on social media. When compared with their preference for following accounts, the opposite is true for sharing and commenting on English content; that is, they never or rarely share English content on their social media accounts and comment on content using English. Further, they favoured sharing English content the least. This result might be explained by the fact that their feeling of insecurity or unsureness of the content since they are in English. When content, namely a social media post, is shared on social media, the shared post becomes visible to the social media users' followers, consisting of their friends or acquaintances; therefore, they might not want to expose their English comprehension or production to a public space because of their fear of making mistakes and feeling of insecurity.

Concerning the findings on using English for messaging, half of the participants in the sample stated either never or rarely messaging in English, while sharing English content via message seemed more preferred by them. On average, the learners in the sample rarely use English while messaging with others; similarly, sending an English content via message is not often favoured, yet, more common when compared to text in English. In line with the habits of using English on social media, learners tend to avoid producing the English language, and more are inclined towards sharing English content prepared by others and readily available. Nevertheless, the productive activities are not as widespread as the receptive ones, as the majority often stated following English accounts on social media. In contrast, sharing, commenting, or sending English messages are rare instances.

Another important finding is that learners share English content much more frequently via messaging when compared to sharing it on their social media accounts. In fact, among the five activities reviewed thus far, sharing content via messaging comes second with respect to its frequency among learners, after the most common activity, which is following social media accounts that share English content. The possible reason behind learners' being inclined towards sharing English content with a specific person rather than sharing them publicly might be, again, feeling insecure about the possible reactions and criticism from others regarding the language

errors or miscomprehension of the content shared. Sharing the English content with a specific person via a message -likely to a friend- the learner might ignore the uneasiness regarding mistakes and misconceptions.

Similar results were revealed in Jurkovič (2019), in which undergraduate Slovenian language learners' online informal engagement with English through smartphones were investigated: English is engaged through a context, that is, reading or watching was more predominant among the learners when compared to productive use of the language. Further, reading social media comments were prevalent, whereas posting comments were not preferred overall; instead, mother tongue was used for productive activities. Kusyk (2017), in line with the findings of the present study, suggested that receptive activities were more common among language learners. Similar findings were revealed in Trinder's (2017) study, in which chat, texting, and discussion forums were not preferred at all. In the study of Lai et al. (2018), focusing on why learners do not favour communicating in English through social media, the participants reported being afraid of making mistakes and being mocked by their friends, as any mistake regarding L2 use was visible publicly. Lai et al.'s (2018) study gives insight into the findings of the present study regarding learners' views. In this sense, commenting in English not being common among the participants in this study might be interpreted as fear of making mistakes. The same might be true for sharing English content publicly; however, the present study did not differentiate between sharing English content made by the language learner or sharing English content made by others and readily available; again, learners' fears might be limiting their sharing and commenting in English. In other words, even though the learner themselves is not the one producing the English content, still, feeling of uncertainty and being hesitant could be present as the learner could think that they might misunderstand the content and thus, might face criticism from their followers in case they share it publicly. The same might apply to explaining learners' tendency to share the English content with their friends via message rather than sharing it publicly and having the risk of facing adverse reactions. In addition to the fear of making mistakes, some participants in Lai et al.'s (2018) study mentioned that there were few people among their followers to comprehend the shared content in L2, so they did not share at all. Bearing this finding in mind, learners' not favouring sharing and commenting in English on social media could also be explained by the fact that their followers would not understand the shared English content; thus, sharing it with the ones that could comprehend the context might appear more desirable for learners.

Investigation of the learners' engagement with English through social media and messaging was followed by their engagement through search engines, websites, and default language for using device language. 3 questions were directed to the participants that are how often they use English for searching on the web, how often they read English websites, and their default language set on their digital devices, that is, whether they use their digital devices in English as system language. According to the results, they use English for searching on the web occasionally on average. On reading the websites in English, similar tendencies are present among the learners in the study; they engage with English through the websites occasionally. Aligning with the occasional informal English engagement through websites found in this study, Honarзад and Rassaei (2019) revealed that using English for searching on the web was prevalent among Iranian adult learners of English. Compared to their engagement with English through searching on the web and reading websites, using English as the default system language for their digital devices, mobile phones, or personal computers is less common, as nearly half of them stated that they never or rarely prefer using them in English.

Kukulska-Hulme et al. (2017) emphasized the emerging opportunities to encounter English through online resources informally. Especially, learners' engagement with English through websites is revealed to be interest-driven in nature. Language learners in Sockett and Toffoli's (2012) study reported using and reading English websites for researching areas of interest. Further, Jurkovič (2019) found that half of the sample regularly used English for searching for and reading websites and favoured as much as searching for and reading in the participants' mother tongue. In the same study, learners stated that they use English for searching and reading the websites to access more information on the topic they were searching for, as there is more content in English when compared to L1. Brevik's (2019) study corroborates the findings of the interest-driven nature of English reading and searching on the web; participants reported using English for the purpose of accessing a broader range of information on a concerning topic. Considering the previous studies, the prevalence of using English for reading the websites or searching on the web emerged from the results might be considered related to the interest of learners since the English content is more readily available on the web (Crystal, 2003), their interest-driven usage of the web might push them to use English to access a broader body of contents regarding their search.

In general, therefore, it seems that receptive activities regarding online informal English are more dominant among language learners. Among the activities investigated regarding their

social media, messaging, and browsing habits, the most favoured one appeared to follow accounts that share English content, share English content via messaging, and search on the web using English. The least engaged activities are observed to be sharing English content on social media, messaging with others in English, commenting in English on social media, and using devices in English, which somewhat requires English production. The findings of this study align with the results from other studies regarding learners' tendency to favour receptive activities (Honarзад & Rassaei, 2019; İnci, 2021; Jurkovič, 2019; Kusyk, 2017; Peters, 2018; Trinder, 2017). Sharing English content via message is more common than sharing it publicly on social media might indicate that their language production is limited to a small circle of people due to the feeling of making mistakes in a public space (Lai et al., 2018). Nevertheless, the studies that might be compared to the present study did not precisely measure and focus on the same activities; thus, only a general idea of what has been revealed could have been discussed to this end. In addition, it should be kept in mind that receptive nature appeared in social media platforms might also be due to nature of social media using, people often read and watch more than they write and post (Jurkovič, 2019). As a result, the present research suggests an everyday use of English through online spaces beyond the language classrooms; furthermore, English seemed to have a substantial prevalence in language learners' everyday lives through the online opportunities involved on a daily basis.

In addition to revealing overall engagement with English through online informal activities, including social media, messaging, and browsing, gender and grade differences in these engagements were within the scope of the research questions. Analysis regarding the differences between gender and grade variables was employed for each activity separately. For gender, only significantly different activity appeared to be sharing English content on social media; females tend to share English content on their social media accounts more often than males. A note of caution is due here since the difference between females and males regarding content sharing in English on social media might result from overall sharing habits between genders regardless of the language of the content being shared since the gender difference is not present in general English use. Thus, the gender difference discussed here has been brought by similar interpretations of those differences that appeared in gameplay habits. As in the case of playing video games, on the opposite, females are suggested to share content on social media more often compared to males (Thelwall & Vis, 2017). That is to say, the difference that

emerged might be interpreted through the overall difference in habits of gender regardless of their L2 use.

For grade, on the other hand, all activities except one differed between 9th- and 10th-graders within the sample. 10th-graders engaged more with those of all activities investigated in the study, except for using English as their device language; however, the effect size for the difference was negligible. In other words, despite the grade variable seeming to influence the amount of engagement overall, the role of the grade itself has a limited effect on the frequency of engaging in online informal activities.

The above-mentioned additional activities were further gathered into a single variable by calculating a mean score for each student's involvement. Once more, the grade is found to impact how often the learners engage in those activities overall; that is, 10th graders are involved more frequently than 9th graders. Aligning with the previous finding, however, the effect size was small. In line with the age differences that emerged from the present study, Muñoz (2020) suggested that older learners are more frequently involved in online informal activities overall; for internet activities, older adolescents reported higher frequency than young adolescents. For all contact with language beyond the classroom, Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016) also concluded that older adolescents spent more time on English in informal contexts compared to younger adolescents. Peters et al.'s (2019) study revealed the same pattern; 4th-year secondary students had more contact with English compared to 2nd-year secondary students, including visiting/reading English websites. In a study conducted with secondary and high school learners of EFL in Turkey, İnci (2021) found the matching results, 10th-graders spend more time compared to 9th-graders. Therefore, the previous literature might explain the present findings that emerged regarding the 9th and 10th-graders' varying frequency of engaging with English through social media, messaging, and websites. However, the age difference in this study is one year, so it could be approached carefully.

Nevertheless, keeping in the mind that 10th-graders had considerably broader vocabulary knowledge in the present study, their involvement in the investigated online informal activities to be more often than 9th-graders might be explained through both ways: 10th-graders more frequently engaged with those activities in English because they had broader vocabulary knowledge, that is, their involvement might be based on the fact that they are able to comprehend English content more. For the latter possible explanation, the opposite might be true; since they involve more with English through those activities, they have a broader range

of vocabulary. The variance regarding vocabulary knowledge is to be discussed in the following section. As to be discussed in the case of vocabulary knowledge, 10th-graders' having spent more time could also base on maturational factors (İnci, 2021); yet again, it is underemphasized within the previous literature. Grade differences regarding the involvement in English through online informal spaces, in this sense, need further inspection by taking into account the vocabulary knowledge.

5.2.2. Vocabulary Knowledge of the Learners in the Study

Before moving on to the relationship between VLT scores and online informal activities, the overall vocabulary knowledge of the learners in the sample is to be discussed through Vocabulary Level Test scores with respect to the fourth research question.

228 participants' vocabulary knowledge was gathered through the Vocabulary Level Test, compromised of assessing the 2,000-word level, the 3,000-word level, and the 5,000-word level frequencies. According to the correct answers in VLT, learners know 60% of the words from the 2,000-word level, 46% of the words from the 3,000-word level, and 37% from the 5,000-word level on average. On the basis of scoring suggested by Schmitt (2003) (as cited in Xing & Fulcher, 2007), only 37% achieved the 2,000-word level. Those achieving 3,000-word levels made up 25% of the sample, and 5,000-word level achievers were limited to 16% of the sample.

Achieving the 2,000-word level necessary for comprehending 80% of the written text and enabling learners to guess the meaning of unknown words from the context (Milton, 2009; Nation & Waring, 1997). Furthermore, comprehending spoken discourse in L2 requires 3,000-word families to be known by learners (Webb & Rodgers, 2009). Bearing these general ideas in mind, the majority of the learners in the sample seem to be insufficient in receptive vocabulary knowledge to comprehend the spoken or written discourse in L2, in spite of 8 years of English language instruction.

Nevertheless, these findings accord with the previous studies highlighting learners' limited receptive vocabulary knowledge in EFL contexts. In the Taiwanese EFL context, only 16% of language learners who had 9 years of formal English instruction, in the study of Webb and Chang (2012), achieved 2,000-word families. Only 11% of university students in the Turkish EFL context in Ertürk's (2021) study achieved the 2,000-word level, and 2% achieved the 3,000-word level after receiving 10 years of English instruction. Considering the study

conducted with older Turkish EFL learners, the 9th- and 10th-graders in the present study had broader vocabulary knowledge despite the shorter length of the instruction. The possible reason for this could stem from the fact that the sample in the present study has more out-of-class contact, especially for watching English-speaking media and listening to music.

Before moving on to the analysis of the relationship between online informal learning activities and vocabulary knowledge, grade and gender effects on vocabulary knowledge were inspected to approach more comprehensively the relationship to be revealed. The results did not show any gender differences regarding vocabulary knowledge. Previous studies, on the contrary, found that males had higher vocabulary knowledge overall (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). And other studies, aligning with the findings of the present study, found no vocabulary knowledge difference between genders (De Wilde et al., 2022; Hannibal Jensen, 2017; Kuppens, 2010; Peters, 2018). Those highlighted the gender differences regarding the vocabulary knowledge explained the phenomenon through males' higher participation in the video games, consequently having males' higher overall participation in informal activities. However, though males' higher participation in video games was aligned with previous studies, no vocabulary knowledge differences appeared from the findings might have been caused by the fact that males within the sample were lower in number.

For grade, VLT scores differed between 9th- and 10th-graders; 10th-graders achieved higher in all word levels measured in the study and the total VLT scores. At first sight, the difference that appeared between 9th and 10th grade learners' vocabulary knowledge might seem reasonable since 10th-graders had more years of instruction; that is, they had an advantage of +1 year of formal instruction. As a matter of fact, because of the change brought in ELT Curriculum by MEB (2013) for the 2013-2014 academic year, English instruction began to be given in the 2nd and 3rd grades, while the starting grade for English instruction was 4th grade in the previous ELT curriculum by MEB (2006). 9th-graders in the sample of the present study were attending 2nd grade during the first year of the constitution of the new 2013 curricula; thus, 9th graders started English instruction in 2nd grade. In contrast, 10th-graders followed the 2006 curriculum and started the instruction in 4th grade. That is, English instruction starting grades for 9th- and 10th-graders are different; thus, the total length of English instruction they received is different in years, as the former had 7 years of instruction and the latter had 6 years.

To put it another way, even though 10th-graders seem a year of advantage regarding English instruction, because of the policy change undertaken 2013-2014 academic year, while

9th-graders had 8 years of English instruction, and 10th-grades had 7 years; since 9th-graders' English instruction began at 2nd grade, whereas 10th-graders were introduced to English at 4th grade. Similarly, Muñoz (2011) emphasized that no difference were appeared in the vocabulary knowledge of the university learners with a differing starting age of English instruction, even when their age at testing controlled for the analysis, indicating that the early start does not affect the vocabulary knowledge of the learners, as in the case with the present study; though 9th graders started their English instruction on an earlier age, their vocabulary knowledge was significantly lower than 10th-graders. Previous studies revealed the contrary; length of instruction appeared as a factor leading to higher vocabulary knowledge (Muñoz, 2011; Peters, 2018; Peters et al., 2019; Webb & Chang, 2012). Among the studies highlighting the effect regarding the length of instruction, however, Peters (2018) reported that out-of-class contact explained vocabulary scores better than the length of the instruction. Nevertheless, examining French and English vocabulary knowledge in relation to various variables, Peters et al. (2019) found that learners' French vocabulary scores were much lower than their English vocabulary scores, though their length of the instruction in French was much more in years compared to the length of English instruction received. However, with respect to the results of English vocabulary knowledge alone, length of instruction had a vital effect; therefore, Peters et al. (2019) emphasized that more studies are needed to evaluate the length of instruction on the vocabulary knowledge since the effect of length of instruction presents meaningful results when the adequate out-of-class exposure is evident. Hannibal Jensen's (2017) study comprised a similar situation to the present study; because of the Danish policy change on ELT, 8-year-olds and 10-year-olds began English instruction simultaneously, one at the age of 7, and the latter, at the age of 9; thus, the length of instruction was the same for both groups, but their age differed. As a result of the study examining the impact of out-of-class engagement on productive vocabulary knowledge, 8- and 10-year-olds beginning their English instruction at the same time period had differing productive vocabulary test scores; that is, 10-year-olds had significantly higher scores. Hannibal Jensen (2017) explains these results based on the fact that 10-year-olds' English knowledge could only have been gained through out-of-class contact since they had more years of engagement with the English language. Cadierno et al. (2022) revealed similar findings regarding the starting age of learners on their vocabulary knowledge, where the late starters had higher vocabulary knowledge than the early starters. In the study of Ertürk (2021), on the other hand, the age of the learners explained 11% of the variance in receptive knowledge of collocations, and instruction explained 27% of it; while the language

exposure through reading, listening, and social networking was explaining 31% of the variance. In this sense, the practices learners carry out in English mattered more than the age and the year of instruction, respectively.

Nonetheless, both Cadierno and Eskildsen (2015) and Ertürk (2021) explained the difference through cognitive development and increased explicit learning mechanisms for late starters. In addition to the cognitive aspects, motivation, curriculum aims, out-of-class strategy use and other factors that might affect the vocabulary knowledge of 9th- and 10th-graders. Those explanations could be brought for the case between 9th- and 10th-graders in the present study, yet further research is needed focusing on the age and out-of-class contact regarding their impact on vocabulary knowledge.

To this end, learners' VLT scores differed in grades, and this result was discussed considering the fact that they had the same length of instruction. The possible explanation was brought by the previous studies, implicating that older learners' being more proficient or having broader vocabulary knowledge might result from having a total out-of-class engagement in naturalistic settings (Hannibal Jensen, 2017; Kuppens, 2010; Lefever, 2010). Moreover, the vocabulary knowledge of males and females in the present study aligned with the previous findings revealing no gender difference in vocabulary knowledge (Cadierno et al., 2022; De Wilde et al., 2022; Hannibal Jensen, 2017; Kuppens, 2010; Peters, 2018).

Having evaluated the findings of vocabulary knowledge regarding gender and grades, the findings of the fifth research question emphasizing the relationship between the OILE activities and VLT scores of learners are to be discussed in the following.

5.2.3. Learners' Engagement with Online Informal English Activities with regards to Vocabulary Knowledge

The present study was designed to determine the relationship between online informal English activities and language learners' vocabulary knowledge. With this purpose, the third research question in the study sought to assess the impact of learners' engagement with online informal activities in English on their Vocabulary Level Test scores. Respectively, each online informal activity carried out in English regarding their relationship to vocabulary knowledge is to be discussed by commenting on the correlation analysis employed. The related findings from the previous studies are to be reviewed respectively.

5.2.3.1. Audio, Text, and Video Activities in English & VLT Scores

With the purpose of unveiling the relationship between different media types and VLT scores, a correlation analysis was employed. As a result, VLT scores were positively correlated with the learners' engagement with English through all types of media input in online spaces, including audio, text, and video. That is to say, the more frequently they involve in English-speaking media or English texts, the higher VLT scores they get. Moreover, English video appeared to be connected more strongly with higher VLT scores than English audio and texts. A possible explanation for these results might be the aspects of videos since they are comprised of both audio and images. Other studies that emphasise viewing support the present findings in the current study (De Wilde et al., 2022; Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012).

It is vital to bear in mind that the results do not indicate any causation of one to another; it is not possible to state that involving those activities would lead to a higher vocabulary level score and vice versa. Nevertheless, the appeared relation between engaging with English through video, audio, and texts and VLT scores supports the importance of getting English input in naturalistic settings to develop vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, these results reflect those of previous ones (Ertürk, 2021; İnci, 2021; Niitemaa, 2020; Sundqvist, 2009).

5.2.3.2. Main Online Informal English Activities & VLT Scores

Regarding research question 5.2, engaging with main activities was individually inspected regarding the VLT scores of the students. Main online informal activities comprised watching TV series and shows, watching films, watching videos, listening to music, and playing single-player and multi-player video games. Learners were asked how much time they spent or how often they involve in those activities each, and their responses on each activity were correlated with their VLT total scores. Since the number of students achieving the 2,000-word level, 3,000-word level, and the 5,000-word level was so small in number for further analysing the correlation regarding the spent time on each activity, VLT total scores which inquired from the number of correct items were taken as the basis for correlation analysis. The activities within the scope, thus, are to be discussed separately concerning the VLT scores.

In the current study, engaging in main online informal activities is correlated positively with VLT total scores, yet the effect sizes are varied. The first main online informal activity, which is watching English-speaking TV series and TV shows, had a moderate effect on VLT total scores. That is to say, the learners who watched more TV series and shows in English

achieved higher VLT total scores. Similar to the findings of watching English-speaking TV, watching English-speaking films appeared as positively correlated with VLT total scores. Though the effect was weaker than watching TV, the finding was clear in terms of the relationship with VLT scores. On the other hand, watching English-speaking videos presented a strong relationship with VLT total scores as a result of the analysis; further, watching videos in English online appeared to have the strongest connection with VLT scores within 6 main online activities. Being the most preferred activity in terms of spent time, listening to English-speaking music comes second in the strength of the relationship. Being the least favoured among the main online informal activities, playing multi-player and single-player games, on the contrary, had the weakest relationship with VLT scores. Especially, multi-player gaming in English was revealed to have a weak relationship with VLT scores compared to single-player gaming in English.

Though the correlation was apparent within 6 main online activities and VLT total scores, the strength of the association varied. When compared in terms of the strength of the relationship with VLT total scores, the most substantial connection appeared between watching English-speaking videos and VLT total scores and listening to English-speaking music follows. Watching TV series and shows in English have a close relationship with watching films in English, as both have a modest association with VLT total scores. Playing single and multi-player video games, contradicting the relevant literature, had a weak relationship and was the weakest compared to the other activities. Though the findings of the present study on the correlation between playing video games and VLT scores align with the previous studies, the strength of the correlation and the relative importance of playing video games on vocabulary knowledge when compared to other activities contradicts the previous literature. On the supporting finding regarding the relationship between playing video games and vocabulary knowledge, Sundqvist and Wikström (2015) found the same pattern; those who play video games frequently had higher VLT scores when compared to low frequency or non-gamers. In a more recent study, Sundqvist's (2019) findings supported the informal gaming role in vocabulary scores; however, she found that multi-player game mode had a stronger correlation with vocabulary knowledge, whereas single-player gaming had a stronger correlation with vocabulary scores in the present study.

Regarding the research question 5.2, which sought to reveal the relationship between main online informal activities and vocabulary knowledge, the present study revealed that all

six activities investigated within the scope of the research were found to be correlated positively with VLT total scores with varying levels of effectiveness. While watching videos online appeared to be strongly associated with VLT scores, listening to music and watching TV series & shows had moderate strength regarding the relationship on VLT scores. Despite the apparent relationship, however, watching films and playing single and multi-player video games had a weaker association in terms of VLT scores, especially in the case of playing multi-player games.

The previous studies evaluated throughout the research had varying findings on the relationship between individual online informal activities and the strength of the relationship regarding vocabulary knowledge. Sundqvist (2009) found that the most crucial activity for vocabulary knowledge was playing video games in English, among other informal activities, including watching TV and watching films, whereas listening to music appeared not relatively necessary for vocabulary knowledge. On the other hand, in the study carried out with secondary school learners aged between 15-16 and 19-year-old university students, Peters (2018) found that watching films and TV correlated with VLT scores of 16- and 19-year-olds. Furthermore, she found a negative correlation between listening to music and vocabulary scores, which the present study claimed the opposite. Somewhat contradicting the present findings, in Peters et al.'s (2019) study, only a relationship regarding vocabulary knowledge appeared with the participation in video games and English websites, and other activities did not appear to have an association with vocabulary scores. However, they underlined that the evidence for concluding that other activities had no relationship with vocabulary knowledge would be incorrect since some ceiling effects resulted from the lack of variance within the data. In a similar vein, González Fernández and Schmitt (2015) found that adult learners' collocation knowledge correlated with watching films, videos, and TV and social networking; however, no apparent relation was found for listening to music, contrary to the present findings. Lindgren and Muñoz's (2013) study carried out 10-year-olds somewhat corroborated with the present study; all activities included in the study correlated with reading and listening comprehension scores; however, watching films had a greater impact on the scores, and listening to music and playing video games had weaker correlations.

Overall, the results from the present study largely corroborated with the previous findings; nevertheless, listening to music had a more significant relationship with VLT scores, and playing video games had weaker relation with VLT scores in the present study compared to previous literature (De Wilde et al., 2020b; De Wilde & Eyckmans, 2017; Hannibal Jensen,

2017; Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). This variance might be explained by the ceiling effect, as in the case of Peters et al.'s (2019) study, as the answers on the item for listening to music were observed to be gathered into the three options, and the majority chose the last option. For playing video games, the same effect appeared oppositely; answers were primarily gathered on the "never" option. Thus, the strong correlation between VLT scores and listening to music and the weak correlation between VLT scores and playing video games should have been approached with caution. Apart from the mentioned case, the effects of watching videos, TV, and films aligned mainly with the previous literature (De Wilde et al., 2020b; Kuppens, 2010; Peters, 2018; Sundqvist, 2009); thus, a clear relationship between the online informal activities carried out in English and the vocabulary knowledge is apparent.

5.2.3.2.1. Subtitle Preferences and Multi-player Video Game Interactions & VLT Scores

With the purpose of further demonstrating the involvement, learners' subtitle preferences were addressed for each of the TV, film and video watching activities in English. As for the playing multi-player video, learners' interactions through video games were addressed either. To this end, whether learners watch films and TV series with Turkish-dubbing, Turkish subtitles, English subtitles, or without any subtitles were discussed in the previous section regarding the frequency of involvement and the interaction patterns throughout multi-player video gaming.

Research question 5.4 in this study seeks to determine whether subtitle preferences and various interactions throughout video gaming reveals any informing findings concerning VLT scores. In the first place, the subtitle preferences obtained separately for each viewing type - namely watching TV series & shows, films, and videos- were gathered into a single variable. Consequently, watching the mentioned media types with Turkish dubbing, Turkish subtitles, English subtitles, and without any subtitles correlated with VLT total scores. As a result, preferring Turkish subtitles and Turkish dubbing was negatively correlated with VLT scores; learners who often prefer Turkish subtitles and Turkish dubbing have lower VLT scores. On the contrary, favouring English subtitles and no subtitles correlated positively with VLT scores, and the strength of these relationships was moderate. Furthermore, watching media without subtitles had the most robust relationship with VLT scores among other subtitle preferences. Besides the benefits of watching TV series & shows, films, and videos, the subtitle preference appears to be associated with varying VLT scores. In this sense, watching English media itself

would not be sufficient to explain the vocabulary outcomes; instead, the subtitle preference, especially favouring English subtitles or watching it in original format without any subtitles, might have been the case with VLT scores. However, explaining the importance of watching English media relative to the vocabulary knowledge by taking into account the spent time and subtitle preferences is not possible within the scope of this research; however, the findings suggest further investigation by obtaining a more detailed record of learners' involvement in informal online spaces regarding English-speaking media.

For the interaction occurring throughout the multi-player gameplay, speaking or typing to other players and listening to or reading the text of others were addressed. Each interaction was employed for the correlation analysis regarding VLT scores, and the results presented an apparent relationship between all types of interaction with the scores. Especially speaking and typing to others in the game had a moderate relationship with VLT scores; learners who speak and type more often in English during the gameplay have scored higher in VLT. Though reading others' typing and listening to others' speaking in the game were also associated with higher VLT scores, the relationship revealed regarding the VLT scores was weaker when compared to speaking and typing. Compared to the impact of other online informal activities, the findings regarding the relationship between spent time on multi-player gaming and vocabulary knowledge did not seem as substantial as the previous studies had suggested (Hannibal Jensen, 2017; Kuppens, 2010; Peters, 2018; Sundqvist, 2009, 2019; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sundqvist & Wikström, 2015; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). However, the recurring interaction throughout the multi-player gaming on the relationship with the vocabulary knowledge emerged to be more apparent compared to the overall spent time on multi-player gaming. Regardless of the nature of interaction during the multi-player gameplay, the present study reveals that more frequent interaction through games is connected to broader vocabulary knowledge in L2.

5.2.3.3. Additional Online Informal Activities & VLT Score

Research question 5.3 in this study emphasized the role of social media and messaging habits on vocabulary knowledge, including sharing and following English content and using English for texting and commenting. Furthermore, vocabulary knowledge and learners' engagement with English through search engines and websites and their preferred device language were within the scope of research question 5.3. Taken together, involvement with

English informally through social media, messaging, search engines, website reading, and device language were assessed with regards to learners' VLT scores.

The result of the study indicated that every single activity investigated under the additional online informal activities correlated with vocabulary knowledge in a positive direction. The emerged relationship between VLT scores and additional online informal activities varied from a modest to a strong association. The most prominent finding to emerge from the correlation analysis is that reading websites in English have a strong relationship with VLT scores. In another way, learners who more often read English websites have broader vocabulary knowledge in turn. Other activities appeared moderately related to vocabulary knowledge, including sharing English content via message, using English as a device language, searching on the web, messaging someone in English, and following English content sharing accounts. Sharing English content on social media, on the other hand, had a weaker relationship with VLT scores. What is more surprising was that the correlation between the sharing content via message and sharing it on social media with their followers differed in terms of strength of the association; that is, sharing the English content via message seemed to be related to broader vocabulary knowledge when compared to sharing them via social media accounts, which had a weak association with VLT scores.

First, on the strong association between the reading websites in English and higher VLT scores, the possible explanation might be the role of reading the English texts. This result is in agreement with those obtained by González Fernández and Schmitt (2015), who suggested that everyday communicative circumstances and situations could affect learners' collocation knowledge, especially reading. Though their study aligns with the present study in terms of informal scope within the investigation, their concept of reading involved the reading of English books, magazines, and newspapers in addition to the reading of the websites in English; the findings might be interpreted for the present study. Peters (2018), on the other hand, emphasized English internet use of language learners beyond the classroom; in agreement with the present study, she suggested that vocabulary knowledge had the highest correlation with visiting English websites, while others remained moderately correlated with vocabulary knowledge, including reading English books and magazines and watching English films and TV programs without subtitles. In Cong-Lem and Lee's (2020) study, which examined the impact of reading text through English websites on vocabulary size, exposure to English texts was identified to play a crucial role in the broader vocabulary knowledge. Though reading English texts through

websites was not explicitly addressed, instead was approached as a broad activity that might include reading, listening, and writing her study; Sundqvist (2009) revealed that surfing the internet and playing video games were the essential activities for the vocabulary knowledge of 9th-graders among other activities. Inspecting low, mid, and high-frequency words in relation to the type of out-of-class activities, Niitemaa (2020) revealed corroborating results; visiting English websites correlated with a broader knowledge of all frequency levels. Leona et al. (2021) also found that English website visiting correlated with the vocabulary knowledge of young learners. Other studies, mostly approached using English through websites in a mixed way, found similar relevant importance for vocabulary knowledge (De Wilde et al., 2022; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012).

Other items regarding correlated moderately with vocabulary knowledge except for sharing English content via social media accounts. The activities correlated moderately included English language use, such as writing comments, texting in English, using search engines in English, and receptive activities such as following accounts that share English content, sharing English content via messaging and using English as the default device language. Since the items addressed reveal specific activities throughout the social media and messaging regarding English use, it does not seem possible to pinpoint the exact implications by comparing the strength of correlation from each item. Neither does seem applicable to review the literature to explain each item by their strength, as previous studies approached social media and messaging habits in L2 by investigating those as a whole; that is, sharing, following, texting, commenting, and using devices in English were not dealt as specific activities, rather, the overall spent time on social media and the frequency of writing in L2 were discussed. In this sense, it could be concluded that social media and messaging, in general, appear as essential factors in vocabulary knowledge, however, reading English websites mattered more.

Those studies dealing with social media use in English overall concluded similar results regarding the impact on vocabulary knowledge. In De Wilde et al.'s (2022) study, using social media in English was revealed to be a significant factor for receptive vocabulary knowledge of learners aged between 10-12, and the same result was suggested for the learners of the same age on previous study of De Wilde et al. (2020b). Benefiting from social media for audiovisual input in L2 also have been emphasized in other studies for vocabulary knowledge (Leona et al.,

2021), L2 development other than vocabulary knowledge (Bahrani, 2012), including proficiency which in turn associated with lexical knowledge in L2 (De Wilde et al., 2020a).

Messaging, social media, and website visiting habits regarding English use were investigated for their relationship with VLT scores, and previous literature was presented in accordance with the present findings. To this end, the relationship between VLT scores and reading or visiting English websites is revealed to be strong; further, social media and messaging habits overall appeared as moderately correlated with VLT scores. The previous studies scrutinizing out-of-class activities regarding the relationship with vocabulary knowledge suggested aligning results; thus, the present study largely corroborates with the previous findings. In this sense, the interest-driven nature of the informal engagement with English deems to be facilitating learners' vocabulary knowledge.

5.2.4. Learners' views on Where English is Learned

Learners' beliefs on where they learned most of their English were addressed within the aims of the sixth research question. 4 response options were directed to the participants regarding where they learned English; that is, whether they learned through school or out-of-school. Half of the sample reported learning English through school, while those stating they learned English through out-of-class contact were less in proportion. Overall, one-third of them stated they obtained their English competency beyond the classroom, while the majority reported the school helped them learn the English language. The views in this regard corroborated with that of Sundqvist (2009), who revealed that nearly 70% of her sample thought that they learned English from the school. A later study by Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) also highlighted similar tendencies regarding learners' beliefs; the majority reported having learned English in school. In another study emphasizing the learners' views on where they learn English, Lamb (2004) suggested that Indonesian EFL learners aged between 11-12 were learning outside of the classroom; however, learners underlined the facilitating role of the school for learning the language.

Consequently, their views were investigated together with the VLT levels. In the current study, comparing the answers in regard to VLT scores evidently revealed that those who stated they learned English all through out-of-school contact had higher VLT scores. Respectively, those who reported they learned English all through the classes in school had the lowest scores. The VLT scores of each response option differed significantly as a result of the analysis. This

result might be explained by the fact that learners who engage more in online informal activities perceive the benefits of out-of-school learning more, considering the previously emerged pattern that participating in online informal activities is associated with higher vocabulary knowledge. However, the causality could not be presumed since the learners with broader vocabulary knowledge could be the ones engaging with online informal activities and, consequently, perceiving the benefits of engaging in these. On the other hand, the result regarding learners who stated they learned English through out-of-school contact had considerably higher VLT scores, which also might be explained as the validation for VLT and out-of-class contact; learners' view on where English is learned could be resulted from having experienced the visible benefits of vocabulary knowledge. Niitemaa's (2020) findings might corroborate the present findings as the majority of participants aged between 16-17 stated that they learned a lot of English words through online informal activities, and further, their presented examples of learned words corresponded to mid- and high-frequency words. Nevertheless, learners' beliefs need a further inquiry with regard to vocabulary acquisition and out-of-class engagement with English.

5.3. Conclusion

Within the inquiry of the online informal activities carried out in English by language learners, the present research discovered the prevalence of those activities among language learners through addressing the engagement through main online informal activities, additional informal activities, and other related activities that provide English input or output. Learners' encounter with English texts, videos, and speaking & music overall was addressed at first before moving on to the individual activities. In this regard, it is revealed that they often encounter English content through online spaces, and the majority admitted having an encounter with those content consistently. What is more, 10th graders have significantly more frequent contact with English through online spaces. When evaluated with VLT scores, those with contact English more frequently beyond the classroom through various means of input type had significantly higher VLT scores; that is, they had broader vocabulary knowledge. Significantly, the English-speaking video encounter had a stronger association with higher vocabulary scores.

Within the main online informal activities, listening to music is a daily activity among high school students. The pervasiveness of listening to music is presented in previous studies as well. Language learners from varying ages and contexts are, in this sense, getting exposed to

English through listening to music on a daily basis. However, its impact on vocabulary knowledge seems not much as the impact of video watching online. Videos present audio-visual input, whereas English-speaking music listening is limited to audio input. A similar result was revealed for the previous research question on how frequently learners encounter texts, videos, and spoken input; among the input types, videos had a greater effect on vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, having reviewed the findings of the previous and the present study, it could be concluded that English input through both audio-visual activities beyond the classroom has a crucial role in the vocabulary scores of EFL learners.

Engaging with other activities related to viewing, that is, watching TV series & shows and watching films, also indicated a broader vocabulary knowledge. When compared with the impact of involvement in videos, watching TV series and shows and watching films had a weaker impact. One of the implications that emerge from this result could address the effect of subtitles; learners' exposure to English-speaking content without subtitles or with L2 subtitles is more probable since there are limited options for subtitles in video watching, while Turkish subtitles are readily available for TV series & shows and films, as revealed in the present study, videos are mostly watched without subtitles. Therefore, not only the frequency of audio-visual input occurred within online spaces but also the subtitle choice seems to be vital for vocabulary learning. Further details on the viewing/watching of English-speaking media were investigated through addressing the subtitle preferences of learners within the aims of the research. Among the apparent findings, Turkish dubbing is the least favoured way to watch films and, TV series & shows; as a matter of fact, English subtitles and no subtitles are more common than Turkish dubbing. Overall, Turkish subtitles are favoured for watching films and TV series & shows, and no subtitles for video watching. In regard to VLT scores, findings relatively surprising appeared; all subtitle modes correlated with VLT scores, but for Turkish dubbing and Turkish subtitles, the correlation was negative, whereas English subtitles and no subtitles positively correlated with the scores. This finding also explains why watching films and TV relatively fall short in their relationship with vocabulary scores; since those are watched mostly with Turkish subtitles, their relative importance to vocabulary knowledge falls behind the video watching in English.

On the prevalence of watching or viewing media, similar highlights could be mentioned from the findings of the present study. When the time spent on watching TV, films, and videos is considered in sum, those activities allocate more time than instruction hours at school weekly.

To put it another way, their out-of-class contact only through watching media is much more than their class hours. For video games, however, the findings are somewhat disappointing regarding both the spent time and the effect on vocabulary knowledge. Indeed, video games and vocabulary scores have an apparent relationship in the present study, yet, contrary to the previous literature, learners spend much less time on gaming, and the relationship between gaming and vocabulary knowledge was not as substantial as the previous studies suggested. Further details were addressed through focusing on the interaction types that occurred during the multi-player gaming. It was revealed that learners who play multi-player video games rarely interact with other players, and they mostly interact through texting, and consequently, they read others' texts or messages. On the other hand, the spoken interaction is much less existent throughout gaming, as only a small proportion of learners admitted having spoken English in gameplay. Interaction, in this sense, is existent mainly through texts, and learners rarely interact with others through gaming. A note of caution is due here since the sample mainly consisted of females and has emerged from the findings of other studies and the present study; females spend little time gaming in their spare time.

The aim of the study also emphasized the use or exposure to English through social media, messages, search engines/websites, and devices; and investigated those activities grouped as additional online informal activities. Following accounts that share English content is the most common among the sample; sharing English content via message, searching on the web using English, and reading websites in English are also common but not much as the former. Messaging in English and sharing/posting English content on social media are rarely performed by the learners. One of the more significant findings to emerge from the study is that, while sharing available English content is often existent among learners, the same is not apparent while sharing the content on social media. There are two patterns to emerge regarding the variance of frequency. First, receptive activities are more common among learners, as long as they are not sharing those publicly. Even though they do not use English in a productive way while sharing the content, that is, the content has already been there readily available for others to read, watch, or listen; to whom they share the content seems to be mattered. In other words, not the fear of making mistakes while using English but the fear of having the English content misunderstood is evident. While learners' daily involvement with English through online spaces is crystal clear, their contact with English seems to be limited to their private circle. They often encounter English content on social media and occasionally share those content with

their friends. In addition, using English for searching on the web and reading English websites are pretty popular. Aligning with the findings with the grade difference emerged for the encounter with English texts, video, and spoken input; the frequency of doing those activities grouped as additional online informal activities also differed in terms of grade. That is to say, 10th-graders are involved with English through sharing, reading, searching, and texting more frequently. Within the scope of the study, additional activities were evaluated with VLT scores. In line with the relationship between VLT and other online informal activities, all the activities present statistically significant correlations with vocabulary scores. The reading of the English websites, however, appears stronger for the association, while others were moderate.

Considering their relative prevalence among learners and impact on vocabulary knowledge, reading websites, watching videos, listening to music, and sharing English content via message appear as the means of contact with English and further developing their L2 lexical knowledge. Nevertheless, these findings would not imply any causation and should be interpreted with caution.

Somewhat unexpected, this study has raised important questions about the nature of vocabulary knowledge of high school learners in Turkey and their online informal practices carried out beyond the classroom. Though getting fewer years of instruction, 10th-graders seem to have broader vocabulary knowledge, and they are involved with English more through informal contact. It is challenging to interpret these findings within the scope of this research, considering the available data. If it is not the English instruction they received, what is the reason for 10th-graders' broader vocabulary knowledge? Is it the developmental aspects brought by their age or the one year of advantage regarding the total amount of exposure they received from out-of-school contact? Those questions that emerged from the result were not within the aim of the present research; however, the results remarkably indicated an issue to be revealed through future research which focuses on the impact of age within the inquiry of vocabulary gains through out-of-school contact.

To this end, the findings have presented the nature and prevalence of learners' engagement with English through various online platforms and spaces with the hope of revealing the relationship of those engagements with learners' vocabulary knowledge. The study, thus, concluded that 9th and 10th-grade learners in Turkey have considerable contact with English through online spaces, and essentially, English is present in their daily lives not as a means of school subject but rather as a means of connection for the interest-driven presence in

the world. And the role of English regarding its means of connection and access appears to be connected with English vocabulary gains.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the present study; the online informal activities are omnipresent in learners' lives, and learners involving those activities could have broader vocabulary knowledge in turn. The findings reported here shed new light on the Turkish high school learners' practices beyond the classroom.

5.4. Recommendations for Future Research

As mentioned earlier, the present study tried to draw a general picture of the learners' engagements with English informally through adapting a quantitative approach. Within the inquiry on the issue, learners from varying ages and contexts could also be included to reveal even a broader picture of the informal learning in the Turkish EFL context. Consequently, a qualitative approach for future research could shed light on the underlying reasons and the nature of informal involvements. Considering that online informal learning of English research in Turkey has mainly emphasized the intentional and deliberate practices beyond the classroom, future studies to be conducted emphasizing the naturalistic aspect of English encounters in learners' daily lives would have significant implications for English education in Turkey.

Another issue that emerged from the findings is the 9th- and 10th-graders' differing vocabulary knowledge and involvement in online informal practices. Language learners in 10th grade had higher vocabulary knowledge and spent more time on online informal practices. The most unforeseen from these findings, however, was the variance in vocabulary knowledge; that is, 10th-graders scored much higher despite the fact that they received less English instruction. The interpretation of these findings could not be deemed within the scope of the present study; nevertheless, further studies to be conducted by encompassing other variables that might explain the relationship, including age and total instruction hours received, would expand our understanding of out-of-class engagement with English and L2 outcomes.

5.5. Theoretical and Practical Implications

The findings of this study have a number of pedagogical implications. To begin with, language teachers should be aware of the fact that learners have a considerable amount of contact beyond the classroom; moreover, the time spent on online informal English practices is

much more when compared to the spent time in English classes. Since learners' input mainly occurs beyond the classroom, teachers should consider making use of the input to encourage language output in the classroom. Moreover, encouraging output the using the familiar input gained through informal contact could give a chance for learners to be aware of the gaps in their interlanguage, and consequently, the attention throughout the later engagement with English in informal spaces could be directed to those specific gaps, and provide substantial language development. On the other hand, teachers also could encourage learners to involve with English through informal spaces by bringing familiar content to the classroom and raising learners' awareness of the opportunities provided through online spaces. Approaching learners as language users since there is an evident prevalent exposure and use of the English language beyond the classroom settings as emerged from the findings may facilitate a more learner-centred approach.

For the policy makers, the responsibilities are much more evident. Features and aspects of the language that learners contact through online spaces must be taken into consideration for the planning of the curriculum and syllabus. The issue is also highlighted by Henry (2013) and is referred to as the authenticity gap, where learners are demotivated because of the gap between formal English classes and informal contact with English regarding the language use and the context in which English is presented through. In addition, participation in informal practices should also be encouraged through the curriculum. In this sense, communicative functions, selection of themes and notions and their sequence within the syllabus could be revised considering the use of English in online spaces. The lack of harmony between learners' daily use and encounter of English and the national English curricula might lead to learners' demotivation for English lessons in school.

Also, as appeared from the implications of research in European countries, further research on the phenomenon could help catch up with global research trends. Suggesting that subtitled media would play a role in developing learners' L2 acquisition, authorities could benefit from the implications of the prevalence of English in Turkey, such as broadening the access to L1 subtitles or English subtitles as standard for broadcasting media by traditional content providers - as in the case with most European countries- instead of forcing the L1 dubbing.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Ethics Committee Approval Form

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 16.04.2021-75132



T.C.
AKDENİZ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulu

Sayı : E-55578142-050.01.04-75132
Konu : Kararlar

Sayın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Fatma Özlem SAKA

İlgi : a) 30.03.2021 tarihli ve 62020 sayılı yazınız,
b) 13.04.2021 tarihli ve 72283 sayılı yazınız.

İlgide kayıtlı yazılarınıza istinaden; Kurulumuzdan talep edilen Etik Onay belgesine ilişkin, Üniversitemiz Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulumuzun kararları ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerini ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Osman ERAVŞAR
Kurul Başkanı

Ek:
1- 16.04.2021 tarih ve 153 sayılı Etik Kurul Kararı (1 Sayfa)
2- 16.04.2021 tarih ve 189 sayılı Etik Kurul Kararı (1 Sayfa)

Belge Doğrulama Kodu :BE8RCDDRJ Pin Kodu :31702
Akdeniz Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü Kampus / Antalya
Telefon No:0 242 227 59 90 Faks No:0 242 227 59 90
e-Posta:duyur@akdeniz.edu.tr Elektronik Ağ:www.akdeniz.edu.tr
Kep Adresi:akdenizuniversitesi@hs01.kep.tr

Belge Takip Adresi : <https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/akdeniz-universitesi-ebys?V=BENUCDKSC>

Bilgi için: Ali DİKLİŞ
Unvan: Bilgisayar İşletmeni



Bu belge 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5. Maddesi gereğince güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.



TOPLANTI TARİHİ : 16.04.2021

TOPLANTI SAYISI : 06

KARAR SAYISI : 153

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü **Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Fatma Özlem SAKA**'nın danışmanlığını, **Seren ÖZGÜR**'ün araştırmacılığını üstlendiği, "*Çevrimiçi İnfomal İngilizce Öğreniminin Lise Öğrencilerinin Kelime Dağarcığına Etkisi*" konulu çalışmanın, fikri hukuki ve telif hakları bakımından metot ve ölçeğine ilişkin sorumluluğun başvurucaya ait olmak üzere, proje süresince uygulanmasının etik olarak **uygun olduğuna** oy birliği ile karar verilmiştir. (2021G145)

Prof. Dr. Osman ERAVŞAR
Kurul Başkanı

Başkan
Prof. Dr.
Osman ERAVŞAR

Başkan Yrd.
Prof. Dr.
Bahattin ÖZDEMİR

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Hilmi DEMİRKAYA

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Mustafa ŞEKER

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Adnan DÖNMEZ

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Abdullah KARAÇAĞ

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Eyyup YARAŞ

Appendix B. Approval from the Provincial Directorate of National Education



T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : E-59090411-20-26303017
Konu : Anket ve Araştırma İzni (Seren ÖZGÜR)

10/06/2021

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi : a) Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 21.01.2020 tarihli ve 2020/2 sayılı genelgesi.
b) Akdeniz Üniversitesinin 28.05.2021 tarihli ve 92594 sayılı yazısı.
c) Müdürlüğümüz Araştırma ve Anket Komisyonunun 09.06.2021 tarihli tutanağı.

Araştırma Konusu : Çevrimiçi İnfomal İngilizce Öğreniminin Lise Öğrencilerinin Kelime Dağarcığına Etkisi
Araştırma Türü : Anket
Araştırma Yeri : İstanbul
Araştırma Kişiler : Liseler
Araştırmanın Süresi : 2020 - 2021 Eğitim ve Öğretim Yılı

Yukarıda bilgileri verilen araştırmanın; 6698 sayılı Kişisel Verilerin Korunması Kanununa aykırı olarak kişisel veri istenmemesi, öğrenci velilerinden açık rıza onayı alınması, yüz yüze eğitime geçmiş olan kurumlarımızda, Covid-19 tedbirlerinin araştırmacı ve ilgili kurum idarelerince alınması, bilimsel amaç dışında kullanılmaması, bir örneği Müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının kurumlarımıza araştırmacı tarafından ulaştırılarak uygulanması, katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun kamuoyuyla paylaşılmasında ve araştırma bittikten sonra 2 (iki) hafta içerisinde Müdürlüğümüze gönderilmesi, okul idarelerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim ve öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde, ilgi (a) genelge esasları dâhilinde uygulanması kaydıyla Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.

Makamınızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Levent YAZICI
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR
10/06/2021
Dr. Hasan Hüseyin CAN
Vali a.
Vali Yardımcısı

Ek:
1- İlgi (b) Yazı ve Ekleri (18 Sayfa)
2- İlgi (c) Tutanak (1 Sayfa)

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Adres : Binbirdirek Mah. İmran Öktem Cad. No: 1 Sultanahmet Fatih İstanbul
Telefon : 0212 384 36 30
E-posta : stratejigelistirme34@meb.gov.tr
Kep Adresi : meb@hs01.kep.tr

Belge Doğrulama : <https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/meb-ebys>
Bilgi İçin : Aydın BALTA
Unvanı : Veri Hazırlama ve Kontrol İşletmeni
İnternet Adresi : <http://istanbul.meb.gov.tr/>

Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. <https://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr> adresinden a4f7-d7af-362e-a008-2228 kodu ile teyit edilebilir.

Appendix C. Provincial Directorate of National Education Commission Report

Sayfa 1 / 2

25935816/01

İstanbul İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü ANKET ARAŞTIRMA KOMİSYONU DEĞERLENDİRME FORMU								
ARAŞTIRMA SAHİBİNİN								
Adı Soyadı		Seren ÖZGÜR						
Kurumu / Üniversitesi		Akdeniz Üniversitesi						
Araştırma Yapılacak İller		İstanbul						
Araştırma Yapılacak Eğitim Kurumu ve Kademesi		Bakırköy, Başakşehir, Eyüp, Küçükçekmece, Şişli,,,Liseler,,						
Araştırmanın Konusu		Çevrimiçi İnfomal İngilizce Öğreniminin Lise Öğrencilerinin Kelime Dağarcığına Etkisi						
Üniversite / Kurum Onayı		Var						
Veri Toplama Araçları								
MEB 21/01/2020 tarih ve 1563890 sayılı 2020/2 Genelge Kapsamında Araştırma, Yarışma ve Sosyal Etkinlik İzinlerinde Dikkat Edilecek Hususlar								
Maddeler	Uygun	Uygun Değil	Maddeler	Uygun	Uygun Değil	Maddeler	Uygun	Uygun Değil
2020/2 Genelgenin 1. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 2. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 3. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 4. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 5. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 6. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 7. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 8. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 9. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 10. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 11. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 12. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 13. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 14. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 15. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 16. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 17. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 18. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 19. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 20. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 21. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 22. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 23. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 24. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 25. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 26. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 27. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 28. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 20. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 30. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 31. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 32. Maddesi	☐	☐	2020/2 Genelgenin 33. Maddesi	☐	☐
2020/2 Genelgenin 34. Maddesi	☐	☐						
KOMİSYON GÖRÜŞÜ								
Veri toplama araçlarının eğitim-öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde gönüllülük esasına dayalı olarak uygulanması ve araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılması koşuluyla yürütülmesinde bir sakınca bulunmamaktadır ☐ / bulunmamaktadır ☒								
Komisyon Kararı					Oybirliğiyle Alınmıştır.			
KOMİSYON								
Açıklama:					Ünvan-Adı Soyadı-İmza			
					(9.06.2021) Üye: <i>Yasemin Korkmaz Zih</i>			
					(9.06.2021) Üye: <i>Mehmet Emin M</i>			
					(9.06.2021) Üye: <i>Ercan Kaya Öz</i>			

Appendix D. Sample of the Questionnaire in the Approval Document by Provincial Directorate of National Education

EK-1 / GÖRÜŞME FORMU VE ÖLÇÜK

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 28.04.2021-80955

Çevrimiçi İngilizce Öğrenme Aktiviteleri

Mehaba sevgili öğrenciler, ben Araştırma Görevlisi Seren ÖZGÜR, Akdeniz Üniversitesi'nde İngiliz Dil Eğitimi alanında Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Fatma Özlem SAKA danışmanlığında yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Bu anket, bu çalışmam için çevrimiçi ortamlarda İngilizce yürütülen oyun oynama, video izleme, film veya dizi izleme, paylaşım yapma gibi öğrenen aktivitelerine dair güncel trendler hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak amacı ile yapılmaktadır. Anketle başlamadan önce lütfen bilgilendirme yazınızı okuyunuz ve çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katıldığınızı onaylayınız. Teşekkürler. :)

BİLGİLENDİRME

- Anket yaklaşık olarak 30 dakika sürmektedir.
- Çalışmaya katılım gönüllüdür ve dilerseñiz anketten çekilebilirsiniz. Araştırmadan önce çekilmeniz halinde verileriniz silinecektir.
- Kişisel verilerimiz sadece araştırma amacı ile kullanılacak, özel ve genel tutulacaktır. Tüm kişisel ve hassas verilerimiz anonimleştirilecek ve adınız çalışmaya verilerinizi sunarken kullanılmayacaktır.
- Araştırma ile ilgili sorunuz, şikayetiniz veya öneriniz için araştırmacı ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Araştırmacı:

İletişim bilgileri aşağıda sunulmuştur:

- Anket sürecince ıncıpladığınız şerhler ile ilgili kafanızdaki soru şaretleri için ÖZGÜR veya TELEFARİ

İzlenimler araştırmacı ile anlık iletişimi kurabilirsiniz.

- Bu ankette doğru cevap yoktur. İste en yakın seçeneği işaretleyebilirsiniz.

Araştırmacı iletişim adresleri : E-posta
Araştırmacı anlık iletişim adresleri
Telegram

ARAŞTIRMA ONAYI *

(Onay vermek için kutucuğa tıklayınız.)

☒ Bilgilendirme yazınızı okudum, anladım ve araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı onaylıyorum.

Demografik Bilgiler

Adınız ve soyadınızı yazınız. *

Cinsiyetinizi işaretleyiniz. *

☐ Kız
☐ Erkek

Öğrenim görmekte olduğunuz sınıfı işaretleyiniz. *

☐ 9. sınıf
☐ 10. sınıf

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 28.04.2021-80955

İngilizce Öğrenme Aktiviteleri

Kullandığınız çevrimiçi platformlarda (Instagram, Youtube, Twitch, Netflix, Spotify, Steam, Reddit, Tiktok vs.) ne sıklıkla İngilizce içerikte karşılaşıyorsunuz? *

☐ Hiç
☐ Nadiren
☐ Bazen
☐ Sıklıkla
☐ Her zaman

Kullandığınız çevrimiçi platformlarda... *

Çevrimiçi karşılaştığınız içerik türüne göre belirtiniz.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
İngilizce yazılar ile karşılaşırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
İngilizce videolar ile karşılaşırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
İngilizce konuşma/ müzik ile karşılaşırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Ne sıklıkla İngilizce konuşulan dizi veya TV programı izliyorsunuz? *

İngilizce dizi veya TV programı izliyorsanız, "izliyorum" işaretleyiniz.

☐ İzliyorum
☐ Asla bir veya daha az
☐ Haftada bir veya daha az
☐ Haftada birkaç kez
☐ Günde bir saat veya daha az
☐ Günde 1-3 saat arası
☐ Günde 3 saatten fazla

Orijinal dili İngilizce olan dizi ve TV programlarını... *

Çevrimiçi İngilizce aktiviteleri ne sıklıkla yaptığınızı göre belirtiniz.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
...Türkçe dublaj izliyorum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...Türkçe altyazılı izliyorum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...İngilizce altyazılı izliyorum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...Altyazısız izliyorum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 28.04.2021-80955

4/26/2021

4/26/2021

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Appendix E. Consent Form for Parents

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 28.04.2021-80955

EK- E İ ON OR
Sayın Veli;

Çocuğunuzun katılacağı bu çalışma, "Çevrimiçi İnfomal İngilizce Öğreniminin Lise Öğrencilerinin Kelime Dağarcığına Etkisi" adıyla yapılacak bir araştırma uygulamasıdır.

Araştırmanın Hedefi: Yabancı dil öğrenen öğrencilerin, çevrimiçi ortamlarda karşılaştıkları infomal İngilizce içeriklerin, yabancı dil kelime seviyesine etkisinin araştırılmasıdır.

Araştırma T.C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın ve okul yönetiminin de izni ile gerçekleştirilmektedir. Araştırma uygulamasına katılımı tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalı olmaktadır. Çocuğunuz çalışmaya katılıp katılmamakta özgürdür. Araştırma çocuğunuz için herhangi bir istenmeyen etki ya da risk taşımamaktadır. Çocuğunuzun katılımı **tamamen sizin isteğinize bağlıdır**, reddedebilir ya da herhangi bir aşamasında ayrılabilirsiniz. Araştırmaya katılmamama veya araştırmadan ayrılma durumunda öğrencilerin akademik başarıları, okul ve öğretmenleriyle olan ilişkileri etkilemeyecektir.

Çalışmada öğrencilerden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir.

Uygulamalar, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular ve durumlar içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden çocuğunuz kendisini rahatsız hisse derse cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta özgürdür. Bu durumda rahatsızlığın giderilmesi için gereken yardım sağlanacaktır. Çocuğunuz çalışmaya katıldıktan sonra istediği an vazgeçebilir. Böyle bir durumda veri toplama aracını uygulayan kişiye, çalışmayı tamamlamayacağını söylemesi yeterli olacaktır. Anket çalışmasına katılmamak ya da katıldıktan sonra vazgeçmek çocuğunuza hiçbir sorumluluk getirmeyecektir.

Onay vermeden önce sormak istediğiniz herhangi bir konu varsa sormaktan çekinmeyiniz. Çalışma bittikten sonra bizlere telefon veya e-posta ile ulaşarak soru sorabilir, sonuçlar hakkında bilgi isteyebilirsiniz. Saygılarımızla,

Araştırmacı : Seren ÖZGÜR

İletişim bilgileri :

*Velisi bulunduğum sınıfı numaralı öğrencisi
.....'in yukarıda açıklanan araştırmaya katılmasına izin veriyorum.
(Lütfen formu imzaladıktan sonra çocuğunuzla okula geri gönderiniz*).*

...../...../.....

İsim-Soyisim İmza:

Veli Adı-Soyadı :

Telefon Numarası :

Appendix F. Data Collection Instruments (Questionnaire and Vocabulary Levels Test)

Çevrimiçi İnfomal İngilizce Öğrenme Aktiviteleri

Merhaba sevgili öğrenciler, ben Araştırma Görevlisi Seren ÖZGÜR. Akdeniz Üniversitesi'nde İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanında Doç. Dr. Fatma Özlem SAKA danışmanlığında yüksek lisans yapmaktayım.

Bu anket; tez çalışmam için çevrimiçi ortamlarda İngilizce yürütülen oyun oynama, video izleme, film veya dizi izleme, paylaşım yapma gibi öğrenen aktivitelerine dair güncel trendler hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak amacı ile yapılmaktadır. Ankete başlamadan önce lütfen bilgilendirme yazısını okuyunuz ve çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katıldığınızı onaylayınız.

Teşekkürler. :)

** Required*

BİLGİLENDİRME

- Anket yaklaşık olarak 30 dakika sürmektedir.
 - Çalışmaya katılım gönüllüdür ve derseniz anketten çekilebilirsiniz. Araştırmadan geri çekilmeniz halinde verileriniz silinecektir.
 - Kişisel verileriniz sadece araştırma amacı ile kullanılacak; özel ve gizli tutulacaktır. Tüm kişisel ve hassas verileriniz anonimleştirilecek ve adınız araştırma verilerini sunarken kullanılmayacaktır.
 - Araştırma ile ilgili sorunuz, şikayetiniz veya öneriniz için araştırmacı ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Araştırmacının iletişim bilgileri aşağıda sunulmuştur.
 - Anket süresince cevapladığınız sorular ile ilgili kafanızdaki soru işaretleri için Discord veya Telegram üzerinden araştırmacı ile anlık iletişim kurabilirsiniz.
 - Bu ankette doğru cevap yoktur. Size en yakın seçeneği işaretlemeniz yeterlidir.
- Araştırmacı iletişim adresleri :

E-posta

Araştırmacı anlık iletişim adresleri :

Discord

Telegram

ARAŞTIRMA ONAYI *

(Onay vermek için kutucuğa tıklayınız.)

- ☐ Bilgilendirme yazısını okudum, anladım ve araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı onaylıyorum.

Demografik Bilgiler

1. Adınız ve soyadınızı yazınız. *

2. Cinsiyetinizi işaretleyiniz. *

- ☐ Kız
☐ Erkek

3. Öğrenim görmekte olduğunuz sınıfı işaretleyiniz. *

- ☐ 9. sınıf
☐ 10. sınıf

4. Öğrenim görmekte olduğunuz okul adını yazınız. *

İnformel İngilizce Aktiviteler

5. Kullandığınız çevrimiçi platformlarda (Instagram, Youtube, Twitch, Netflix, Spotify, Steam, Reddit, Tiktok vs.) **ne sıklıkla İngilizce içerikle karşılaşıyorsunuz?** *

- ☐ Hiç
☐ Nadiren
☐ Bazen
☐ Sıklıkla
☐ Her zaman

6. Kullandığım çevrimiçi platformlarda... *

Cümleyi karşılaştığınız içeriğin türüne göre tamamlayınız.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
a. ...İngilizce yazılar ile karşılaşırım.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ...İngilizce video ile karşılaşırım.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ...İngilizce konuşma/ müzik ile karşılaşırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. Ne sıklıkla İngilizce konuşulan dizi veya TV programı izliyorsunuz? *

İngilizce dizi veya TV programı izlemiyorsanız, "İzlemem" işaretleyiniz.

- ☐ İzlemem
- ☐ Ayda bir veya daha az
- ☐ Haftada bir veya daha az
- ☐ Haftada birkaç kez
- ☐ Günde bir saat veya daha az
- ☐ Günde 1-3 saat arası
- ☐ Günde 3 saatten fazla

8. Orijinal dili İngilizce olan dizi ve TV programlarını... *

Cümleyi aşağıdaki aktiviteleri ne sıklıkla yaptığınıza göre tamamlayınız.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
a. ...Türkçe dublajlı izlerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ...Türkçe altyazılı izlerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ...İngilizce altyazılı izlerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. ...altyazısız izlerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. Ne sıklıkla İngilizce konuşulan film izlersiniz? *

İngilizce film izlemiyorsanız "İzlemem" işaretleyiniz.

- ☐ İzlemem
☐ Yılda birkaç kez
☐ Ayda bir kez
☐ Ayda birkaç kez
☐ Haftada bir kez
☐ Haftada bir kez
☐ Haftada bir kez

10. Orijinal dili İngilizce olan filmleri... *

Cümleyi aşağıdaki aktiviteleri ne sıklıkla yaptığınıza göre tamamlayınız.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
a. ...Türkçe dublajlı izlerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ...Türkçe altyazılı izlerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ...İngilizce altyazılı izlerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. ...altyazısız izlerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. Ne sıklıkla İngilizce müzik dinlersiniz? *

İngilizce müzik dinlemiyorsanız "Dinlemem" işaretleyiniz.

- ☐ Dinlemem
☐ Neredeyse hiç
☐ Ayda bir veya daha az
☐ Haftada 1 saat veya daha az
☐ Haftada birkaç saat
☐ Günde 1 saat veya daha az
☐ Günde 1 saat veya daha az

12. Ne sıklıkla yayın ve video paylaşım platformlarında (Youtube, Twitch, Tiktok vb.) İngilizce video izlersiniz? *

Bu platformlarda İngilizce video izlemiyorsanız "İzlemem" işaretleyiniz.

- ☐ İzlemem
☐ Neredeyse hiç
☐ Ayda bir veya daha az
☐ Haftada 1 saat veya daha az
☐ Haftada birkaç saat
☐ Günde 2 saat veya daha az
☐ Günde 2 saatten fazla

13. Yayın ve video paylaşım platformlarında (Youtube, Twitch, Tiktok vb.) İngilizce izlediğim videolar... *

Aşağıdaki aktiviteleri ne sıklıkla yaptığınızı işaretleyiniz.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
a. ...Türkçe altyazılıdır.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ...İngilizce altyazılıdır.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ...altyazısızdır.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. Sosyal medyada...*

Aşağıdaki aktiviteleri ne sıklıkla yaptığınızı işaretleyiniz.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
a. ...İngilizce içerikler (fotoğraf, post veya yazı içeren fotoğraf, video vb.) paylaşıyorum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ...İngilizce paylaşım (fotoğraf, post veya yazı içeren fotoğraf, video vb.) yapan hesapları takip ederim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ...İngilizce yorum yazarım.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15. Online platformlarda (Youtube, Instagram, Twitch vb.) veya mesajlaşma uygulamalarında... *

Cümleyi aşağıdaki aktiviteleri ne sıklıkla yaptığınıza göre tamamlayınız.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
a. ...İngilizce mesajlaşıyorum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ...arkadaşlarımla İngilizce içerik (fotoğraf, post veya yazı içeren fotoğraf, video vb.)paylaşıyorum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. Arama motoru (Google, Yandex vb.) **kullanırken... ***

Cümleyi aşağıdaki aktiviteyi ne sıklıkla yaptığınıza göre tamamlayınız.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
a. İngilizce arama yaparım.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ...arama yaptığım İngilizce içerikleri (web sitesi vb.) okurum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17. Kullandığım bilgisayar, telefon veya diğer cihazların sistem dili... *

Cümleyi aşağıdaki aktiviteyi ne sıklıkla yaptığınıza göre tamamlayınız.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
...İngilizcedir.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. Bilgisayar veya diğer cihazlarda (tablet, telefon, konsol vb.) **İngilizce oyun oynuyor musunuz?**

*

- ☐ Evet
☐ Hayır

19. Ne sıklıkla İngilizce oyun oynuyorsunuz? *

Belirtilen oyun türünü oynamıyorsanız "Oynamam" işaretleyiniz.

	Oyna- mam	Ayda bir veya bir- kaç kez	Haftada 1 saat veya daha az	Haftada 1-3 saat arası	Haftada 3-5 saat arası	Haftada 5-7 saat arası	Her gün 1 saatten fazla
a. Tek oyunculu (Single-player)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Çok oyunculu (Multi-player)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

20. Çok-oyunculu (Multi-player) oyun oynadığınızda... *

Cümleyi aşağıdaki aktiviteleri ne sıklıkla yaptığınıza göre tamamlayınız.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
a. ...İngilizce konuşurum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ...İngilizce yazarım.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ...birlikte oynadığım kişiler İngilizce konuşur.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. ...birlikte oy- nadığım kişiler İngilizce yazar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. İngilizcede bildiklerimin... *

Cümleyi size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyerek tamamlayınız.

- ☐ hepsini okuldaki derslerden (veya özel ders, kurs) öğrendim.
- ☐ çoğunu okuldaki derslerden (veya özel ders, kurs) öğrendim.
- ☐ çoğunu okuldaki derslerin (veya özel ders, kurs) dışında öğrendim.
- ☐ hepsini okuldaki derslerin (veya özel ders, kurs) dışında öğrendim.

Kelime Testi

- Bu bir Kelime Seviye Testi'dir ve İngilizcede ortalama ne kadar kelime bildiğinizi ölçecektir. Yaklaşık 10 dakika sürecektir.
- Bu testin sonucu başarılı veya başarısız olduğunuzu belirlemez.
- Bu test sonucunda notlandırılmayacaksınız.
- Yanlış yaptığınız sorular doğru sorularınıza etki etmeyecektir.
- Kelimenin anlamını tahmin edebiliyorsanız işaretleme yapınız, fakat kelimeyi hiç bilmiyor ve tahmin edemiyorsanız, boş bırakınız.
- Lütfen sözlükten yardım ALMAYINIZ. Bu bir başarı testi değildir.
- İstenilen kelimenin doğru tanımını içeren seçeneği işaretlemeniz yeterlidir.
- Bazı kelimeler zorluğu arttırmak için verilmiştir. Bu kelimeleri eşleştirebileceğiniz bir tanım bulunmamaktır.
- Test sonucunu öğrenmek için araştırmacı ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Mobildeyseniz, örnekteki gibi verilen tanıma uygun kelimeyi seçiniz.

Bu soru bilgilendirme amaçlıdır, boş bırakınız.

Bilgisayardaysanız, aşağıdaki örnekteki gibi solda verilen tanıma uygun kelimeyi aynı satırda işaretleyiniz.

Bu soru bilgilendirme amaçlıdır, boş bırakınız.

22. Kelimenin anlamını tahmin edebiliyorsanız işaretleme yapınız, fakat kelimeyi hiç bilmiyor ve tahmin edemiyorsanız, boş bırakınız.

	copy	event	motor	pity	profit	tip
thing made to be like another	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
this moves a car	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
end or highest point	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

23. Kelimenin anlamını tahmin edebiliyorsanız işaretleme yapınız, fakat kelimeyi hiç bilmiyor ve tahmin edemiyorsanız, boş bırakınız.

	accident	debt	fortune	pride	roar	thread
loud deep sound	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
something you must pay	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
having a high opinion of yourself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

24. Kelimenin anlamını tahmin edebiliyorsanız işaretleme yapınız, fakat kelimeyi hiç bilmiyor ve tahmin edemiyorsanız, boş bırakınız.

	birth	dust	operation	row	sport	victory
game	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
winning	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
being born	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

25. Kelimenin anlamını tahmin edebiliyorsanız işaretleme yapınız, fakat kelimeyi hiç bilmiyor ve tahmin edemiyorsanız, boş bırakınız.

	clerk	frame	noise	respect	theatre	wine
a drink	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
office worker	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
unwanted sound	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

26.

	dozen	empire	gift	opportunity	relief	tax
chance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
twelve	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
money paid to the government	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

27.

	admire	complain	fix	hire	introduce	stretch
make wider or longer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
bring in for the first time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
have a high opinion of someone	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

28.

	arrange	develop	lean	owe	prefer	seize
grow	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
put in order	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
like more than something else	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

29.

	blame	elect	jump	manufacture	melt	threaten
make	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
choose by voting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
become like water	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

30.

	brave	electric	firm	hungry	local	usual
commonly done	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
wanting food	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
having no fear	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

31.

	bitter	independent	lovely	merry	popular	slight
beautiful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
small	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
liked by many people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

32.

	blanket	contest	generation	merit	plot	vacation
holiday	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
good quality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
wool covering used on beds	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Bunu okuyorsanız, "plot" işaretleyiniz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

33.

	apartment	candle	draft	horror	prospect	timber
a place to live	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
chance of something happening	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
first rough form of something wr itten	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

34.

	administrati on	angel	frost	herd	fort	pond
group of animals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
spirit who serves God	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
managing business and affairs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

35.

	atmosphere	counsel	factor	hen	lawn	muscle
advice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
a place covered with grass	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
female chicken	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

36.

	abandon	dwell	oblige	pursue	quote	resolve
live in a place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
follow in order to catch	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
leave something permanently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

37.

	assemble	attach	peer	quit	scream	toss
look closely	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
stop doing something	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
cry out loudly in fear	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

38.

	drift	endure	grasp	knit	register	tumble
suffer patiently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
join wool threads together	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
hold firmly with your hands	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

39.

	analysis	curb	gravel	mortgage	scar	zeal
eagerness	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
loan to buy a house	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
small stones mixed with sand	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

40.

	concrete	era	fibre	loop	plank	summit
circular shape	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
top of a mountain	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
a long period of time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

41.

	circus	jungle	nomination	sermon	stool	trumpet
musical instrument	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
seat without a back or arms	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
speech given by a priest in a church	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

42.

	artillery	creed	hydrogen	maple	pork	streak
a kind of tree	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
system of belief	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
large gun on wheels	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

43.

	chart	forge	mansion	outfit	sample	volunteer
map	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
large beautiful house	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
place where metals are made and shaped	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

44.

	contemplate	extract	gamble	launch	provoke	revive
think about deeply	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
bring back to health	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
make someone angry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

45.

	demonstrate	embarrass	heave	obscure	relax	shatter
have a rest	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
break suddenly into small pieces	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
make someone feel shy or nervous	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

46.

	correspond	embroider	lurk	penetrate	prescribe	resent
exchange letters	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
hide and wait for someone	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
feel angry about something	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

47.

	decent	frail	harsh	incredible	municipal	specific
weak	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
concerning a city	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
difficult to believe	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

48.

	adequate	internal	mature	profound	solitary	tragic
enough	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
fully grown	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
alone away from other things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

CURRICULUM VITAE

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PLAGIARISM REPORT

THE IMPACT OF ONLINE INFORMAL LEARNING OF ENGLISH ON VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

ORJİNALLIK RAPORU

% 14	% 12	% 5	% 2
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2	hdl.handle.net İnternet Kaynağı	% 1
3	www.diva-portal.org İnternet Kaynağı	% 1
4	dspace.akdeniz.edu.tr:8080 İnternet Kaynağı	<% 1
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8	www.tandfonline.com İnternet Kaynağı	<% 1
9	Violeta Jurkovič. "Online informal learning of English through smartphones in Slovenia",	<% 1

BİLDİRİM

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05/07/2022

Seren ÖZGÜR