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Balázs Fajt

Extramural English Activities and Individual Learner Differences

A Case of Hungary

KÁROLI GÁSPÁR UNIVERSITY
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EE	extramural English
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
L1	first language
L2	second language
L3	third language
M	mean score
SD	standard deviation
SLA	second language acquisition
WTC	willingness to communicate

PREFACE

Widespread belief in past decades that leisure activities are a way to just pass the time, especially for children, has recently given way to much criticism. Now, discourse on these leisure activities – listening to music, watching films and TV series, playing video games, and using social media, such as Instagram or TikTok – seems to focus on their potential educational benefits, too. When it comes to listening to music, people have come to perceive it as a way to distance themselves from one another by putting on their headphones on public transport and tuning out their surroundings. In the case of films and TV series, "binge watching" has become popularly thought of as harming human relationships, disconnecting and siloing people from shared entertainment. Similarly, it is common to hear how video games turn children into aggressive and anti-social young adults. In the starkest example of recent social backlash to digital media, Instagram and TikTok have been dismissed as useless apps that alienate people from one another and that create no social value other than driving the gears of techno-capitalism. There is some truth in these statements. However, efforts to push back against the spread of digital and social media have only seemed to speed up the pace at which it spreads. Therefore, it is worth reading into how they can benefit us.

These leisure time activities are frequently pursued by an overwhelming majority of "gen Z" and young adults. If such activities are done in English (or any other foreign language), they may prove excellent resources for learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The opinion that it is impossible to learn English just from social media, TV series, and video games must be reexamined. One source of inspiration for this research comes from my own childhood when I learned many English words and phrases from playing video games with my friends. We had no choice but to somehow understand the menu of video games. In order to understand the gameplay and figure out what was going on, it was essential to know the language in ways we could not learn from entry-level textbooks. We had no idea even how to pronounce or use the words correctly, but we had a lot of vocabulary stuck in our heads that I still remember to this very day. Years later, I started learning English in secondary school, and after finishing my secondary school studies, I ended up majoring in English. I eventually became an English as a Foreign Language teacher and I have been teaching English ever since.

The present research, and thus this book, was ultimately inspired by my own example. I was able to expand both my English vocabulary and my desire to keep learning the language so that I could understand and keep diving deeper into the video games that I so enthusiastically played. Video games and other online leisure activities in English have a great potential to help others learn the language, too. In my own teaching experience, I have also found that the EFL learners who are more successful in the long term are those who regularly engage in different leisure time activities in English and have a "real" connection with the (authentic) language. We, EFL teachers, probably agree that no one has ever learned English solely from a coursebook. I hope that the present research can bring about a change of attitude in English as a Foreign Language learning and teaching in different educational contexts.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, research investigating second language acquisition has been classroom-centered; however, recently, there has been a growing interest and research in the fields of language pedagogy and applied linguistics in everything happening outside the classroom, too. One of the reasons is that owing to English language media (films, series, songs, video games, news, etc.) becoming widely accessible to a wider audience, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners can now be exposed to the English language outside the classroom as well, thus they are surrounded by a wide array of authentic content without having to travel or relocate to a target language country. What is more, as Sundqvist and Olin-Scheller (2013) underscore, young learners and thus teenagers are prosumers (both producers and consumers) of L2, usually English language content (Lam 2000, Thorne et al. 2009, Yi 2008). This prosumer phenomenon means that learners are often required to compose texts, consume content, and communicate with others in their digital environment. This communication often occurs through the English language. As a result, leisure time activities may be closely associated with a possible L2 development (Sundqvist 2009) and, therefore, may be considered an important resource for EFL learning and teaching, which also necessitates the investigation of learners' leisure time interests.

Research in different countries and regions, such as Scandinavia (Piirainen-Marsh–Tainio 2009, Simensen 2010, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2016), Belgium (Kuppens 2010), Germany (Grau 2009), and Hungary (Józsa–Imre 2013) has shown that there is a positive relationship between primary and secondary school students' L2 English proficiency and their English out-of-school activities, or in other words *extramural English activities* (henceforth EE activities).

In addition, as learners mainly but not exclusively engage in EE activities for entertainment, EE activities may also be closely associated with L2 learning motivation as learners may develop a positive attitude towards the English language and wish to make more effort to acquire it. Since individual learner differences, such as L2 learning motivation, play a crucial role in second language acquisition and determine the ultimate success of L2 acquisition (Dörnyei 2005), there is a great deal of research (e.g., Dörnyei 2005, Dörnyei–Ryan 2015, Mercer et al. 2012, Pawlak 2012) on the relationship between classroom-based

L2 learning and other individual learner differences. Even though previous research has found that in the short run, classroom-based L2 learning may prove more effective than out-of-school L2 learning contexts (Norris–Ortega 2000, Spada–Tomita 2010), extramural L2 learning may provide learners with L2 learning opportunities in the long run, too. Nevertheless, the impact of out-of-school (extramural) contexts on individual learner differences is a relatively under-researched field within second language acquisition, let alone in the Hungarian context (for an exception, see Lajtai, 2020).

A large-scale, nationwide survey by Öveges and Csizér (2018) in Hungary investigated Hungarian secondary school foreign language teachers' perceptions of Hungarian secondary school students' foreign language learning motivation and compared these results with Hungarian secondary school students' self-reported foreign language learning motivation. The results of this major large-scale study show that secondary school students' (self-reported) motivation (M=3.84 on a 5-point Likert scale) was higher than their foreign language learning motivation perceived by foreign language teachers (M=3.46 on a 5-point Likert scale). It also becomes apparent from the data that most students engage in EE activities (M=3.71 on a 5-point Likert scale). The study, however, as it was not the main aim of it, does not investigate whether there is a connection between engagement in EE and foreign language learning motivation and whether the former may impact the latter.

As Lajtai (2020) points out, the contradiction between teachers' and students' answers may result from students' attitudes towards classroom-based foreign language learning. Based on this, it is hypothesized that the discrepancy between students' and teachers' perceptions lies in the different foreign language contexts, as classroom-based instruction may be less interesting for learners than the English they encounter outside school, which Henry (2013) calls the *authenticity gap*.

The rationale, therefore, in carrying out this research project is to fill this niche in the literature and investigate Hungarian secondary school students' extramural interests and the potential impact of these activities on students' individual learner differences. In light of these objectives, this book may be considered relatively unique in the Hungarian context, as recent research investigating the niche outlined above is virtually nonexistent. Accordingly, the outcomes of this research project may contribute to a better understanding of Hungarian secondary school students' extramural interests and individual learner differences.

This book consists of 7 chapters. Chapter 1 presents the background of the research along with the research gap the present research project attempts to fill. The aim of Chapter 2 is to first explain the use of the main term *extramural English activities* in this research project, and to describe the meaning of

extramural English activities in the scope of the present research project and how it is possible to learn an L2 by engaging in EE activities. Consequently, as learners usually pursue these activities without any external obligation and EFL teachers, the kind of EFL learning taking place by doing them requires a certain degree of learner autonomy; therefore, the notion of learner autonomy is also addressed. This is followed by an overview on how it is possible to learn English almost unknowingly from extramural English activities, which includes a detailed overview of the relevant second language acquisition theories of (un) conscious L2 acquisition. In addition, as learners' engagement in extramural English activities occurs for the sake of the learners' own entertainment, the kind of EFL learning taking place when doing extramural English activities involves L2 learning motivation (or the lack thereof), too, because learners may (or may not) feel more motivated to learn English in order to be able to understand content in the English language more easily. Besides, as extramural English activities provide a relatively stress-free environment, as opposed to the EFL classroom, the lack of teacher correction and grading may result in a decreased level of L2 anxiety and an increased level of L2 willingness to communicate (WTC). As a result, individual learner differences, such as L2 learning motivation and two related other variables, namely L2 anxiety and L2 willingness to communicate, are discussed in more detail. In the case of these individual learner differences, L2 anxiety and L2 WTC were also chosen to be part of this research because, as previous research shows, these latter two variables correlate negatively (Teimouri et al. 2019, Zhang 2019) and positively (Hashimoto 2002, MacIntyre et al. 2001, Peng 2007, Peng–Woodrow 2010, Yashima 2002), respectively, with L2 learning motivation. What is more, L2 anxiety and L2 WTC were found to correlate with each other negatively, too (Chu 2008, MacIntyre 1999, MacIntyre et al. 1999, Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. 1991, Yildiz–Piniel 2020); therefore, it may be concluded that these three individual learner variables are closely-related and may play an important role in describing Hungarian secondary school students' L2 learning motivation in the extramural context, too.

Chapter 3 presents a detailed description of the research methods of this research project. This chapter elucidates why the so-called mixed methodology is adopted and how the different research methods are mixed. First and foremost, to map the extramural interest of Hungarian secondary school students, a previously unknown domain, at the beginning of the project, qualitative methods were required. Based on the qualitative results, students' extramural interests and individual learner differences are investigated in two additional quantitative questionnaire studies. The questionnaire method was adopted because it provides an opportunity to run both descriptive and inferential statistical methods and allows for pointing out general trends. In

addition, quality assurance and ethical considerations are elucidated in Chapter 3.

Then, Chapters 4, 5, and 6 present three studies conducted during the research. In each case, first the research questions, then the participants, and finally the research instrument are introduced, and only then are the methods of data collection and data analysis discussed. This is followed by the presentation of the results and discussion of each study.

Finally, Chapter 7 summarizes the main results of the present research project; additionally, the pedagogical implications and potential future research areas are also elaborated on. The end of the book discusses the limitations of the research.

Chapter 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

There are several major issues in second language acquisition (SLA), and two key issues are: what external conditions to which learners are exposed aid in L2 learning (Norris–Ortega 2000, Spada–Tomita 2010) and how these conditions interact with individual differences in learners (Dörnyei 2005). The former issue is centered on second language input conditions and the effect of these conditions on the second language learning process. One of these conditions is the explicit context (e.g., classroom), where learners are exposed to explicit grammatical rules or equivalents of vocabulary items of a given second language. On the other hand, in the implicit, extramural context, learners are exposed to L2 input, but there is a lack of exposure to explicit grammatical rules or vocabulary explanations. The second issue – the interaction of individual learner differences with the implicit and explicit contexts – focuses on individual learner differences in a classroom setting and in the extramural context.

As for the first issue, previous research has found that explicit teaching contexts are more effective in the short run than implicit learning contexts (Norris–Ortega 2000, Spada–Tomita 2010). Nevertheless, Grey et al. (2015) point out that these findings are not surprising as explicit conditions normally yield more comprehensible L2 input than implicit conditions (Ellis et al. 2009, Norris–Ortega 2000, Sanz 2005), i.e., in a classroom, L2 learners may be exposed to comprehensible input, a kind of input which is relatively close to and is only somewhat above the current level of proficiency of the learner (Krashen 1982, 2009) more frequently than in a non-classroom setting. It is important to underline, however, that this may create the somewhat misguided belief that implicit exposure conditions are less important. On the contrary, implicit exposure conditions, such as EE activities where learners can encounter a particular L2, English in this case, are equally important because they provide meaningful contextualized opportunities for encountering the given L2. Consequently, for effective L2 learning, implicit and explicit exposure contexts should be combined (Nunan–Richards 2015, Richards 2015). It is equally important, therefore, to investigate how second language acquisition takes place in the extramural L2 learning context.

As for the second issue, little research investigates learners' individual learner differences in the implicit, extramural context (for an exception, see

Lajtai, 2020). As the sense of enjoyment is an important aspect of EE activities, learners tend to derive satisfaction from the engagement in EE activities (Arnold 2009, Chik–Breidbach 2011, Lamb 2004, Purushotma 2005); therefore, as previously explained, L2 learning motivation and motivated language learning behavior are important aspects of extramural English activities. Not only L2 learning motivation, however, but also additional closely related components of motivation, such as L2 anxiety, cultural interest, friendship orientation, and intercultural contact, perceived importance of the English language, and willingness to communicate in an L2 are variables to have a potential impact on learners' L2 learning motivation in the extramural context.

The main aim of this chapter is to elaborate on the extramural context of L2 learning through EE activities. In the first part of this chapter, the underlying term *extramural English activities* used within the scope of this research project is defined, and then the context of language learning through EE activities is introduced. First, as EE activities are pursued in learners' leisure time after school, it is important to address how this may occur, i.e., how such activities may contribute to L2 development. As no formal instruction (e.g., school) is involved in these activities, such engagement certainly involves learner autonomy, too, as learners are – to some extent – required to take control of their own learning. Consequently, the role of learner autonomy in learning through EE activities is also discussed in this chapter. Then, an overview of *how* learning through EE activities (e.g., mainly incidental learning) may occur is described; therefore, the second language acquisition processes involved in learning through EE activities are discussed. Then, because engagement in EE activities mainly but not exclusively happens for entertainment purposes, L2 learning motivation and its closely related individual learner variables are also elaborated on. Finally, previous research on the benefits of EE activities is presented.

2.1 Extramural English (EE) activities

The term *extramural English* (EE) was first introduced by Sundqvist (2009). From an etymological point of view, the word *extramural* is an adjectival compound where *extra* means *outside* and *mural* means *wall*; thus, the term literally translates as *outside the walls of something*. Hence, *extramural English* means *English outside the walls*, where the walls refer to the walls of EFL classrooms and educational institutions, mostly schools. In this book, therefore, extramural English refers to all situations and activities where learners encounter and come in contact with the English language outside the classroom and school.

The term *extramural English* (EE) activities may be similar to the term *extracurricular English* activities. Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016: 221) defined extracurricular activities as activities where learning occurs "in the pursuit of reaching higher levels of L2 proficiency", usually connected to an educational setting, for example, English-language film clubs, or different games or activities organized by the school which a learner attends, where the emphasis is placed on language learning or teaching. On the other hand, activities where learners encounter the English language outside of an educational institution, and teaching or learning is not emphasized, are categorized as EE activities. These terms and their attributes are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1. An overview of the concepts of extracurricular activities and extramural activities

	Extracurricular Activities	**Extramural Activities**
Part of formal education	yes	no
Initiated by the teacher	yes	no
Purpose	pleasure / learning	pleasure / learning
Consciousness	yes	yes / no

As Table 1 shows, both types of activities may be pursued for seeking pleasure as well as for learning purposes. The fundamental difference between them lies in whether they are initiated by the learner themselves or the learner's teacher, and whether the particular activity takes place within the framework of formal education or not. Finally, in the case of extracurricular activities, learners are most likely to be well aware of the language learning purposes of the event or program; their attendance and engagement in said activities are normally consciously planned. In contrast, the pursuit of EE activities may be solely for entertainment purposes, yet learners may consciously decide to engage in EE activities to improve their general foreign language proficiency. Involvement in either extracurricular or extramural or even both types of English activities may accelerate the second language learning speed (Nunan–Richards 2015). Moreover, such activities may also promote the functional practice of a particular L2 (Bialystok 1981) when learners can learn an L2 by using it, which is an important aspect of the language learning process.

2.2 The context of second language acquisition through EE activities

Even though there is a positive relationship between learners' L2 proficiency and their engagement in EE activities (Grau 2009, Józsa–Imre 2013, Kuppens 2010, Piirainen-Marsh–Tainio 2009, Simensen 2010, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2016), the context of how second language acquisition may take place through them still requires elaboration. The aim of this and subsequent sections is to shed light on these contextual aspects of EFL learning through EE activities, which may involve learners' conscious choice (or the lack thereof) of taking charge of their own L2 learning when engaging in EE activities. Thus, the role of learner autonomy in the extramural L2 learning context is discussed first, followed by a discussion of the different conscious or unconscious SLA processes involved in learning English through EE activities.

2.2.1 Learner autonomy and extramural English activities

Since the emergence of the term of *learner autonomy* in the 1980s, scholars have defined *autonomy* in several ways. One of the most widely cited definitions of learner autonomy is that of Holec (1981: 3), which defines autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". In the literature on learner autonomy, Holec's (1981) original definition has been considered as a basis for the discourse on learner autonomy (Benson 2011b, Benson–Voller 1997, Nunan 2003) and even relatively recently, Benson (2011c: 16) refers to Holec's definition and concurs that "on the basic definition of learner autonomy, there has been a remarkable degree of consensus around the idea that autonomy involves learners taking more control over their learning." Similarly, Littlewood (1996) claims that learner autonomy is the ability and willingness to learn, i.e., learners' capability of making conscious decisions on setting goals, making plans on further language learning progression, choosing what materials and methods to adopt, and monitoring and evaluating their own learning process. This definition does not exclude teacher-led classroom instruction from the learning process; it simply means that learners are willing to consciously take charge of their own learning by avoiding overreliance upon their course instructor or teacher. Krashen (2006: 2) also claims that an *autonomous language acquirer* is someone who has an understanding of how language is acquired and "is able to get the input necessary for language acquisition, whether formal programs are available or not." In his interpretation, language teachers and language courses should not exclusively aim to develop proficient L2 speakers. Instead, they should support learners in becoming competent users who understand how a certain L2 works, what the governing

rules of it are, and how it is possible to further acquire it once a given foreign language course is over as then there will be no teacher who can provide help to the learner.

Besides traditional classroom research investigating EFL learning in EFL classes, a growing body of literature discusses foreign language teaching and learning beyond the classroom (Benson 2011b, Benson–Reinders 2011, Murray 2017, Nunan–Richards 2015, Reinders–Benson 2017, Richards 2015). Benson (2011a, 2011b) uses the term *out-of-class learning* when referring to activities with no direct relationship to an educational institution. Benson (2011b: 139) also adds that out-of-school learning is "typically initiated by the learner, makes use of authentic resources, and involves pleasure and interest, as well as language learning." This aligns with the definition of extramural activities by Sundqvist (2009). Moreover, according to Benson (2001: 69), out-of-school learning refers to "any kind of learning that takes place outside the classroom and involves self-instruction, naturalistic learning or self-directed naturalistic learning." These types of learning are adopted by Sundqvist (2009), who claims that learning through extramural English activities may involve any of these types of learning. Therefore, the next sections define these terms, more specifically self-instruction, naturalistic learning and self-directed naturalistic learning and their relationship with extramural English activities.

2.2.1.1 Self-instruction

The first type of out-of-class learning is self-instruction. According to Jones (1998: 378), self-instruction is "a deliberate long-term learning project instigated, planned, and carried out by the learner alone, without teacher intervention." Self-instruction in L2 learning, therefore, means that learners deliberately and knowingly decide to improve their L2 skills by exploiting and making use of various resources. These resources may be designed specifically for self-instruction, but learners can also use coursebooks originally designed for classroom use.

Self-instruction may be divided into a strong and a weak form (Dickinson 1987). The former posits that learners study alone with no or only little contact with teachers. In contrast, the latter holds that self-instruction may be episodic, i.e., it occurs periodically and can take place in a classroom setting as well as outside the classroom. Such episodic instances of self-instruction may include watching a tutorial video on the Internet at home on how to use a certain grammatical structure or even doing homework set by the teacher of the given learner. Graham et al. (1992) claim that self-instruction requires the learner to internalize the self-instructional process, which means that during formal instruction, teachers should continuously have their students

encounter opportunities to exploit self-instruction; as autonomous learning, to some extent, involves the ability and willingness to engage in the weaker form of self-instruction.

2.2.1.2 Naturalistic language learning

The second category in Benson's (2001) classification is naturalistic language learning, which takes place through "direct communication with users of the target language" (Benson 2011b: 77). The term *naturalistic* is used because this kind of learning imitates how children naturally acquire their L1 through communication and constant feedback. Communication in this respect would require mutuality and at least two real-time parties; however, offline single-player video games in the target language offer opportunities for learners to come into contact with a given L2, and here, there are no "real" L2 users, even though there may be "communication" or at least interaction, to some extent, between the parties involved. In contrast, films in the L2 of a learner provide stimulus. However, there is only one-way communication. That is, the learner or viewer watches and receives information but obviously there is no interaction between the learner and the movie. Benson (2011b: 78) therefore points out that "it could also be extended to situations in which learning takes place mainly through interaction with target language texts." The notion that naturalistic learning is of key significance for successful foreign language acquisition is supported by Krashen (1982), who holds that interaction with speakers of an L2 offers access to comprehensible L2 input, which is an important component of language acquisition as it can facilitate it by extending learners' L2 knowledge.

2.2.1.3 Self-directed naturalistic language learning

The third category of out-of-class language learning is self-directed naturalistic language learning, which is a blend of self-instruction and naturalistic language learning. Tekkol and Demirel (2018) refer to Knowles (1975: 2) when he defines self-directed learning as the

> [I]ndividuals' ability to taking initiative to identify their own learning needs, their ability to determine their learning goals, their ability to define the sources they need in order to learn, their ability to choose/use appropriate learning strategies and evaluate learning outcomes with or without help from an outsider.

This means that learners plan, carry out and evaluate their own learning process as well as learning experiences (Merriam et al. 2007). Naturalistic

self-directed learning, on the other hand, occurs when "the learner engages in language use for pleasure or interest, but also with the broader intention of learning" (Benson 2011b: 139). In this kind of learning, learners knowingly pursue opportunities for L2 exposure with the intention of learning from them. Similarly, Lee (2019b) connected digital environments with naturalistic self-directed learning and claimed that EE activities might enable learners to acquire L2 linguistic elements from them. This is also emphasized by Boyer and Usinger (2015) and Grover (2015), who claim that control and active involvement from the learner is a prerequisite for this type of learning.

However, it is important to emphasize that Benson's (2011b) three concepts of autonomous learning, namely self-instruction, naturalistic learning, and self-directed naturalistic language learning, are all incorporated in the term extramural activities. Self-instruction occurs when the learner wishes to learn, naturalistic learning may occur without the learner's conscious attention, and self-directed naturalistic learning, the combination of the former two, may occur when a learner consciously engages in EE activities with hopes of learning English. Consequently, extramural activities serve as an umbrella term for all activities taking place outside the classroom and independent of a classroom setting where learners are exposed to a particular L2.

All in all, these three types of learning may involve a certain degree of intention and consciousness (or a lack thereof) from the learner's perspective, so the following section aims to investigate the role of intention and consciousness in the foreign language processes when learning through EE activities.

2.2.2 Learning processes in SLA through extramural English activities

Conscious and unconscious language learning has been a long-debated issue in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). Krashen (1982) argued that these were separate processes, thus the two learning processes are distinct, and the knowledge gained through them results in conscious and unconscious knowledge. Krashen (1982) calls the conscious learning process *learning* and the unconscious learning process *acquisition*. The former involves explicit, formal instruction, while the latter resembles the way children acquire their first language (L1), i.e., implicitly, with no formal instruction involved. However, it is difficult to test Krashen's (1982) acquisition vs learning hypothesis. For instance, Ellis and Shintani (2014: 176) point out that Krashen's theory "no longer figures in current thinking in SLA" because attention to linguistic form is needed even in incidental and implicit learning. In this book, therefore, similarly to most researchers in the field, I use the terms *learning* and *acquisition* interchangeably because the fundamental difference between conscious

and unconscious language learning is a more complex phenomenon and cannot be captured solely through the learning vs acquisition dichotomy. Additionally, several further issues should be considered, such as noticing and the role of awareness as well as intention, which are more suitable to better capture the essence of the learning processes taking place in second language acquisition through EE activities.

Krashen (1982) also claimed that explicit language teaching and metalinguistic awareness have a negligible impact on the success of second language acquisition. Most researchers in the field now agree that the opposite is true and that explicit language teaching, as well as a higher level of metalinguistic awareness, largely contribute to the success of second language acquisition (Alanen 1995, Brooks–Kempe 2013, DeKeyser 1995, Hama–Leow 2010, Leow 1997, 2001, Rebuschat–Williams 2012, Rosa–Leow 2004, Rosa–O'Neill 1999). Even though there is consensus among researchers that awareness is important, there is still debate concerning the extent of its significance in the implicit and explicit processes in their impact on language acquisition (Hama–Leow 2010, Leow 2015a, 2015b, Williams 2005). Recent research in the field, therefore, focuses on two major dimensions characterizing the learning process (Reinders–Benson 2017: 563):

1. *intention*, i.e., whether learning in extramural English contexts is *intentional* (with learners' attention focused on language learning) or *incidental* (with learners' attention focused elsewhere and language learning as a by-product) (DeKeyser 2008);
2. *consciousness*, i.e., whether learning in extramural English contexts is *explicit* (adding to the learner's conscious knowledge) or *implicit* (adding to abilities or skills that lie below the level of conscious awareness) (Ellis 2008).

The following sections aim to provide an overview of the concepts highlighted by Reinders and Benson (2017). First, the role of intention in learning through extramural English activities is discussed, followed by an overview of explicit and implicit learning theories.

2.2.2.1 The role of intention in SLA: incidental and intentional learning

According to DeKeyser (2008), intention to learn an L2 is a key factor in second language acquisition. Learners may decide to learn certain grammatical rules and vocabulary or they simply acquire them unknowingly, i.e., foreign language acquisition may occur through intentional or incidental learning. The Incidental Learning Hypothesis holds that learners may acquire new linguistic forms

without the intention of learning. Schmidt (1990) posits that incidental learning occurs only as the by-product of communication or engagement in any activity where the main goal is not language learning. Consequently, it is possible for learners to unknowingly acquire L2 forms, mainly but not only vocabulary items, through exposure to L2 input. In contrast, intentional learning occurs when a learner decides to learn the vocabulary or the grammar of an L2. In the case of the English language, extramural English activities may serve the purpose of providing learners with such input. In contrast, in a classroom context, learners usually do tasks with the intention of learning the vocabulary or the grammar of the given L2, which is called intentional learning.

Incidental learning, however, is not restricted to extramural contexts, just as intentional learning is not restricted to classroom learning, either. Schmidt (1994) posited that incidental learning may occur in class, too, when learners, for instance, learn about a certain grammatical structure or do a reading comprehension task in a coursebook and their attention is centered on one phenomenon, be they vocabulary items or grammatical structures, but simultaneously, they acquire another linguistic form on which their attention was not originally focused. An example of this would be a reading comprehension text with specific vocabulary items, such as environmental protection, where the main intentional goal of the learning, or in this case reading, process is to learn related vocabulary items. Nevertheless, learners may incidentally pay attention to other vocabulary items unrelated to environmental protection and may infer the meaning of the item from the context.

Furthermore, incidental learning may happen with or without consciousness, depending on the extent to which the learner's attention is allocated to the given L2 forms (Ellis–Shintani 2014). Incidental learning, in this respect, basically does not involve consciousness, but "impromptu conscious attention to some features of the L2" may also take place (Loewen et al. 2009: 263). Ellis and Shintani (2014: 174) emphasize that even though it would be logical to assume that incidental learning, by nature, is an unconscious or subconscious process, they point out that "allocating primary attention to one feature or to comprehending the input does not preclude the possibility of peripheral attention being paid to some other linguistic feature," which means that intentional and incidental learning both require at least a certain degree of consciousness.

2.2.2.2 The role of consciousness in SLA: implicit and explicit learning

There is an ongoing debate in SLA about the possibility of learning without any consciousness at all (Ellis 2008). When taking consciousness into account, Nick Ellis (1994) distinguishes between two ways of second language learning;

based on this distinction, he formed the implicit and the explicit learning hypotheses. He claims that implicit learning hypothesis "would hold that the meaning of a new word is acquired totally unconsciously as a result of abstraction from repeated exposures in a range of activated contexts" (N. Ellis 1994: 219). So, in the case of implicit learning, learners are not aware that learning has taken place and, for this reason, cannot verbalize what they have learned and how they have learned it. In contrast, explicit learning refers to the kind of learning which takes place consciously, i.e., the learner is aware of the fact that they are learning and is able to verbalize what linguistic element they have learned and how.

The distinction between implicit learning (and knowledge) and explicit learning (and knowledge) is explained by the *interface issue* (Ellis 2009). The interface issue aims to determine to what extent and how implicit and explicit knowledge are related; how explicit knowledge becomes and facilitates the acquisition of implicit knowledge if it does at all; and finally, to what extent explicit instruction facilitates the acquisition of implicit and explicit knowledge. There have been three propositions for finding answers to these problems (Ellis 2009): the non-interface position, the strong interface position and the weak interface position.

The non-interface position is based on research findings showing the different inquisitional mechanisms taking place when acquiring implicit and explicit knowledge in a second language (Hulstijn 2002, Krashen 1982). Research shows that these different types of knowledge are stored in different parts of the brain (Paradis 2009), and are retrieved through different processes, suggesting that they may be retrieved automatically or in a controlled manner (Ellis 1993). The non-interface position, therefore, holds that explicit knowledge cannot be directly turned into implicit knowledge, and implicit knowledge cannot be turned into explicit knowledge either. Based on this notion, in communicative language teaching, for instance, fluency was preferred over accuracy because, based on the non-interface position, it was assumed that knowledge learned implicitly, rather than explicitly, can contribute to general fluency more (Krashen 1982), i.e., explicitly acquiring the grammatical rules of an L2 can never result in a learner being able to communicate fluently without spending an excessive amount of time finding the correct grammatical structures to be able to express themselves. Therefore, content-based and L2 immersion programs emphasized fluency rather than accuracy in the given L2 (Harley–Swain 1984, Swain 1985), as explicit grammatical rules were considered less important. In the extramural English context, however, extramural English activities may provide a great deal of input, similar to L2 immersion programs where learners are exposed to a particular L2 excessively with hopes of acquiring as much of it as possible. Here, even if a learner acquires

implicit knowledge, it can only be transformed into explicit knowledge through conscious reflection on one's implicit knowledge.

The main argument against the non-interface position was the overemphasis on fluency, as even though learners in immersion programs are exposed to a plethora of L2 input which enables them to improve their fluency, accuracy is also of great importance when it comes to communication because learners also need to produce comprehensible output, which ultimately requires a certain degree of accuracy (Swain 1985). Furthermore, Schmidt (2001), in his *noticing* hypothesis, underlined the role of attention to form in SLA and claimed that "SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and what they understand of the significance of the noticed input to be" (Schmidt 2001: 3–4). This is one of the reasons the non-interface position is no longer supported by most researchers, as attention plays a significant role in second language acquisition.

As opposed to the non-interface position, the *strong interface position* holds that explicit knowledge can be derived from implicit knowledge and can also be turned into implicit knowledge (Ellis 2009). Ellis explains this by pointing out that

> [l]earners can first learn a rule as a declarative fact and, then, by dint of practising the use of this rule, can convert it into an implicit representation, although this need not entail (initially, at least) the loss of the original explicit representation. (Ellis 2009: 21)

The strong interface position – as opposed to the weak interface position – also intends to develop conscious knowledge of L2, which means that the different linguistic forms should be learned and, more importantly, taught explicitly (Schwartz 1993). This position assumes that there is direct interaction between explicit and implicit learning and thus between implicit and explicit knowledge, too, and L2 learning takes place through a conscious and explicit focus on L2 linguistic forms. The strong interface position promotes the so-called PPP (present–practice–produce) method, where 1) the targeted structure is *presented* through explicit instruction, then 2) the structure is *practiced* by the learners, and this is followed by 3) the *producing* stage of the structure, when learners can put their knowledge into practice (cf. Hedge 2000, Ur 1996). Proponents of this position claim that through practice and drills, successful learning may be achieved (DeKeyser 1998). However, similarly to the non-interface position, the strong interface position has also received criticism over the years, mainly because of its strong emphasis on form and giving little room for fluency. As for extramural English activities, this position is not necessarily a viable option, as this position assumes formal instruction, which is not necessarily involved when learning L2 through EE activities.

The weak interface position, however, offers a compromise between the two extremes. It holds that there is a *possibility* of explicit knowledge becoming implicit (Ellis 2009: 207) and that "explicit knowledge facilitates the development of implicit knowledge through promoting other processes (e.g., noticing) that aid acquisition." According to Schmidt (1993, 1995, 2001), noticing helps learners spot certain linguistic features they can acquire. Nassaji (2017) points out that the significance of the interface position lies in the fact that it raises learners' awareness by channeling their attention to linguistic elements "in meaning-focused contexts." In the case of EE activities, for instance, it is not necessarily enough to be exposed to the given L2, but a certain degree of noticing is required for the input to become intake, even if it occurs implicitly, i.e., if a certain linguistic element is not noticed, it is not likely to be registered by the learner. This is what Gass (1988) calls *noticing the gap*: when learners compare and contrast the L2 linguistic feature in the input with their existing knowledge. In this respect, both form and meaning are simultaneously attended to, by which criticism of the non-interface and the strong interface position is tackled as the weak interface position does not overemphasize neither the importance of meaning nor form; it claims that both are equally important.

Implicit learning and incidental learning are closely related concepts and may indeed seem, at first glance, to describe the same process. However, it is vital to distinguish between the two as they address different dimensions of learning, and though there may be a significant overlap between them, this overlap is incomplete. Hulstijn (2003: 360) points out that incidental learning and implicit learning are not synonyms, as the latter "entails more than what is meant by incidental learning." Therefore, it is important to address this terminological issue and distinguish between incidental and implicit learning.

2.2.2.3 Distinguishing between incidental/intentional and implicit/explicit learning

When determining and identifying the kind of learning taking place when engaging in EE activities, intentional and incidental learning, as well as explicit and implicit learning, may be taken into consideration. Ellis (2009) claims that intentional and explicit learning and incidental and implicit learning are similar concepts. On the one hand, in the case of both intentional and explicit learning, there is an attempt of the learner to "understand" what is to be acquired. On the other hand, incidental and implicit learning "both involve the absence of intentionality (Ellis 2009: 263). However, researchers such as Hulstijn (2003) and Dörnyei (2009b) defined incidental learning through testing. In their interpretation, incidental learning occurs when learners do not

know that there is an upcoming posttest measuring how much they have learned from a certain activity. Were they to know that there would be an upcoming posttest, they might channel their attention to certain linguistic elements and simply alter their "natural behavior" as they wish to achieve better scores on the upcoming test. This certainly does not happen in the pursuit of EE activities.

Ellis (2009), with reference to testing, offers a compromise on how these concepts can be distinguished. He suggests that they should be separated based on how they can be investigated methodologically, i.e., what methods teachers or researchers may use when exploiting and measuring these types of learning. Table 2 provides a visual illustration of the different types.

Table 2. Typical tasks for investigating the four types of learning

Approach	**Typical task**
Incidental learning	(1) learners are given a task but not told that they will be tested later (2) they are given a task that focuses their attention on one aspect of the L2 and, without being warned, tested on some other aspect of the task (e.g., they are taught a specific grammatical feature and then tested on whether they have learned a different grammatical feature which they were exposed to but not taught)
Intentional learning	(1) learners are given a task and are told that they will be tested afterwards and then tested on the task as set
Implicit learning	(1) learners are simply exposed to input data, asked to process it for meaning and then tested (without warning) to examine what they have learned (e.g., they are exposed to input that contains plentiful exemplars of a particular grammatical feature but do not have their attention focused on this feature)
Explicit learning	(1) learners are either given an explicit rule relating to a specific feature which they can apply later in practice activities (deductive explicit learning) or (2) learners are asked to find an explicit rule from the data provided (inductive explicit learning)

(adapted from Ellis 2009: 264)

Ortega (2009: 94) claims that "it is unanimously agreed in SLA that incidental learning is possible," which means that acquiring linguistic elements from EE activities is possible. Completely implicit learning, however, as it was pointed out with reference to the Interface Issue, may not occur at all, as a certain degree of attention is needed for learning to take place. Consequently, incidental learning is used in the present research project when describing the kind of learning through which learning through EE may take place. In the

scope of the present research project, it is defined, based on Ellis (2009) and Schmidt (1994), as a kind of learning which occurs as a by-product of engaging in another activity, in this case, a particular EE activity, and involves at least a certain degree of consciousness. On the other hand, intentional learning is also possible when engaging in EE activities, as learners may knowingly decide to engage in such activities to acquire English. Explicit learning, however, is less likely to occur in this context as it often involves teacher-led instruction, and EE activities are initiated by the learners, not their teachers.

2.3 EE activities and second language learning motivation

It is important to highlight again that teenagers (and even adults) engage in EE activities for the purpose of being entertained or for the sake of pursuing a pastime activity; therefore, even though it is not excluded, when engaging in EE activities, learners place less emphasis on learning English than deriving satisfaction from these activities (Sundqvist, 2009). They spend hours watching their favorite TV series, such as *Game of Thrones*, or playing their favorite video games, such as *World of Warcraft*, where incidentally or intentionally, in a naturalistic environment, they learn English.

As explained earlier, Henry (2013) points out that, as opposed to a classroom setting, extramural English activities provide more authentic and more interesting English content than the English encountered in a classroom, which Henry (2013) refers to as the *authenticity gap*. Learners will find the English encountered outside the classroom (cf. extramural English) more interesting and relatable than the English used inside a classroom, and, as previously underlined, this kind of engagement does not primarily happen for the purpose of language learning. As a consequence, learners may feel more motivated to learn English due to heavy engagement in extramural English activities, as they realize their understanding of a series or video game, or the news, etc., especially, when there is no translation of them into the L1 of the learners. Learners' degree of enjoyment is highly dependent on their L2 competence, which may ultimately result in their being more motivated to learn English, i.e., the more proficient they are, the more motivated they may be to learn English. Moreover, as explained previously, extensive exposure to L2 is a key factor in incidental (and even intentional) learning, and EE activities create and cater to this naturalistic learning environment.

The positive effect of EE activities on motivation has been demonstrated by an extensive body of research in the case of, for instance, reading (Al-Homoud–Schmitt 2009, Feld-Knapp–Perge 2019, Kim–Hwang 2006), video games (Dickey 2011, Gee 2007, Molins-Ruano et al. 2014, Schrader et al. 2010, Van

Eck 2009), films (Lin 2002, Seferoğlu 2008), and listening to music (Chou 2014, Macancela et al. 2016, Tegge 2018). However, empirical research (cf. Lajtai 2020) investigating the impact of EE activities on learners' L2 learning motivation in the Hungarian context is scarce.

The aim of this and the subsequent sections is to provide an overview of Dörnyei's (2005) second language motivational theory, namely the Motivational Self System Theory, which was chosen as the main motivational theoretical framework for this research. The reason for choosing this theory lies in the fact that it is one of the most cited L2 motivational theories and has been empirically validated by several researchers in several contexts, including the Hungarian one; therefore, it was found to be adequately describing the L2 learning motivation of Hungarian secondary school students.

Following this, the second part of Section 2.3 presents some of the further key predictors of L2 motivation, such as L2 anxiety, L2 willingness to communicate, cultural interests, intercultural orientation, perceived importance of the English language, which are believed to have an impact on learners' motivation in the context of extramural activities. Finally, several studies addressing the impact of these components on motivation in the context of EE activities are also presented.

2.3.1 Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System

In the field of applied linguistics and Second Language Acquisition, second language motivation (L2 motivation) was first characterized by the work of Lambert and Gardner and their associates in the early '70s. In their research, Gardner and Lambert (1972) examined the Canadian social situation, where two major communities live together, namely the Anglophone-speaking English and the Francophone-speaking French. They investigated the motivations of the members of these communities to learn one another's L1. Henry (2012) asserts that Gardner's subsequent research led to the realization that interest in the other community's L1 and positive attitudes to the other community indicated one's strong desire to be part of the other community, which Gardner (1985) called *integrative motivation*. However, there is another, utilitarian dimension associated with Gardner's (1985) theory, in which motivation to learn the other community's L1 is centered around the benefits that speaking a language may ensure for an individual (a better job or position, a better salary, etc.), which is called *instrumental motivation*.

The importance of the English language is continuously growing due to globalization processes, which results in the English language becoming a required skill (Ushioda–Dörnyei 2017) in the labor market and in everyday

life, too. This increased importance ultimately leads both to a shift from a foreign language status of English to a second language status (Graddol 2006) and to English becoming a global lingua franca. As a consequence, with the emergence of English as a global lingua franca around the millennium, a number of researchers (Coetzee-Van Rooy 2006, Dörnyei et al. 2006, Irie 2003, Lamb 2004, Ushioda 2006, Warden–Lin 2000, Yashima 2000) started to question Gardner's original theory and claimed that it may be applicable to a specific context (e.g., Canada), but it cannot necessarily be universally transferred to other contexts. This is particularly true for the English language, which, as a global lingua franca, has no specific language community into which a learner could integrate.

As a response to this, Dörnyei (2005) developed his L2 Motivational Self System, which draws on Markus and Nurius' (1986) Possible Selves Theory and Higgins' (1996) Self-discrepancy Theory. Dörnyei's (2005) theory is centered on students' learning behavior and how this behavior is affected by three dimensions, namely the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self, and the L2 Learning Experience. The next sections, therefore, introduce the three dimensions of the theory.

2.3.1.1 The Ideal L2 Self

Dörnyei (2005: 106) defines the Ideal L2 Self as "the L2-specific aspect of one's ideal self", which refers to the ideal future image of the learner about themselves. Papi (2010) points out that if someone wishes to be a competent and fluent L2 user who is able to hold a conversation with their friends in the particular L2, this person creates this image in themselves. This self-perceived image could serve as a strong motivator to achieve their goals, which is to "reduce the discrepancy between the here-and-now or actual self and this ideal image" (Papi 2010: 468–469), i.e., since the learner is not yet as competent a speaker as they wish to be, the desire to close that gap can drive their SLA motivation. With an EE example, if a video game player wants to converse with their international friends using the English language, and as they are not necessarily proficient enough to do this, they are more likely to be motivated to put more effort into learning English.

The Ideal L2 Self is based on the Gardnerian (1985) concept of integrativeness, and even though empirical research conducted by Taguchi et al. (2009) and Ryan (2009) found that this dimension of the Motivational Self System may be interpreted as the integrativeness put forth by Gardner (1985); in the case of English, however, which has become a global lingua franca, there is no point talking about a specific language community. This is because there are several countries with native English speakers (USA, UK, Australia, etc.) and

it is impossible to create an imaginary blend of these communities representing a homogeneous anglophone culture (Jenkins 2009, Widdowson 2004). Also, native speakers of English are outnumbered by non-native speakers of English by a third (Crystal 2003); as a consequence, learners of English cannot identify with speakers of English the same way French speakers did in Canada in the Gardnerian (1985) model.

A possible solution to this problem was the extension of the original Gardnerian (1985) model, as integrativeness in a globalized world "is not so much related to any actual, or metaphorical, integration into an L2 community as to some more basic identification process within the individual's self-concept" (Dörnyei–Csizér 2002: 456). In order to justify this claim and to provide empirical support for the concept, Dörnyei et al. (2006) conducted a large-scale longitudinal study in Hungary that extended over a 12-year period and involved more than 13,000 Hungarian students. The findings reinforced the importance of integrativeness supported by positive attitudes towards L2 speakers and the positive impact of instrumentality, i.e., the practical benefits of knowing an L2, such as a higher salary or better position in the labor market. However, direct communication with members of the L2 community and "real" integration with the L2 community was not possible since most students learned English in an educational setting without direct contact with the target community. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) explained these findings by pointing out that integrativeness in this sense is different from that of Gardner (1985) and should, therefore, be treated as a different concept, especially because there is no specific L2 community in the case of English; rather, learners may develop a globalized world identity. In light of these findings, Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) claimed that integrativeness, on the one hand, refers to the learners' desire to become part of the L2 community; on the other hand, it also involves "identification with the values that knowledge of the L2 could bring them" (Csizér 2019: 72).

The Ideal L2 Self was chosen to be part of the present research project because, in various contexts, numerous other large-scale studies have yielded results supporting the Ideal L2 Self dimension of Dörnyei's (2005) theory. Studies conducted in Germany (Busse–Walter 2013, Busse–Williams 2010); Hungary (Csizér–Lukács 2010, Kormos–Csizér 2008); Indonesia (Lamb 2012); Japan, China, and Iran (Ryan 2009, Taguchi et al. 2009); Pakistan (Islam et al. 2013); Saudi Arabia (Al-Shehri 2009, Moskovsky et al. 2016); and Sweden (Henry 2009, 2010) validated the L2 Motivation Self System, and Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) add that the studies using both the Ideal L2 Self and Integrativeness found that the two variables correlate (correlation coefficient r=.50), which reinforces the previous assumption that they are related.

2.3.1.2 The Ought-to L2 Self

The second component of the Motivational Self System is the so-called Ought-to L2 Self. According to Higgins (1987: 320-321), the Ought-to Self is the "representation of the attributes that someone (yourself or another) believes you should or ought-to possess (i.e., a representation of someone's sense of your duty, obligation, or responsibilities)". As opposed to the ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self is a much less internalized aspect of the L2 Self (Papi 2010), which Dörnyei (2005) explained as the attributes and qualities that learners believe they should have from an external perspective (i.e., what their parents, teachers, and other authorities expect them to possess) (Dörnyei 2005). For example, a learner may study for the school tests in their EFL lessons to achieve excellent grades as this is one of the expectations of their parents and teacher. Learners become motivated through the Ought-to L2 Self by realizing the discrepancy between their current abilities and the abilities required from them by their parents, teachers, etc.

Csizér (2019) explains that originally instrumentality and instrumental motives were believed to belong to the Ought-to L2 Self but they turned out to have both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects. As a consequence, Dörnyei (2005) distinguished between promotional instrumentality, which is internalized and part of the Ideal L2 Self, and preventive instrumentality, which is related to external motivation and belongs to the Ought-to L2 Self. This means that the Ought-to L2 Self is activated, as previously explained, when wishing to avoid negative outcomes, such as punishments or meeting the expectations of others whom the learner regards highly.

As for the validity of the Ought-to L2 Self dimension, most empirical studies found that, as opposed to the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self has a lower impact on the L2 learning process (Busse–Williams 2010, Dörnyei et al. 2006, Eid 2008, Kormos–Csizér 2008, Kormos et al. 2011, Lamb 2012). In the Hungarian context, a study by Dörnyei et al. (2006) found that the Ought-to L2 Self is not significantly prominent in the case of Hungarian students. Similarly, Kormos and Csizér (2008) found that the Ideal L2 Self plays a significant role in the motivation of Hungarian EFL learners, but the presence of the Ought-to L2 Self could not be identified in the research. Busse and Williams (2010) had similar results in the German context, and the findings of this study show that the Ought-to L2 Self does not play an important role. Lamb (2012) compared the L2 learning motivation of learners in rural and urban areas and found that the Ought-to L2 Self is less dominant in motivating learners than the Ideal L2 Self and the L2 learning experience. Eid (2008) also found that in the case of the L2 learning motivation of Cypriot students, the Ought-to L2 Self was not present. Kormos et al. (2011) conducted a study in Chile, where they found that the Ought-to L2 Self was not a significant construct for the L2

learning motivation of secondary school learners. Csizér and Lukács (2010) drew the same conclusion in their study, in which they investigated Hungarian learners. They hypothesized that secondary school students are not old enough to develop their Ought-to L2 selves, which can successfully motivate them.

However, as opposed to the findings of previous research on the Ought-to L2 Self, my hypothesis is that in the Hungarian context, it may be an important factor in the L2 learning motivation of secondary school students for two reasons. First, from the academic year 2019/2020, it would have been compulsory for students to obtain at least a B2 level exam to be admitted to a higher educational program, but the Hungarian government withdrew the introduction of this regulation (Öveges–Kálmán 2019). Also, further foreign language exam certificates provide learners with extra points required to be admitted to several higher educational programs. Second, at the time when this research project was started (in 2020), in order to obtain the degree certificate at the end of one's studies in a higher education program in Hungary, one had to possess a foreign language certificate proving a certain level of foreign language knowledge. The most common prerequisite for obtaining a degree certificate was possessing at least a B2 level exam; however, this could vary according to different higher education programs in Hungary. It could be concluded that at the time I started this research project, the above-detailed regulations could have encouraged Hungarian students to obtain a foreign language certificate, which may have ultimately impacted their Ought-to L2 Self. In 2022, however, this regulation was abolished, leaving universities the discretion to decide whether or not to require their students to obtain a foreign language exam certificate (for more details see Fajt et al. 2022a, 2022b). Nevertheless, at the time of data collection (in 2020), obtaining a foreign language exam certificate was still an important motivating factor for EFL learners, so I decided to keep the data pertaining foreign language exams and include them in the upcoming analysis (e.g., Chapter 5).

2.3.1.3 L2 learning experience

The third and last dimension of the L2 Motivational Self System is the L2 Learning Experience, which Dörnyei (2005: 29) defines as the "immediate learning environment and experience." This dimension differs from the other two components, which are situated at the self-level. Csizér (2019) points out that even though this dimension is fundamentally different from the other two self-related concepts, which are based on Markus and Nurius's (1986) possible selves theory, the L2 Learning Experience is an integral part of Dörnyei's (2005) theory, as this component emphasizes the importance of context in language learning.

Previous research found that the L2 Learning Experience of learners is strongly connected to motivated language learning behavior, and several studies found that it is the strongest motivator (Csizér–Kormos 2009, Islam et al. 2013, Kormos–Csizér 2008, Lamb 2012, Papi 2010, Papi–Teimouri 2012, Taguchi et al. 2009). In the Hungarian context, Csizér and Kormos (2009) concluded that the Ideal L2 Self and Learning Experience are the strongest predictors of motivated behavior among Hungarian EFL learners. Yet, even though Dörnyei (2009a: 29) himself claimed that "this component is conceptualized at a different level from the two self-guides and future research will hopefully elaborate on the 'self' aspects of this bottom-up process", the connection between the L2 Learning Experience and second language learning motivation is an under-researched component (Csizér 2019). Dörnyei (2019: 20) claims that the reason behind this is that while the Ideal L2 Self and the Ought-to L2 Self are based on a well-established theoretical basis (cf. Markus–Nurius 1986), the L2 Learning Experience is relatively under-theorized and, therefore, it is more difficult to "integrate it into broader theories in a way it has been done with the Ideal and the Ought-to Selves."

Moreover, Csizér (2019) points out that there have been terminological issues related to the L2 Learning Experience. You and Dörnyei (2016) and You et al. (2016), for instance, did not use L2 Learning Experience but denoted the same dimension as Attitudes to L2 Learning. Based on You et al. (2016: 96-97), these differences in terms of labeling the concept are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Terms denoting L2 learning experience used in research papers

Name of the concept	**Research paper(s)**
Attitudes to learning English	Taguchi (2013); Taguchi et al. (2009)
L2 learning attitude	Kormos et al. (2011)
L2 learning experience	Csizér and Kormos (2009)
English learning experience	Papi (2010)

However, despite terminological variations, the way of measuring this dimension (questionnaire items) demonstrates similarities across the studies. That is, all these scales, to some extent, aimed to measure learners' attitudes towards L2 learning (Csizér 2019, Dörnyei 2019, You et al. 2016).

Csizér (2019) refers to Al-Hoorie's (2018) meta-analysis, which shows that the L2 Learning Experience strongly correlates with L2 motivation. As a consequence, Dörnyei (2019: 20) recently claimed that the L2 Learning Experience should be reconceptualized and defined as "the perceived quality of the learner's engagement with various aspects of the learning process". By engagement, Dörnyei (2019: 24) refers to the use of the term in educational psychology, where it is understood as "active participation and involvement in certain behaviors."

The term *engagement* is crucial here, as with engagement (through the functional practice of an L2) learners may learn an L2 through using it (Bialystok 1981). Mercer and Dörnyei (2020) consider learner engagement as an important prerequisite for motivated behavior, too, because this way lINTearners' engagement can be made measurable (i.e., motivated learning behavior as a criterion measure), and this way, empirically investigated. In another paper, besides defining L2 Learning Experience, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015: 88) list some of the key aspects of the conceptualization of the L2 Learning Experience; here, they define it as a dimension that "focuses on the learner's present experience, covering a range of situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment (e.g., the impact of the L2 teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, and the experience of success)." Recently, however, Csizér and Kálmán (2019: 16) redefined the L2 Learning Experience and added the extramural component (cf. "outside the classroom") too and claimed that

> [t]he L2 Learning Experience is the perception of internal cognitive and emotional processes, as well as external stimuli and circumstances that the learner experiences during the course of learning a foreign language in and outside the classroom; it is shaped and determined by attributions stemming from past L2 learning and L2 use experiences that continually evolve after the actual language learning and language use has taken place.

Similar to previous research designs (Csizér–Kormos 2009, Ryan 2009), the L2 Learning Experience was also included in this study because it seems to shape Hungarian secondary school students' L2 learning motivation. It is hypothesized that the L2 Learning eExperience of EE activities impacts Hungarian secondary school students' L2 learning motivation.

2.3.2 Predictors of second language learning motivation

As Piniel and Csizér (2013) point out, different individual learner differences, such as L2 anxiety, L2 willingness to communicate, may impact L2 learning motivation. Consequently, such predictors (i.e., other individual learner differences) of L2 learning motivation are also discussed in detail. The reason for the inclusion of these predictors is that I hypothesized that these predictors, namely L2 anxiety, willingness to communicate in an L2, L2 cultural interest, L2 friendship orientation, L2 intercultural contact, and perceived importance of the English language have an impact on Hungarian EFL learners' L2 learning motivation not only in the classroom but in the extramural English contexts, too. Since research in the Hungarian context on the impact of these individual differences on L2 learning motivation outside the class is virtually

non-existent, they were chosen to be adopted in this research project. The next sections thus provide an overview of these concepts.

2.3.2.1 Foreign language anxiety

Foreign language anxiety is considered to be one of the most important affective factors, first proposed in the affective filter hypothesis by Krashen (1982), where he claimed that certain affective variables, such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety, determine the ultimate success of second language acquisition. Horwitz et al. (1986: 128) created a theoretical model that defined foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning processes." In this theoretical model, Horwitz et al. (1986) differentiated foreign language classroom anxiety from other forms of anxiety.

The previous empirical studies investigating the foreign language anxiety model developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) found that anxiety may have either a positive or a negative effect on foreign language learning. A smaller proportion of these studies found that anxiety has a positive impact on foreign language learning (Brown 2000, Ewald 2007, Kitano 2001, Marcos-Llinas–Garau 2009); this is known as *facilitating anxiety*. A larger body of these empirical studies, however, found that anxiety has a negative impact on foreign language learning (Horwitz 2001, 2010, MacIntyre–Gardner 1991, MacIntyre–Gardner 1994, Liu 2016, Liu–Zhang 2008, Onwuegbuzie et al. 1999, Sparks et al. 1997, Tóth 2008, 2009, 2011), which is known as *debilitating anxiety*. These findings are further supported by two relatively recent meta-analyses by Zhang (2019) and Teimouri et al. (2019), who also found a negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and L2 performance.

As for its relation to motivation, Gardner et al. (1997) found that anxiety correlates negatively with L2 motivation as well. In the Hungarian context, Csizér and Piniel (2016) conducted a questionnaire study with secondary school EFL learners and obtained the same results. Similarly, Papi (2010) found in his study that the Ideal L2 Self and the L2 Learning Experience have a positive impact on foreign language anxiety, i.e., they can reduce L2 anxiety; however, the Ought-to L2 self may make learners more anxious. In their interview study, Kormos and Dörnyei (2004) identified a strong negative correlation between L2 use anxiety and lexical variety; therefore, they concluded that low anxiety enables learners to use a more varied vocabulary, thus expressing themselves in a more varied manner. In the extramural L2 context, previous research found that extramural L2 activities may create a low-anxiety or even anxiety-free learning environment. Piniel and Albert (2018), for instance, carried out a qualitative

study and found that the location of language use (i.e., inside or outside class) has an impact on learners' emotions and that learners had more positive feelings in connection with language learning situations outside the classroom than classroom-based L2 learning situations. As EE, by definition, involves situations outside the classroom, L2 anxiety was also chosen to be an individual learner difference to be examined in the scope of the present research project.

2.3.2.2 Willingness to communicate

Another important variable is willingness to communicate (WTC), which is conceptualized in several ways. First, WTC may be considered a personality trait that does not change over time or in different communication situations; this conceptualization focuses on individual factors (e.g., self-confidence) (Yashima 2002). WTC may also be conceptualized as a situation-specific phenomenon that is not considered stable but subject to change based on certain factors (e.g., whether the speaker knows the interlocutor) (Cao–Philip 2006). Finally, WTC may also be examined from dynamic and situated perspectives (e.g., both situational and personal factors) (Kang 2005).

The concept of WTC has been applied to foreign language teaching as well, in the context of which MacIntyre et al. (1998: 547) define WTC as "a readiness to enter into the discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2". Later, Kang (2005: 291) elaborated on the dynamic nature of WTC and claimed that it "can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic, and conversational context, among other potential situational variables." In MacIntyre and his associates' (1998) model, WTC is conceptualized as a "pyramid" consisting of six layers (i.e., social and individual context, affective-cognitive context, motivational propensities, situated antecedents, behavioral intention and communication behavior). In this model, the bottom three layers consisting of several components, such as personality, communicative competence, social situation, self-confidence, etc., are considered stable and trait-like variables which affect L2 WTC independently of the communication context. On the other hand, the top three layers, comprising components such as L2 use, desire to communicate with a specific person, etc., are more dynamic and situation-specific in nature; therefore, these layers, as opposed to the ones at the bottom, are more likely to change over time and in different contexts.

Cao (2011) found that certain factors, such as teachers' error correction, particular topics, and teacher support (or the lack thereof), have an impact on learners' WTC; at the same time, EE activities, where learners can use and practice English, create a less stressful environment catering to English WTC (Lee 2019a). In addition, previous research on L2 WTC found that there is a negative correlation between L2 WTC and L2 anxiety (Chu 2008, MacIntyre

1999, MacIntyre et al. 1999, Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. 1991, Yildiz–Piniel 2020), i.e., learners experiencing high levels of foreign language anxiety are less willing to communicate in the particular L2. Besides low foreign language anxiety, learners' L2 motivation may also contribute to a higher rate of L2 WTC. Previous research shows that the more motivated learners are, the more willing they are to interact with others in a particular L2 (Hashimoto 2002, MacIntyre et al. 2001, Peng 2007, Peng–Woodrow 2010, Yashima 2002). There is a body of empirical research on the impact of digital technology on WTC in different online environments, too, more specifically online chatting and social media (Freiermuth–Jarrell 2006, Malyndra et al. 2020), online courses (Kissau et al. 2010), films (Mirvan 2013, Seferoğlu 2008), and digital games (Horowitz 2019, Reinders–Wattana 2014, 2015). These studies found that digital technology has a positive effect on L2 WTC.

WTC was chosen to be another component of the present investigation because, on the one hand, it impacts L2 learning motivation; on the other hand, in the Hungarian context, there is no research on the impact of engagement in EE activities on learners' L2 WTC.

2.3.2.3 Cultural interest

Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) claim that cultural interest refers to the appreciation of cultural products associated with a certain L2 and usually portrayed in the media (e.g., films, TV series, music, video games, etc.). This dimension of motivation was first identified by Clément and Kruidenier (1983: 285), who defined it as "an interest in the way of life and the artistic production of the target language group". Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) refer to Clément et al. (1994), who examined motivational orientations in the Hungarian context and found that English language media, thus English cultural products have an impact on Hungarian secondary school learners' attitudes to the English language and anglophone culture. This was further supported by the findings of the research carried out by Csizér and Kormos (2008: 13), who claimed "that in a foreign language setting, both direct and indirect contact have the potential to raise students' interest in using the L2 through L2 cultural products and various means of L2 speaking media".

EE activities are excellent examples of both American and British content as well as other content associated with anglophone culture. These cultural products, as opposed to regular EFL coursebooks, do not overemphasize the British variety of the English language and enable learners to opt for the content they are genuinely interested in. This is important because, as Csizér and Lukács (2010) pointed out, that English-language media products coming from the USA are preferred over products originating in other English-speaking regions.

EE activities, therefore, may serve the purpose of motivating learners to learn English by affecting their Ideal L2 Self. Weger (2013) refers to Yashima (2002) when claiming that English language films, film series, and video games, for instance, may provide learners with a feeling of integrativeness; thus, to some extent, learners gain "access to international communities" (Weger 2013: 89), where English has an important role. Mori and Gobel (2006: 205) also claimed that integrativeness in the case of English encompasses the "interest in traveling and studying overseas, rather than a desire to integrate into the target language community." These findings led to cultural interest being one of the dimensions of motivation, which required the reformation of the concept of integrativeness, ultimately resulting in Dörnyei (2005) reconceptualizing L2 learning motivation into his L2 Motivational Self System.

Cultural interest is included in the present research project as it is believed that learners partly consume EE for their cultural interest in anglophone culture as well as the intercultural communities using the English language, thus motivating Hungarian EFL learners to learn English.

2.3.2.4 Friendship orientation and intercultural contact

There is consensus in the literature that the influence of friends, peers and acquaintances on learners' attitudes to language learning has an important impact on learners' motivation (Dörnyei 2001). Young (1994: 86), for instance, held the view that "learner perceptions and experience of peer attitudes concerning school, education, foreign language learning in general or the learning of a particular language in question may exert considerable influence on the individual's own L2 learning orientation, attitudes and motivation." In addition, Clément and Kruidenier (1983) point out that the idea that the knowledge of a particular L2 may enable a learner to make new connections and friends is a motivating factor for learning the given L2. Root (1999) carried out a longitudinal study where it was found that peers and, more precisely, friends can maintain learners' motivation to learn a particular L2.

Kormos and Csizér (2007) point out that as Hungary is a predominantly monolingual country, the most common type of contact with the target language and culture was not in person but through the Internet and media. Similarly, Sundqvist and Olin-Scheller (2013) underline that in extramural contexts, such as online video games, learners engage in authentic learner–learner interactions and collaborate with one another (e.g., fighting a common enemy), and they emphasize that these environments differ from the classroom context. In a classroom, there is a less authentic environment for learners, where even if they follow the teacher's instruction and cooperate with their peers, such interactions are not initiated by the learners themselves; rather,

they are encouraged to do so by their teacher. Black (2009), for instance, points out that research has shown that EFL learners in the USA are developing and improving their foreign language skills by using different technological tools, such as smartphones, personal computers, and the Internet, to communicate and share information and content in English with others. Such activities cater not only to the notion of *functional practice* advocated by Bialystok (1981) but also provide an environment for L2 learning through digital environments (Barton–Potts 2013). This is particularly true for social media (e.g., blogs, vlogs, Facebook, etc.) and video games where learners of English are, in fact, real users of English when engaging in different EE activities, as they consume and compose content and interact with others in English.

Learners of English use English as a lingua franca when interacting with friends and other people with different L1s (Crystal 2003, De Wilde et al. 2019, Djigunovic 2018, Sauer–Ellis 2019, Sayer–Ban 2014, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2014, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2012). Such interactions are important sources of extramural English and may motivate learners to invest more effort into learning English. As a consequence, friendship orientation and intercultural contact were chosen to be a component of this investigation because they are hypothesized to have an impact on EFL learners' L2 learning motivation in the extramural context, and there is virtually no such recent empirical investigation in the EE context.

2.3.2.5 Perceived importance of the language

As Hungary is a relatively small country and the Hungarian language is spoken by around 13 million people as the L1, the perceived importance of the given L2 may play a significant role in the L2 learning motivation of Hungarian people (Csizér–Lukács 2010). Speakers are most likely to learn English as they consider it an important asset in today's globalized world. Widdowson (1997) also highlights that English as an international language has gained more significance than smaller local languages. Weger (2013: 89) pointed out that through English language products, learners have the opportunity to "gain access to international communities." However, even though, in most cases, the English language is not directly accessible in the learners' immediate environment, i.e., it is not spoken (Ryan 2006), it is often available through English-language media products.

Csizér and Lukács (2010) reported that Hungarian learners are aware of the global and international role of English and the regional importance of German. This increased importance of the English language is exemplified by the number of Hungarians living in the United Kingdom, too. The number of Hungarian people residing and working in the UK in 2015 was around 86,000 (Moreh

2015), while the number of Hungarian people living in the UK in 2020 was 96,000 (Office for National Statistics 2020). This means that working abroad may be another reason Hungarian people start learning English.

Furthermore, from the academic year 2019/2020, obtaining at least a level B2 language exam certificate was going to be a prerequisite for students to be admitted to any higher education programs (Öveges–Kálmán 2019), and even though this law was then repealed (cf. Fajt et al. 2022a, 2022b), students can still obtain extra points enabling them to become admitted to university more easily by possessing at least a B2 level language exam certificate. In addition, at the time when this research project was started, in order to obtain a BA or an MA degree certificate, it was predominantly a prerequisite to already have at least a B2 level foreign language exam certificate. All these factors considered, the perceived importance of the language, in this case the English language, was chosen to be another predictor measuring the L2 learning motivation of Hungarian learners.

2.4 A model for learning English through EE activities

Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016) proposed a theoretical framework for learning English, which also involves learning English through EE activities. The visual representation of the model is presented in Figure 1 (adopted from Sundqvist–Sylvén 2016: 10).

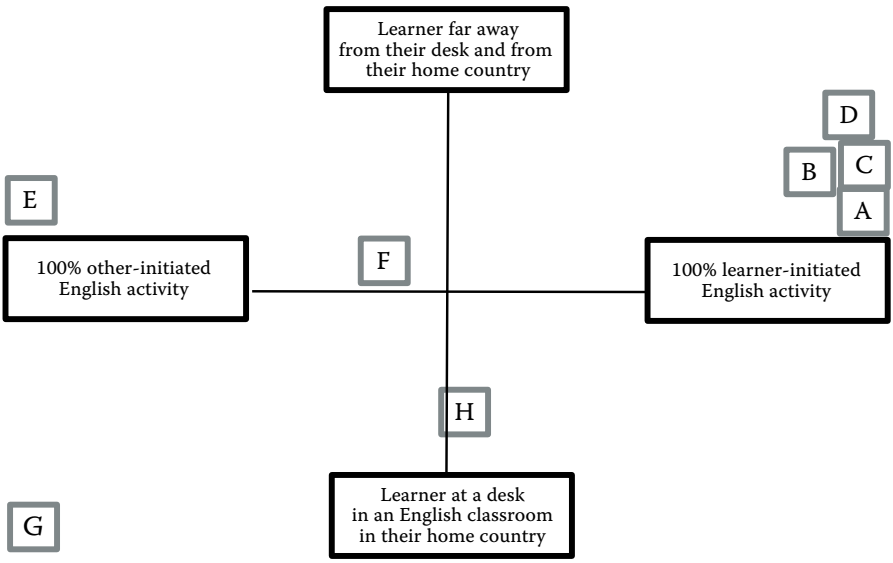

Figure 1. A model for EFL learning

The model is set up along two axes. The horizontal axis shows to what extent the learner initiated a certain activity independently. If the activity is closer to the right end of the horizontal axis, it means that the learner engages in an activity with more independence on their own than in the case of another activity lies closer to the left end of the horizontal axis. An example of this would be when a teacher tells their students to watch a movie and take notes on the new vocabulary items. This would be positioned on the left-hand side of the horizontal axis at "100% other-initiated English activity", and it involves predominantly intentional learning, where learners' attention is focused on language learning. On the other hand, if a student decides to watch a movie in their free time at home, it is on the other end of the axis at "100% learner-initiated English activity", involving potentially incidental learning with the learner's attention focused elsewhere and with language learning as a by-product (cf. DeKeyser 2008, Ellis 2008).

The vertical axis shows the learner's physical location. At one end of the vertical axis, the learner is at their desk in their English classroom in their home country, whereas at the other end of the same axis, the learner is as far from their desk as possible, for example, a Hungarian secondary school student spending a school year in a secondary school in the USA (cf. naturalistic learning). When an activity is located in the middle on both axes, it is, for instance, an extracurricular activity in the learner's school (Sundqvist–Sylvén 2016).

Depending on whether the learner is aware of their own learning, we may call it *incidental learning* (the learner is not aware of the learning process) or *intentional learning* (the learner is aware of the learning process). Most *other-initiated English activities* involve intentional learning since learners know that they are involved in learning, especially because the activity they engage in is initiated by someone else. On the other hand, learner-initiated activities are more likely to be connected to incidental learning because they are not necessarily initiated because of pressure or external motivation but very often for pleasure (Sundqvist–Sylvén 2016). Based on these two variables (axes), Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016: 12-13) identify eight different kinds of activities:

A. Learner-initiated English activity outside the classroom; learner alone; for the purpose of entertainment;
B. Learner-initiated English activity in the home; learner alone; for the purpose of entertainment;
C. Learner-initiated English activity in the home; learner alone; for the purpose of learning English;
D. Learner-initiated English activity in the home; learner and others online; for the purpose of entertainment;
E. Teacher-initiated English activity in the home; learner alone; accessing the Internet for the purpose of learning English;

F. Teacher-initiated English activity but with strong learner input; at the school but outside the classroom; learner and other peers; for the purpose of learning English;
G. Teacher-initiated English activity in the classroom at the desk; learner alone; for the purpose of learning English;
H. Learner-and-teacher-initiated English activity in the classroom but not at the desk; learner and one peer; for the purpose of learning English (Sundqvist–Sylvén 2016: 12–13).

There are certain complex activities, such as studying abroad, which may not be considered a single activity and may involve activities carried out in a classroom and activities carried out outside of school. In Sundqvist and Sylvén's (2016) model, even these activities are treated as a "single" activity where the most dominant dimensions of them are taken into consideration when placing them on the axes in the model. Studying abroad, for instance, would be placed at the left top corner of the model covering a larger area as such activity is usually not initiated by a learner, especially in the secondary context, so several factors should be considered. It should be noted that the vertical axis showing the learner's physical location may also be rather misleading in the case of internet-based activities. An MMORPG (Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Game) player, for instance, physically may be sitting at home, but psychologically could be in a distant English-speaking digital world, which can also be considered a "complex activity" and would be difficult to place on the vertical axis. It would be important, therefore, to fine-tune this model so that such complex activities could be better placed into the model.

From the visual representation and the descriptions, it transpires that activities A-B-C-D are EE activities because they are all learner-initiated and are pursued outside of school. As in this research project, the main focus is placed on EE activities and Hungarian secondary school learners' engagement in them. Only these types of activities (A-B-C-D) are included in the investigation.

In the context of EFL learning through EE activities, it may be concluded that learners may acquire the different elements (e.g., grammar and vocabulary) of a particular L2 provided that they are exposed to comprehensible input (Krashen et al. 2018). Krashen (2003: 81) explains that "we acquire language and develop literacy when we understand messages, that is, when we understand what we hear and what we read, when we receive comprehensible input." By comprehensible input, Krashen (1982, 2009) means the kind of L2 input the learner can acquire and which is not much above their current L2 proficiency. Consequently, learners often engage in EE activities that they can understand; in other words, they will not necessarily start watching a series that is overwhelmingly difficult to comprehend.

Recently, however, Krashen et al. (2018) refined the original comprehensible input hypothesis of Krashen (1982) and explained that "input must be at least interesting so that acquirers will pay attention to it" (Krashen et al. 2018: 2). By attention, Krashen et al. (2018) do not mean that learners need to pay conscious attention to the L2 input; they mean, rather, that the L2 input learners are exposed to should be of interest and relevance to them. Coursebooks, for instance, often contain outdated reading texts, which are less interesting for learners than the English learners encounter outside the classroom (cf. *authenticity gap* underlined by Henry (2013). Krashen et al. (2018) assert that ideally, L2 input should be "compelling", creating a state of "flow" outlined by Csíkszentmihályi (1990) for learners where they do not perceive the learning process as real learning but immerse themselves into the experience and remain motivated to learn the particular L2 (Piniel–Albert 2017). To reflect on this flow experience, Krashen et al. (2018) proposed the theory of Compelling Input Hypothesis, which means that because of being interested in certain L2 content, learners feel motivated and "compelled" to be exposed to it, which can ultimately lead to incidental learning. This theory describes the type of learning taking place when learning English through extramural English activities, particularly because, as Grabe (2009) underlines, that learning through incidental (or implicit) learning requires a large amount of time and L2 input as well. This means that extensive engagement in different extramural L2 activities is a prerequisite for such learning to take place.

2.5 Previous research on learning English through EE activities

As the term extramural English activity originates in Scandinavia, more specifically, in Sweden, there is an abundance of research in the area investigating the benefits of EE activities (Piirainen-Marsh–Tainio 2009, Simensen 2010, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2015). In addition to these, previous research in different countries indicates that primary and secondary school EFL learners engage heavily in EE activities in their free time (Besser–Chik 2014, De Wilde et al. 2019, Grau 2009, Kuppens 2010, Lindgren–Munoz 2013, Piirainen-Marsh–Tainio 2009, Simensen 2010, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2012, 2014, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2016). De Wilde et al. (2019) even found that if extensive exposure to English begins at an early age it may be so significant that students can acquire a command of English up to an A2 level before starting to participate in formal EFL instruction.

The findings of previous research show that learners devote a large amount of their time to extramural English activities and this engagement heavily contributes to the improvement of their foreign language skills. Along with

these findings, research in Belgium (Kuppens 2010) and Germany (Grau 2009) drew the same conclusions. In Hungary, there is a scarcity of research on the topic (cf. Józsa–Imre 2013, Novák–Fónai 2020); however, these studies all found that, similarly to students in other countries, Hungarian students also like to pursue EE activities in their free time, and their most common EE activities were reading, playing video games, watching films and television series, listening to music and using social media.

Learners may engage in several EE activities depending on their interests. English-language entertainment multimedia content, for instance, is popular amongst EFL learners. An instance of this is watching television shows, which provide auditory and visual stimuli to learners. Other media elements, including playing English-language video games both offline and online, listening to English-language music, and using social media in English (e.g., Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, TikTok, Tumblr, WhatsApp) are also excellent examples of popular EE activities which can contribute to English vocabulary development, reading, and listening comprehension, speaking skills and writing skills, too (De Wilde et al. 2019, Lindgren–Munoz 2013, Puimége–Peters 2019, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2012). Reading English-language books, magazines, newspapers and blogs is also an example of popular EE activities (Besser–Chik 2014, De Wilde–Eyckmans 2017, Sayer–Ban 2014, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2012, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2014). In addition, students also use English when keeping in touch with relatives and friends (Crystal 2003, De Wilde et al. 2019, Djigunovic 2018, Sayer–Ban 2014, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2012, 2014). The next sections, therefore, provide insights into some of the relevant previous research investigating the benefits of specific types of EE in EFL learning.

2.5.1 Reading

Researchers claim that reading may prove an excellent resource for second language acquisition (Day–Bamford 2002, Day et al. 1991, Krashen 2004, 2011, Nation–Waring 2020). In the foreign language learning and teaching context, there are two main types of reading: intensive and extensive. Intensive reading entails reading to comprehend every single detail and word in a text (and intent to acquire L2 from the text), whereas extensive reading entails reading for pleasure with no intent to acquire L2 elements (and presumably less focus on linguistic elements). The former is usually associated with formal, classroom-based instruction, whereas the latter may be considered an extramural activity, therefore, the focus of this section is extensive reading and its benefits on the L2 learning process.

Previous meta-analyses by Nakanishi (2015) and Jeon and Day (2016) found that extensive reading positively effects L2 proficiency. Research on the

benefits of extensive reading identified that extensive reading may incidentally but gradually improve learners' L2 proficiency both in terms of grammar (Aka 2020, Elley–Mangubhai 1983, Lee et al. 2015, Shintani–Ellis 2010, Song–Sardegna 2014) and vocabulary (Brown et al. 2008, Horst 2005, McQuillan 2019, Nation–Waring 2020, Pigada–Schmitt 2006, Rott 1999, Suk 2017, Waring–Takaki 2003, Webb–Chang 2015), and even writing skills (Im et al. 2010, Mermelstein 2015, Park 2016). In addition, extensive reading, by definition, improves reading speed and reading skills in general (Beglar et al. 2012, Beglar–Hunt 2014, Huffman 2014, McLean–Rouault 2017, Nakanishi 2015, Suk 2017). The key significance of extensive reading lies in the fact that learners encounter linguistic elements repeatedly in meaningful contexts catering to incidental learning.

Webb (2015) points out that besides grammar, one of the biggest challenges in foreign language learning is vocabulary development. He argues that after acquiring the 2000 most frequent words, which, according to Nation (2001), need to be learned in an explicit and direct way, i.e., intentionally, it is much more difficult to learn less common and frequent words, especially because in many learning contexts (e.g., classroom lessons) there is not enough L2 input providing enough encounters for successful acquisition. However, there is no consensus in the literature on how many times it is necessary to encounter a linguistic element for a language learner to successfully acquire it. Table 4 provides an overview of the number of required encounters suggested by different studies.

Table 4. The number of encounters required for the acquisition of vocabulary items in extensive reading

Number of required encounters	Research article
6	Rott (1999)
8	Horst et al. (1998)
10	Webb (2007)
12	Elgort and Warren (2014)
20	Herman et al. (1987)
more than 20	Waring and Takaki (2003)

As demonstrated in Table 4, the number of required encounters is between 6 and 20. Webb (2015) theorizes that the reason behind such inconsistent research results may lie in the individual differences of language learners (e.g., their working memory). Even though there is no consensus on the exact number of required encounters, researchers agree that the more a learner is exposed to a linguistic element, such as a vocabulary item, the more likely they acquire

it. Extensive reading provides countless opportunities for such encounters, making it a useful method of SLA through EE.

2.5.2 Watching films, series and videos

Watching films, television series, and online videos in an L2 are additional popular EE activities that benefit L2 learners (Chapple–Curtis 2000, Keene 2006, King 2002, Liando et al. 2018, Lin–Siyanova-Chanturia 2014, Qiang et al. 2007). King (2002), for example, points out that one of the greatest benefits of films is that they provide learners with a plethora of L2 input in context catering to incidental learning; in addition, films often address issues that are also relevant to the lives of learners. Similarly, Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia (2014) also found that through films, L2 learners gain access to authentic L2 input in context, allowing for incidental learning. In Hong Kong, Chapple and Curtis (2000) concluded in their research that viewing English-language films helped learners develop their English speaking and listening comprehension skills, and additionally, it also boosted learners' self-confidence. Keene (2006) found that while watching a movie, besides hearing dialogues, viewers see various gestures and facial reactions, which can facilitate the comprehension process so that when learners do not understand something, they are able to more easily infer the meaning of a word or phrase from the situation. Liando et al. (2018) investigated EFL university students. Their results show that students majoring in English are aware that watching films in English may contribute to the improvement of their listening comprehension. Qiang et al. (2007) examined Chinese EFL learners and found that watching films in English has four important benefits for language learners: learners can improve L2 pronunciation and intonation, encounter authentic and idiomatic language use, become acquainted with English sentence structure, and finally, familiarize themselves with the target language culture.

Research investigating the benefits of films in second language acquisition examined the use of both L1 an L2 subtitles and their impact on the second language learning process as well (Ashcroft et al. 2018, Baranowska 2020, Mitterer–McQueen 2009, Murshidi 2020, Pujadas–Muñoz 2019, Rodgers–Webb 2017, Vandergrift–Goh 2021, Wang 2019, Winke et al. 2010). Mitterer and McQueen (2009), for instance, point out that the use of subtitles helps learners understand different L2 accents. In her research, Baranowska (2020) examined Polish EFL learners and divided them into three groups: one group watched videos with Polish subtitles, the second group with English subtitles, while the third group was not allowed to use any subtitles. The results of the research show that L2 subtitles (intralingual subtitles) support vocabulary acquisition

more than subtitles in learners' L1 (interlingual subtitles). The study also found that, regardless of language, the subtitles reduce the cognitive burden on language learners, meaning that the comprehension of the content of the videos is easier when using subtitles. In their mixed-methodology research, Winke et al. (2010) examined the effect of using L2 subtitles or no subtitles on learners' L2 proficiency. Participants watched three short videos in the L2, followed by a vocabulary and comprehension test. The results of the research show that participants who watched videos with L2 subtitles outperformed those who watched videos without subtitles significantly on the vocabulary and comprehension tests. In the second half of the research, learners' use of subtitles was investigated in a qualitative manner through interviews. The main finding of the qualitative part of the study was that learners find it useful to involve multiple modalities (visual and auditory) in the learning process by using subtitles, especially because subtitles may be used as a "linguistic crutch" if learners do not hear the dialogue well. In a quantitative study, Wang (2019) examined Chinese EFL university students and found that the groups using subtitles when watching videos yielded statistically significantly better results than the group in which no subtitles were used. When investigating EFL learners, similar results were obtained in the Japanese (Ashcroft et al. 2018, Rodgers–Webb 2017), the Arabic (Murshidi 2020) and the French (Guichon–McLornan 2008) contexts, too. Studies investigating L2 learners other than EFL, such as Spanish as a Foreign Language (Markham et al. 2001) and French as a Foreign Language (Montero Perez et al. 2014) had similar findings to that of studies investigating EFL learners, which leads us to the conclusion that films and movies, particularly with subtitles, and even more specifically, L2 subtitles, may prove beneficial for both EFL and other L2 learners, too.

Longitudinal studies were also carried out to investigate the long-term effect of video subtitles on the vocabulary of language learners (Bianchi–Ciabattoni 2008, Pujadas–Muñoz 2019). In Pujadas and Muñoz's (2019) study, for instance, there were two groups of EFL learners who were exposed to videos in class on a regular basis. In one of the groups, vocabulary items were taught in advance, followed by videos in English, while in the other, there was no pre-taught vocabulary; learners only watched the videos in English. Later, learners were tested on their vocabulary knowledge, and the results show that the group where vocabulary items were pre-taught to learners outperformed groups in which vocabulary items were taught only after watching videos. The study conducted by Bianchi and Ciabattoni (2008) also confirms the findings of Pujadas and Muñoz (2019). In the Italian context, they examined the short- and long-term impact of subtitles among students learning English as a foreign language and found that students who watched English-language films with Italian subtitles performed better in comprehension tasks in the short term than learners using no subtitles.

Vandergrift and Goh (2021), however, point out that when watching films in an L2, it is not entirely known whether L2 development is the result of solely L2 listening or (subtitle) reading, i.e., which of the different forms of linguistic input (auditory and visual) has a stronger effect on the language learner. Nevertheless, the benefits of films, series, and videos in second language acquisition are uncontroversial (Fajt 2022b), and there is a consensus in the literature that the use of subtitles greatly contributes to language learners' vocabulary acquisition and also supports comprehension (Guichon–McLornan 2008, Markham et al. 2001, Montero Perez et al. 2014, Winke et al. 2010).

2.5.3 Video games

Playing video games in an L2, English in this case, is another popular EE activity that may also present an important resource for L2 acquisition (Benson–Chik 2011, Li 2020, Sykes 2013, Sykes et al. 2008, Sykes–Reinhardt 2012, Reinders–Wattana 2012, Reinhardt–Sykes 2012). Studies have investigated the possibilities of both game-enhanced and game-based learning. The former refers to learning a language through the use of commercial video games, whereas the latter means the use of digital games designed for teaching and learning purposes (Sykes 2018). Most empirical studies investigating the potentials of video games in L2 learning focus on the former, i.e., commercial video games. Neville et al. (2009), in their mixed method study, for instance, found that EFL learners who were exposed to video games outperformed learners who used printed learning materials in vocabulary retention. Sundqvist and Wilkström (2015) found a positive relationship between the time spent playing video games and essay writing and vocabulary test results, with learners who play more than five hours a week outperforming those who play less or do not play video games at all. Sundqvist (2019), in another study, found that video game players achieved better results on vocabulary tests than non-gamers.

In a quantitative study, Suh et al. (2010) investigated Korean students who play Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games (MMORPGs), i.e., online role-playing video games where players need to interact with each other as well as other non-player characters (characters controlled by the video game). The findings of the study show that learners who played MMORPGs achieved higher scores in listening, reading, and writing skill tests. As MMORPGs are excellent resources for online communication through the use of English, they can improve learners' general English proficiency, too (Chik 2014, Ryu 2011, 2013). In line with these results, research has also shown that video games help learners find or create a learning community (Peterson 2012, Reinhardt–Zander 2011), provide access to both written and spoken discourse (Liang 2012, Thorne et al. 2012), as well as to authentic L2 texts (Reinhardt

2013, Squire 2008), and facilitate willingness to communicate (Reinders–Wattana, 2012). Furthermore, and most importantly, video games also foster the socio-cognitive process of learning and language socialization (e.g., Piiranen-Marsh–Tainio 2009, Zheng et al. 2009), and vocabulary development as a by-product of playing video games (Fajt–Vékási 2022a, 2022b, Hitosugi et al. 2014, Neville 2010, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2012) or even communicating with other players online (Sundqvist 2015). Similarly to other EE activities, video games also provide contextualized environments for learners to comprehend and process L2 input and transform it into intake through noticing, catering to incidental learning to take place (Schmidt 1990, 1994, 1995). Finally, research has also shown that commercial video games may contribute to learners' L2 learning motivation (Bytheway 2015, Ebrahimzadeh–Sepideh 2017).

2.5.4 Listening to music

Another popular EE activity is listening to music in English. This is an entertaining pastime activity for most students, and connecting it to language learning subsequently creates an enjoyable EE activity (Fonseca-Mora et al. 2011, Sundqvist 2009), providing learners with an extensive amount of L2 input (Schwarz 2013) catering to incidental learning. One of the most important benefits of listening to songs in an L2 is that if one likes a particular song, they tend to listen to the same song multiple times (Abbott 2002, Kerekes 2015, Pavia et al. 2019, Tegge 2017, 2018), and this kind of repeated exposure in itself is an important factor in incidental learning (Beasley–Chuang 2008, Falk et al. 2014, Sundqvist 2009, Webb–Chang 2012a, 2012b) since the more often one encounters a word or phrase, the more likely it is that they will remember it in later stages. In addition, Murphy (1992) underlines that the benefits of listening to L2 songs lie in the fact that songs, especially pop songs, consist of short texts using simple and repetitive vocabulary. Pavia et al. (2019) also refer to Murphy's (1992) seminal paper in which he examined 50 pop songs and found that 25% of these songs used just 10 different words, such as "you" and "I". This repeated exposure can support the acquisition of the most frequent English words.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the term *extramural English activities* was defined, and the related terminology was clarified. In this book, extramural English activities is an umbrella term referring to anything learners do in English in their leisure time, whereas out-of-class learning refers to the kind of informal learning taking place outside the walls of a classroom. Another related concept is the

authenticity gap related to second language learning and it means that learners find extramural English activities more enjoyable than activities in the EFL classroom.

In addition, this chapter demonstrated why learner autonomy is important when learners engage in EE activities: its relevance lies in the fact that these activities are simply done by learners without a teacher or any formal educational setting. In addition, the different learning processes that can take place when engaging in EE activities were addressed; here, it was concluded that intentional and incidental learning are the most common forms of learning in extramural contexts. Furthermore, since students pursue these activities for their own entertainment, L2 learning motivation is also an important factor in L2 learning through EE activities. In addition to L2 learning motivation, other additional predictors related to it, e.g., foreign language anxiety, L2 WTC, intercultural orientation, and the importance of the English language, were discussed. Finally, the results of previous research also demonstrated that EE activities play an important and useful role in EFL language learning.

As much of previous research focuses on incidental learning and the acquisition of L2 elements, there is a need for more research examining individual language learner differences and their role in EFL learning through EE activities, particularly in the Hungarian context (cf. Lajtai 2020). Consequently, the main goal of the present research project is to map Hungarian secondary school students' EE activities and to examine Hungarian secondary school students' individual learner differences in the extramural learning context. The next chapter presents the research methods of the research project.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODS

After reviewing the context of EFL learning through EE activities as well as the relevant literature and in line with the main aims of the research project, the following research questions (RQs) were formulated:

RQ1 What extramural English activities do Hungarian secondary school EFL learners engage in?

RQ2 What are Hungarian secondary school students' perceptions of extramural English activities in EFL learning?

RQ3 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions of extramural English activities in EFL learning?

RQ4 How do extramural English activities affect Hungarian secondary school EFL learners' various individual learner differences?

RQ4.1 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 learning motivation?

RQ4.2 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 anxiety?

RQ4.3 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 willingness to communicate?

RQ5 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' and students' perceptions of EFL students' various individual differences?

RQ6 What impact do the various EE activities and various individual differences have on Hungarian secondary school students' in-school motivated learning behavior and extramural motivated language use?

As EFL learning through EE activities is a rather complex phenomenon to investigate, a mixed-methods research design was adopted because, as Creswell and Creswell (2018) point out, such research design enables the researcher to examine a phenomenon from multiple perspectives. This view is supported by Dörnyei (2007: 36), who claims that a mixed-methods research design is "ideal for the analysis of complex issues." In addition, even though the above six main research questions could be answered by using solely the qualitative research paradigm, as Dörnyei (2007) asserts, it is impossible to generalize the

findings of a research project that only uses the qualitative research paradigm. Furthermore, the findings of a qualitative study are not suitable for comparison with the findings of other qualitative, let alone quantitative studies.

Another reason for choosing the mixed-methods research paradigm was that it includes both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The former, suitable for the exploratory nature of this research project and based on the "tabula rasa" approach, enables the researcher to map a previously unknown domain, Hungarian secondary school EE interests. This approach means that the researcher aims to investigate a phenomenon without any (or as few as possible) preconceptions allowing for a real investigative approach where data emerges on its own, thus explaining the phenomenon (Richards–Morse 2013), which can later enable the researcher to develop theories and generate hypotheses; thus, the data collected through qualitative methods can later serve as a basis for further qualitative or quantitative research (Cohen et al. 2018).

Finally, another reason for mixing methods was to ensure data source and method triangulation, which in social sciences means using more than one data source and one method to gather data, such as interviews and questionnaires. This guarantees a deeper understanding of the issue investigated. According to Cohen et al. (2018: 265), triangulation is an "attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint." This was achieved by combining data sources: qualitative and quantitative methods were used to investigate Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests. This combination of qualitative and quantitative methods also helps maximize the research's internal and external validity (in the qualitative paradigm, credibility, and transferability, respectively) (Dörnyei 2007).

The next sections outline possible methods to map Hungarian EFL learners' EE interests. The two research methods introduced are subsequently examined from the point of view of researchers as well as EFL teachers, providing an account of both the advantages and disadvantages of using them to collect data for research purposes and for mapping EFL interests for teaching purposes.

3.1 Mapping learners' EE interests

Exploring and, therefore, obtaining a better understanding of learners' EE interests can be beneficial for researchers and, more importantly, for practicing EFL teachers. First of all, from EFL teachers' perspective, they will be able to hold more interesting and motivating EFL lessons catering to the needs of their students as EFL teachers will be able to include their students' EE interests in their teaching; as Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016: 154) point out: "students' spare-time activities are no longer unknown territory, but rather something

the teacher can take advantage of in the day-to-day classroom work." Besides teachers being able to create better and more up-to-date EFL lessons, students can also feel that their leisure time English activities are acknowledged as useful and crucial for foreign language improvement. From the students' perspective, teachers' encouragement to engage in EE activities could lead to an increased frequency of these activities. In addition, if students are made aware of the foreign language learning potentials of such EE activities, their foreign language awareness could be raised. In the next sections, therefore, some of the most efficient tools for investigating learners' interests are discussed, and their advantages and disadvantages are addressed.

3.1.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are one of the most popular methods of collecting quantitative data in applied linguistics and can also be used to collect data on language learners' extramural interests. Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016) point out that questionnaires can be more flexible and open than language diaries because questionnaires may contain open-ended questions and closed-ended questions, too, and learners are left with the freedom to answer the questions that are relevant to them and leave out the irrelevant ones. For instance, some students might not play video games or read English-language books; therefore, questionnaires are ideal as students can leave sections blank if they do not engage in certain activities. As in the case of the language diary, Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016) emphasize the importance of tailoring the questionnaire to the learners' ages as well.

In the context of EE activities, data collection through questionnaires has plenty of benefits. Teachers and researchers can save a great deal of time and effort by administering questionnaires to explore learners' EE interests. If the questionnaire is well constructed, a plethora of information may be gathered, and the processing and statistical analysis of the data also do not require as much time as opposed to other methods (cf. language diaries, interviews, language portfolios). More importantly, this method can ensure the anonymity of the students, which may reduce the effect of the social desirability bias (i.e., survey respondents' tendency to answer survey questions in a way that will be viewed favorably by others).

Questionnaires, however, have limitations, too. Overly long questionnaires can ultimately yield unreliable data since students can easily get bored and tired if they have to fill in long questionnaires (Denscombe 2014). No single universal questionnaire covering all EE interests can be created and therefore, they should always be modified and fine-tuned so that we can measure

whatever we would like to measure. A questionnaire for young learners should contain more simplified questions than one for adult learners, and the content should also be different. Furthermore, as opposed to interviews, questionnaires are unsuitable for investigating EE activities in-depth as we need to have certain preconceptions to compile the questions. Questionnaires, therefore, do not allow for an emerging research design, and as such, new activities may only be explored through the use of open-ended questions.

3.1.2 Interviews

Another possible tool for investigating learners' interests is to conduct interviews, which are one-to-one "professional conversations" (Kvale 1996: 5). Dörnyei (2007) states that interviews are quite common in everyday life, i.e., interviews appear on television, can be listened to through the radio or on the Internet and most people are interviewed when applying for a position at a workplace. He points out that this familiarity with interviews allows for the frequent use of interviews as a qualitative research technique. In addition, the interview can do what questionnaire surveys cannot, i.e., it is suitable for an in-depth investigation of an issue.

Interviews have different types based on the extent they are structured (Wellington 2015), but for mapping learner interests, semi-structured interviews may prove to be an excellent tool for several reasons. Semi-structured interviews are a compromise between heavily structured and unstructured interviews. There is a set of questions that the interviewer uses; however, with open-ended questions and probes (i.e., detail-oriented or clarification questions), the interviewer can guide and stir the flow of the interview session toward certain directions around which the investigation is centered (Bogdan–Biklen 2007). Also, as opposed to questionnaires, there is an opportunity for follow-up questions and in-depth elaborations from interviewees. Another feature of interviews is that interview guides are used during the interviewing process so that no important details are left out and to ensure that all important areas are covered. Interviews are often voice-recorded so that they can be analyzed more carefully in the future.

Dörnyei (2007) lists some of the advantages and disadvantages of interviews. The main advantage of using interviews is their aforementioned familiarity for most people. For instance, the interviewees may feel more comfortable being interviewed than being video recorded. The interviewer's presence in the interviewing process can also contribute to better coverage of the subject of investigation and allows for the use of probes. Emerging patterns may also shape the interview itself and shape subsequent interviews with further

interviewees too (cf. exploratory studies). On the other hand, interviews are rather time-consuming both to set up and to conduct. Often, since they are voice-recorded, participants may feel that there are certain answers that the interviewers expect them to give (due to social desirability bias). Some participants may simply be too timid; therefore, the data collected may not be as rich as previously anticipated and hoped for. Finally, for an in-depth analysis, interviews need to be transcribed verbatim, which is an extremely time-consuming endeavor.

3.2 Overview of the studies

In order to find answers to the research questions of the present research project, three closely related studies were carried out. Table 5 provides an overview of the different stages, that is, the studies of this book, with the data sources and methods of data analysis, and Table 6 provides a visual representation of which study aims to find answers to which research question.

Table 5. An overview of data sources and data analysis

Study	Data sources	Methods of analysis
Study One	Interview sessions with 12 students in secondary education	semi-structured interview study (content analysis)
Study Two	A questionnaire filled in by 325 EFL students in secondary education	statistical analysis (descriptive and inferential statistics)
Study Three	A questionnaire filled in by 60 EFL teachers in secondary education	statistical analysis (descriptive and inferential statistics)

Study One is an interview study that aimed to collect data on Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests by conducting semi-structured interviews with Hungarian secondary school students from different high schools in Hungary. Based on the findings of the interview sessions, in Study Two, a large-scale questionnaire study was conducted with Hungarian secondary school students to investigate the popularity and frequency of engagement in EE activities as well as students' perceptions of them. In the same questionnaire, students' L2 learning motivation and the closely related concepts (e.g., intercultural orientation), as well as L2 anxiety and L2 willingness to communicate, were investigated.

Table 6. Correspondences between research questions and studies

Research questions	**Which study helps answer the RQ?**
RQ1 What extramural English activities do Hungarian secondary school EFL learners engage in?	Study One (Chapter 4) Study Two (Chapter 5)
RQ2 What are Hungarian secondary school students' perceptions of extramural English activities in EFL learning?	Study Two (Chapter 5) Study Three (Chapter 6)
RQ3 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions of extramural English activities in EFL learning?	Study Three (Chapter 6)
RQ4 How do extramural English activities affect Hungarian secondary school EFL learners' various individual learner differences? **RQ4.1** What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 learning motivation? **RQ4.2** What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 anxiety? **RQ4.3** What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 willingness to communicate?	Study Two (Chapter 5)
RQ5 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' and students' perceptions of EFL students' various individual differences?	Study Two (Chapter 5) Study Three (Chapter 6)
RQ6 What impact do the various EE activities and various individual differences have on Hungarian secondary school students' in-school motivated learning behavior and extramural motivated language use?	Study Two (Chapter 5)

Finally, in Study Three, a large-scale questionnaire study aimed to gather data on Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' opinions and beliefs on how often Hungarian secondary school students engage in the different EE activities. In this study, Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions of the benefits of incorporating EE activities into EFL lessons were investigated. Furthermore, it is important to point out that the research design was evolving in nature, meaning that each study and its results and findings shaped and formed the subsequent studies. Thus, the findings of the interview sessions in Study One contributed to both the student (Study Two) and the teacher questionnaires (Study Three).

3.3 Quality criteria in the research project

Quality control in all studies was ensured based on the measures detailed in the literature (Cohen et al. 2018, Creswell–Creswell 2018, Dörnyei 2007, Wellington 2015). An overview of these measures is outlined below.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) assert that the key quality criteria of qualitative research are: *credibility*, *dependability*, *transferability*, and *conformability*. First, *credibility* is the truth value of the research, meaning that the results of the research are believable. In order to ensure the credibility of the qualitative study (Study One) of the research project, several measures were taken. In line with Cohen et al.'s (2018) recommendations, the first measure was the involvement of other researchers (co-coders) in the coding and analysis of the gathered data, and the codes were intermittently compared and fine-tuned until agreement on the final coding system was reached; periodically, my own understanding of what the participants said during the interview was ensured by paraphrasing and summarizing to participants what they had said and asking for more clarification (respondent validation). Second, *dependability* means that the findings of the research are consistent and can be repeated. Third, *transferability* means the extent to which the research can be transferred to other contexts. Both dependability and transferability were ensured by providing thick descriptions and high detail on important aspects of the research (e.g., rich description of the methods, findings, etc.) so that other researchers could replicate the study. Finally, *confirmability* concerns to what extent the findings are supported by the collected data (Dörnyei 2007), which was ensured by involving co-coders in the case of Study One.

On the other hand, the key quality criteria of quantitative research are *internal validity, external validity*, *reliability*, and *objectivity* (Cohen et al. 2018). *Internal validity* refers to the soundness of the research (Creswell–Creswell 2018), and it is the quantitative counterpart of the qualitative term *credibility*. Internal validity was ensured by adopting the mixed-methods research design (cf. method and data source triangulation), where the quantitative questionnaire survey is preceded by a qualitative interview study. *External validity* means the extent to which the results of the study can be generalized to a population (Wellington 2015), and it is the quantitative counterpart of transferability. The external validity of the quantitative studies in the scope of this research project was ensured by extending the sample size and making an attempt to involve secondary school students and secondary school EFL teachers from all types of secondary schools and all regions in Hungary. Obviously, this does not allow for a representative sample, but the research project being exploratory in nature, the original aim of the research was not to produce completely generalizable results that may be transferable to the whole population of Hungarian secondary school students and secondary school EFL

teachers. *Reliability* in quantitative research refers to whether the item scores of an instrument are internally consistent, meaning the item responses are consistent across constructs (Creswell–Creswell 2018); it is the quantitative counterpart of dependability. In order to ensure reliability in the quantitative studies (questionnaires), the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated to ensure the reliability of the questionnaires; in addition, earlier theoretical and validated empirical studies were also consulted, and certain constructs were adopted from these empirical studies. Last but not least, *objectivity* in quantitative research refers to what extent the analysis is affected by the researcher's personal beliefs and feelings (Cohen et al. 2018); this is the quantitative counterpart of confirmability. Objectivity was ensured by involving external researchers in the research at the stage when the obtained results were interpreted.

3.4 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues concerning this research project include the problem of the amount of shared information about the research, the anonymity of the participants, the issue of potentially sensitive information, data storage, and the consent of students' parents and teachers to participate in the research (Cohen et al. 2018, Dörnyei 2007).

Firstly, the issue of the amount of shared information was addressed. It is important to share some information with the participants about the research project; however, too little shared information is unethical, and too much information shared could result in response bias or non-participation. Therefore, participants were informed about the purpose of the study and its significance with the possible pedagogical pay-off, too.

Another important aspect was to ensure the anonymity of the participants throughout the whole research project (Cohen et al. 2018). The questionnaires were anonymous, and pseudonyms were used in the interview study so that the identity of the participants could not be traced back. A closely related issue was the handling of the collected data. The voice recordings with their transcripts were stored on a separate USB stick to which only I had access. The data was stored until June 2022; then, the USB stick was formatted, i.e., all information was deleted. Any sensitive information I learned about the participants in the research process is kept confidential in the future as well and will not be shared with a third party.

Last but not least, Study Two was conducted with secondary school students but was a questionnaire study; therefore, there was no need for individual parental consent as the data to be collected were not sensitive (cf. Johnson–Christensen 2019). However, headmasters and form teachers were consulted,

and data collection started only after being granted permission; additionally, all obtained data were handled and collected according to the GDPR rules.

As opposed to Study Two, Study One investigated the views and perceptions of secondary school students, and since it was an interview study, parental consent was asked from the potential minor participants' parents. For obtaining the consent, a written consent form was used and was based on Cohen et al. (2018), Creswell and Creswell (2018), and Johnson and Christensen (2019). The written parental consent form contained an explanation of the purpose of the research project and all the procedures of the research as well as a statement about the confidentiality of the recordings and the personal data (Graham et al. 2013). It also described how long the voice recordings were kept (until June 2022), and who had access to the data and the recordings (the researcher and his supervisors, as well as some of the co-coders who provided assistance with the coding). The form also indicated that participation in the research project was voluntary, and each participant had the right to withdraw from participation at any time without any further consequences. Furthermore, the form contained a section for the signature of the participants' parents to confirm they agreed to the provisions described above. Finally, in the case of the interview study (Study One), after starting the recording device, both the adult and minor participants' oral consent was asked before starting the actual interview.

Chapter 4

STUDY ONE

This section provides an overview of the methods used for Study One. For readers' convenience, the first research question is repeated below.

RQ1 What extramural English activities do Hungarian secondary school EFL learners engage in?

For the first study, semi-structured interviews were chosen as the method for investigating Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests because, as Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016: 157) explain, semi-structured interviews are "the best way to get to know one's students and what they do and appreciate in their extramural lives." Furthermore, in order to explore and collect as much data as possible about a previously unknown domain as well as obtain insights into Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests, the qualitative research paradigm was chosen. The EE interests of secondary school students may be an unknown field for researchers; therefore, a qualitative research design may prove useful because it can provide rich data for a start and for further (quantitative) investigation (Richards–Morse 2013). Also, qualitative interview studies do not "limit the depth and breadth of the respondent's story" (Dörnyei 2007: 120), allowing for the exploratory nature of the study at this stage.

4.1 Participants

Study One aimed to examine Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests. For the recruitment of the participants, purposive sampling was used since the qualitative nature of this study was not concerned with the representativeness of the sample acquired but, rather, aimed to find individuals and participants who could provide rich and varied data (Johnson–Christensen 2019). Therefore, my professional acquaintances working in secondary education in Hungary were asked to refer me to some of their potential secondary school students who they thought were engaging heavily in EE activities.

Table 7. Background information on the participants of Study One

Pseudonyms	Age	Gender	Grade	Type of school	Language(s) spoken (besides their native Hungarian)	English learned for
Ben	16	male	9th	bilingual (German) secondary school	German, English	1 year
Beatrice	18	female	11th	secondary school (with 6 grades)*	English, German	11 years
Charlie	17	male	11th	secondary school	English, German, Swedish	9 years
Christian	16	male	10th	secondary school (with 8 grades)*	English, French	8 years
Lucas	18	male	12th	secondary school, (with 8 grades)*	English, German	8 years
Lina	18	female	11th	secondary school	English, Spanish	4 years
Luna	16	female	10th	secondary school	English, German	6 years
Paul	17	male	11th	secondary school (vocational school)	English, German	3 years
Sandra	17	female	11th	secondary school	English, German, Spanish	11 years
Vera	18	female	12th	secondary school (vocational school)	English, German	8 years
Victor	15	male	10th	secondary school (with 6 grades)*	French, English	4 years
Valentina	15	female	9th	bilingual (Hebrew) secondary school from 1st grade	English, Hebrew	5 years

* In the Hungarian compulsory public education system, students first go to primary school (8 years), which is followed by their secondary school studies (4 years). After leaving the 4th (or the 6th) grade in primary school, however, there is an opportunity for students with excellent academic results to continue their studies in eight-year (or six-year) secondary schools provided that these students take an entry exam.

Additionally, my former students were also contacted and asked to participate in the interviews. Based on snowball sampling, all these participants were then asked to find other secondary school students who could potentially participate in the interview study. The selection of schools was mainly based on the few initial participants, but attention was paid to evenly choosing learners from secondary schools both in Budapest and other major towns across the country to enrich the data and ensure maximum diversity of participants. Altogether 12 participants were recruited for Study One, and there were 6 female and 6 male participants in the study. Table 7 summarizes the most important information about the background of the participants, and participants are referred to by pseudonyms to ensure anonymity.

Besides indicating basic demographic data, participants' age, gender, grade, and the types of schools they attend are also described. Participants' foreign language skills are also listed, and the order of languages reflects the chronological order in which the students started to learn each foreign language. The first two are compulsory, and the third languages, where relevant, are chosen as extra foreign languages learned either in high school or privately, e.g., in a language school or through a private tutor, etc. Finally, Table 7 also includes the length of their learning English.

4.2 The instrument and the pilot process

The interview guide was designed based on Corbin and Strauss's (2015: 78) approach, which may be summarized as "having insights as well as being tuned into and being able to pick up on relevant issues, events, and happenings during collection and analysis of the data." This approach was chosen for a simple reason: as opposed to Glaser and Strauss (1967), who claim that qualitative inquiries should be conducted in a manner where the researchers have no previous expectations in terms of the results of the investigation and where themes and patterns emerge naturally, Corbin and Strauss (2015) point out that research is always conducted in a manner where researchers have at least a few ideas on the phenomenon in question.

For the validation of the research instrument, Prescott's (2011: 21) steps were used; however, only the relevant steps were used in the validation process of this research instrument:

1. Review of the literature on EE activities
2. Self-reflection and brainstorming
3. First draft of the interview guide
4. Expert judgment and the expert-reviewed draft
5. Pilot interviews

6. Asking for feedback on the schedule from participants in the pilot interviews
7. Final version

The first step in creating the instrument was to consult the theoretical and empirical literature on EE activities. After consulting the literature and through several brainstorming sessions, the initial draft of the interview guide was created. As the next step, a first draft and an initial interview guide were created consisting of two separate parts. The first part of the interview guide contained a few warm-up questions, the purpose of which was to obtain information on the backgrounds of the participants as well as to break the ice and create rapport. The second part of the guide contained questions aiming to gather information about the EE interests of the participants.

This first draft of the interview guide went through a reviewing process (expert judgment) by two separate professionals in the field. Some of the questions were subsequently modified, and a few additional ones were added to the interview guide. Only after the expert judgment did the pilot interviews take place. After the pilot interviews (see Fajt 2021a), some minor adjustments (e.g., changes in the wording of some of the questions) were implemented, and then the instrument was used to conduct the interviews that formed the basis of the present study.

As indicated before, due to the exploratory nature of this inquiry, each and every interview shaped the interview guide; that is, new categories and, therefore, questions were added upon the emergence of new themes and patterns. The final interview guide is included in the *Appendices* (see *Appendix A*).

4.3 Data collection

The interview sessions took place in Spring 2020 and had the following structure. After receiving prior parental consent, participants were assured that their answers and the whole interview session would be highly confidential. It was also clarified that since it was not an exam, I was interested in their views and ideas and was not looking for "right" answers. Then, participants were asked to provide their verbal consent so that the sessions could be tape-recorded. In order to break the ice at the beginning of the interview sessions, the sessions started with warm-up questions. These ice-breaker questions were related to the previous English studies of participants. Then the main part of the interviews focused on the participants' extramural interests and attempted to find out as much as possible about participants' EE interests by using follow-up questions and probes. Each time a new theme or topic emerged, they were added to the initial version of the interview guide.

The interviews were conducted in Hungarian, the mother tongue of all the participants, and the length of the interviews was approx. 15-20 minutes. The reason behind the preference for Hungarian was that it is wiser to carry out interviews in the mother tongue of the participants as they are not limited by their English language proficiency (Dörnyei 2007). The instrument used for data collection was also devised in Hungarian, although the interview protocol provided in *Appendix A* has been translated into English.

4.4 Methods of data analysis

The reason for the number of interviews (12 interview sessions altogether) was that in qualitative research and, therefore, in interview studies, two key concepts have to be taken into consideration. One of these concepts is *iteration*, and the other one is *saturation* (Dörnyei 2007). *Iteration* refers to the cyclical process of collecting data (conducting interviews) and analyzing the obtained data and doing this repeatedly until data saturation is achieved. This means that data collection lasts as long as the newly conducted interviews reveal new patterns and themes. As soon as the interviews start yielding data that simply repeats what previous participants have already shared in the previous interviews, data is saturated, i.e., new themes do not emerge (Corbin–Strauss 2015).

The data analysis was conducted based on the Constant Comparative Method of the Grounded Theory (Corbin–Strauss 2015, Glaser–Strauss 1967). After reaching data saturation, all recordings were transcribed verbatim, and the transcriptions were read through, followed by the initial coding of the texts. At this stage, emerging themes were searched for, and when all possible new themes had emerged, all transcripts were reread and checked in order to ensure that no important information was left out. Initial coding was followed by second-level coding, wherein the transcripts were read again, the codes were compared, and similar or closely related codes were clustered together under a new label. Furthermore, in order to ensure quality control, two of my colleagues were asked to take the role of co-coders and code certain segments of the transcript. Finally, participants' utterances provided as quotations in this chapter were translated into English.

4.5 The findings of Study One

After the final (axial) coding, all of the codes were collected and resulted in the following emerging main themes summarized in Table 8.

Table 8. The main emerging themes in Study One

Theme	**Description of the theme**	**Number of participants mentioning the theme**
Strategies used when studying English at home or preparing for EFL lessons	What learning strategies are employed by students to do their homework and prepare for EFL lessons at school and how they prepare for quizzes and tests	12
Traveling abroad and using English	The situations in which students are required to use the English language abroad (e.g., ordering food in a restaurant abroad)	12
Watching television, movies and series in English	The English-language television shows, movies and series students watch in their leisure time	12
Watching videos in English	The English-language videos students watch on different video sharing websites (e.g., YouTube), excluding TV shows, movies and series	12
Listening to music in English	The English-language songs students listen to	12
Reading blogs in English	The English-language blogs students read	4
Reading text-based traditional media in English	The English-language text-based traditional media (books, novels, short stories, magazines, etc.) students read	6
Reading and checking news in English	The English-language news students read on the Internet	7
Using social media in English	The English-language social media consumption habits of students, excluding videos (even those on social media websites, such as Instagram)	12
Playing video games in English	The English-language video games students play and the intercultural communication taking place in English when engaging in online video games	5
Exposure to native speakers of English or speakers with different L1s than that of the participants	Engaging in everyday conversations with people whose L1 or L2 is English (e.g., tourists asking for directions, friends or acquaintances whose L1s are different from Hungarian)	10
Communicating in English while doing sports	Doing sports and using English as a lingua franca for intercultural communication; this may be common for students who are professional or semi-professional sportspeople	1
Using English at school in classes other than EFL	Using English as a means to gather information about a topic	4

Other patterns were also found, but these were related to one of the categories above; therefore, after the final coding, the closely related themes, if they could be appropriately connected, were merged. There were activities, however, which were similar but were not merged. For instance, the difference between 'watching videos' and 'using social media in English (excluding videos, even those on social media such as Instagram)' could appear vague at first as it is virtually impossible to use Instagram and TikTok without videos. The reason for creating separate categories for them was that they are done on different smart device applications and are, therefore, worth measuring the engagement in these EE activities separately (cf. Study Two). In this section, the patterns are discussed in detail.

4.5.1 Different techniques and strategies when studying English at home

The first theme concerned the techniques and strategies students apply when preparing for their in-school English lessons, as all students were asked to elaborate on their habits of preparing for EFL lessons (e.g., doing homework) and preparing for EFL tests at school. The reason for eliciting such information was to obtain insights into whether participants use any external help, such as learning applications or visiting websites supporting language learning, etc.

All the participants mentioned that they get homework from their EFL teacher on a regular basis, from lesson to lesson. As a result, and as anticipated, participants mostly elaborated on how they do their homework or how they prepare for tests and vocabulary quizzes. As for preparing for grammar and vocabulary tests only some participants use applications for smart devices supporting language learning, such as Quizlet and Memrise, and most participants only check the explanations in the coursebook. This is, however, not a learning approach that is most suitable for a successful acquisition of a grammatical phenomenon, as it does not allow for a contextualized use of the particular L2, the importance of which is underlined in the literature (cf. functional practice emphasized by Bialystok 1981).

One of the participants claimed that sometimes it is not enough for him to check the grammatical explanations in the book, but he also checks them on the Internet. He pointed out that "there is always a summary of a certain grammatical phenomenon in our book, I read it, but I prefer to check it on the Internet because it's explained in a different way there, and it's easier for me to understand it" (Christian). He also added that when it comes to grammar, he prefers explanations in Hungarian and, therefore, visits websites that provide a grammatical overview in Hungarian, and then he likes to do interactive

online grammatical exercises to practice the given grammatical phenomenon, which may be considered a much more contextualized way of learning than simply checking the explanations in a coursebook. This former learning approach of using interactive exercises, at least to some extent, caters to functional practice (Bialystok 1981) because here, the sentences and the written texts provide a bit more context for learners than simply memorizing the grammatical rules from a coursebook.

As for vocabulary learning, Lucas claims that "learning words is not pleasant, but necessary," and, similarly to other participants, he often creates paper-based word lists and does not prefer to use applications designed specifically for vocabulary learning. Vera also adopts a similar learning approach, which she explains as follows: "I take five words at a time and start adding more, and more and then I try to write all of them down, like a printer." These learning methods may work in the short term, and learners may be able to obtain good grades on tests at school; however, they certainly do not cater to incidental learning, as writing down the word or expression several times does not enable a learner to encounter, let alone use these words or phrases in context. Yet, extensive exposure to vocabulary items is a prerequisite for intentional and incidental learning (Schmidt 1993, 1995, 2001).

Surprisingly, only two participants mentioned that they use smartphone applications for learning vocabulary. In her interview, Lina explained how Quizlet works:

> [I]t's a website […] where you can add words and definitions, but you don't have to define them. You can just add their meaning, and, well, it helps memorize things. You can set it to show only the words, and then you try to guess their meaning in Hungarian. Or vice versa, you set it to show the Hungarian meaning, and then you guess the English word.

It is apparent that she clearly understands the benefits of using applications supporting language learning. Most students, however, only keep reading the vocabulary items and simply try to memorize them. Only a small proportion of students try to form sentences with the items or attempt to contextualize them, which barely supports intentional or incidental learning. Paul, for instance, explained his learning strategies in the following way:

> I use a word collection; these are words I take notes of in class or while doing homework. I try to memorize these words and expressions, I read them many times, and I try to form sentences with them so I can associate them with something.

Furthermore, it appears that one of the participants, Charlie, demonstrates higher linguistic awareness than the other participants and often makes

attempts to deliberately grasp the meaning of the encountered vocabulary items. He said that he uses the online version of Oxford Learner's Dictionary to check the meaning of previously unknown words or phrases because, as he claims: "I trust its authenticity […] and I think you can better describe the meaning of English words [in English] than in Hungarian". This high level of awareness is likely rooted in the fact that Charlie's mother is an EFL teacher, who might have equipped him with learning skills and strategies.

Finally, one participant, Victor, claims that he only does his homework. He says that "I have to do it because, if not, I get a bad grade. I don't really study otherwise", which means that in EFL at school, he does not seem to be motivated to study and prepare for the lessons. This reflects what Henry (2013) calls the authenticity gap, which refers to the discrepancy between students' perceptions of in-class EFL lessons and extramural English. The former may be of less interest to students than the latter, which could more likely involve students' own interests.

4.5.2 Going abroad and using English in different situations

The second theme was traveling to foreign countries and using English for intercultural communication. The importance of using English when interacting with friends and other people with different L1s, in general, is also emphasized in the literature (Crystal 2003, De Wilde et al. 2019, Djigunovic 2018, Sauer–Ellis 2019, Sayer–Ban 2014, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2014, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2012) and the main benefit is that this kind of communication provides learners with a plethora of L2 input in a contextualized and interactive environment.

As for traveling abroad, all participants have already been abroad at least once, yet only five of them have been to a country where English is an official language. Most students have visited some of the neighboring countries of Hungary, such as Austria, Slovakia, and Romania, where there is a significant Hungarian minority, and also Croatia, a typical holiday destination for Hungarian people. These foreign trips had mainly three purposes; there were school trips to the UK organized by the participants' secondary schools for language learning practices and school trips organized by the participants' secondary schools to neighboring countries of Hungary for recreational purposes (e.g., sightseeing). Finally, there were individual family trips organized by the participants' parents.

For instance, on the school trips to England students had to participate in an intensive EFL language course, where they learned English. In addition, participants' Hungarian EFL teachers created further tasks for students to make the most of the time spent in the UK. In Valentina's words:

> The emphasis was on showing our language skills: there were different tasks, like, they asked questions in English about what we had seen and found out about different objects in a museum, and we had to prepare an essay about them by the end of the school term.

A participant, Charlie, had the chance to take part in a secondary school exchange program which allowed him to go to Sweden for a week. Since he speaks a little Swedish, it would have been straightforward to use and practice his Swedish, but they used English as a common ground. In his words: "I don't speak so much Swedish, and, well, […] they also spoke English… and everyone spoke English". It was probably easier for him to speak English than Swedish as his proficiency in English is higher, and this may have required less effort. In intercultural contexts, English often serves as a common ground between speakers with different L1s, enabling them to make new connections or even friendships (cf. Clément–Kruidenier 1983). Also, peers and friends can contribute significantly to maintaining learners' L2 learning motivation, too (Root 1999), as people are more motivated to learn and use an L2 if they can communicate with someone they like.

Similarly, Sandra defined situations with non-native speaker interactions as "interesting." In her words: "I think it's interesting to talk to non-native English speakers. We speak the same language, but in a different way". To some extent, she is clearly aware of the fact that non-native speakers of English use the language differently from native speakers. Vera talked about her school trip organized by her secondary school to Slovakia:

> During a field trip, we got lost. It took us three attempts with three different people to get directions back to our accommodation that we could actually understand. We probably made lots of mistakes while asking for directions.

Even though the explicit purpose of this trip was not to practice English, the common ground for students from Hungary and the local people in Slovakia was English, as this was the only way to communicate with one another. This resonates with the literature that people with different L1s often use English as a lingua franca to make themselves understood (Crystal 2003, De Wilde et al. 2019, Djigunovic 2018, Sauer–Ellis 2019, Sayer–Ban 2014, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2014, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2012).

Participants also often went on private trips with their parents. During these journeys, most students had to use English for communication purposes. Some students did not, either because they were relatively young or because their proficiency in English was not as high as it was at the time of the interview, or somebody in the family spoke English and undertook the role of interpreter

for the family. Those who had to use English mentioned several different situations. The majority of the participants reported that they had to use English when going shopping; Lujza, for instance, claimed that having learned English was useful when she had to "go shopping and buy some products." Lina also stated that whenever she was abroad, she had to buy tickets for public transport and use English to communicate with locals using the English language, which again resonates with the literature emphasizing the lingua franca nature of the English language (Crystal 2003, De Wilde et al. 2019, Djigunovic 2018, Sauer–Ellis 2019, Sayer–Ban 2014, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2014, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2012).

Students also used English when they had to ask for information or give information to other people. Valentina, for instance, pointed out that:

> If we wanted to go somewhere, and my sibling was not there, I was able to ask how to get from point A to point B, and if we had a question about something, I could ask for information.

This is further reinforced by Lucas, who stated that "there is always somebody who can help you in English". He also gave an account of his family trip to Greece when he wanted to purchase a bracelet.

> In Greece, I had to tell a street vendor selling bracelets that I am not going to spend 10€ on a bracelet, but he… was from Nigeria, so he spoke good English, that's why I could tell him I'm not going to give him 10€. […] [K]nowing English was very useful since it was his mother tongue, I could make it clear that he is not getting 10€.

It is clear from the accounts of the students who had to use English abroad that speaking English is indeed a valuable asset as it can help one get from A to B or even find a solution in different situations, even when one of the interlocutors has difficulties expressing themselves in English. Lucas stated,

> I had to talk to a half-French, half-English gentleman, who had to resort to gestures to make himself understood. But it definitely helped that I understood even a little bit of English. However, he just suddenly switched to French in the middle of the sentence multiple times.

Participants seem to use the English language quite a few times when abroad as, in most cases, it is the only common ground in intercultural communication, and they also seem to realize the importance and global dominance of the English language, which reinforces the findings of previous research carried out in the Hungarian context (cf. Csizér–Lukács 2010).

4.5.3 Watching films and series

The third topic was watching TV, movies, and series in English. As these are typical pastime activities for the general population, it is no surprise that most students watch movies and TV shows on a regular basis. There are differences, however, in the preferences of students in terms of the language of the content they consume. Paul mostly watches everything in Hungarian because he has a preference for the Hungarian dubbed versions of movies and (television) series. In his words: "TV shows I don't [watch so much in English] because I like to watch them more in Hungarian." Christian, on the other hand, consumes media in English because he thinks that it is an opportunity to improve his command of English, a conclusion drawn in the literature, too (Chapple–Curtis 2000, King 2002, Keene 2006, Liando et al. 2018, Lin–Siyanova-Chanturia 2014, Qiang et al. 2007). Krisztián explains this follows:

> Well, I watch movies and TV shows as well. I think it helps a lot with learning English, and it's entertaining. Basically, you're watching something that is interesting, and you learn lots of new words, expressions. I usually watch TV shows in English, and when I don't understand something, I pause it and look the word up in a dictionary.

Christian seems to demonstrate more awareness of the benefits of watching films and (television) series in English. This idea is in line with the literature on the benefits of using films as authentic L2 input for incidental learning (Lin et al. 2014).

He also adds that he uses English subtitles when watching movies and TV shows in English, but the same is not true for all participants. Valentina, for instance, only uses subtitles when the characters speak too fast. In her words: "Sometimes I use subtitles, but if I understand everything, I don't even use subtitles; maybe in English in case they speak too fast and I wouldn't be able to understand it." In her utterance, Valentina unknowingly reflects on the literature, which also emphasizes the importance and benefits of using subtitles in comprehension as they reduce the cognitive burden and help viewers understand what they hear with more ease (Guichon–McLornan 2008, Markham et al. 2001, Montero Perez et al. 2014, Winke et al. 2010). In contrast, Charlie watches everything in English without any subtitles because he likes films and (television) series more in English and, as he puts it, "you have to wait a lot for the subtitles." By this, he means that films and (television) series are released much later, usually several months later, in Hungary. This applies to Lina as well, who claims that movies with characters speaking in an American accent are not difficult to understand, and she only uses subtitles if there is more

technical language in the movie or TV show as subtitles can help her understand the different accents the characters use in the movie or (television) series (Mitterer–McQueen 2009). Lucas also points out that he does not consume anything in Hungarian but uses English subtitles so that when he cannot hear something, he can check it. He also adds that "Subtitles help me a lot. I think when one hears and sees something at the same time, they learn much faster". Lina points out that a lot depends on the genre of the movie or series as well since films with a simpler plot or story are easier to follow and understand. In her words:

> It generally depends on how advanced the vocabulary is that they're using, for example, the show *Friends*, which has lots of everyday conversations, I can watch it in English, but for instance, a more "complex" fantasy movie, where I have to understand what's what and all the "mythical" and difficult things, I'd rather watch them in English with English or Hungarian subtitles so I can enjoy it.

These thoughts of the participants also reflect on the literature in which it is asserted that regardless of language (i.e., whether they use intralingual or interlingual subtitles), subtitles reduce the cognitive burden on language learners, which results in an easier comprehension of the content of the videos (Baranowska 2020). In addition, the lexical coverage of movies, i.e., how many different vocabulary items and how complex these items are, is also highly dependent on the genre, so sitcoms, such as *Friends*, are indeed more likely to be comprehended with less effort than movies or series with difficult scientific terms (Webb–Rodgers 2009).

Interviewees were also asked whether they could remember any words, expressions, or phrases that they learned from movies or TV shows. The most common phrases were either everyday expressions, such as "let's get it over with" or "I beg your pardon." Sandra claims that these common expressions are not present in coursebooks, and most of these words and expressions are frequently used. In her words: "[Things] they say often, but [are] not in textbooks." Indeed, as Qiang et al. (2007) point out, movies are an excellent way for learners to encounter idiomatic L2 language use and familiarize themselves with the target language culture. Many participants mentioned that they learned technical terms related to certain topics, such as "warfare" and the different types of weapons from movies, and terms related to religions, such as "monk" from the TV show *Vikings*.

From participants' accounts, it becomes evident that they demonstrate a preference for watching films and series in the original language, usually the English language. Furthermore, participants show awareness of the benefits of watching films and series in English when striving to improve their EFL skills.

4.5.4 Watching videos in English

The next theme was watching videos in English on different video-sharing websites. YouTube is among the most visited online platforms, so it was no surprise that participants said they watched videos mostly on YouTube. In the initial interviews, female and male learners reported different interests in terms of which categories they liked to watch. Most female participants like watching beauty channels on YouTube and interviews with movie stars. Talk shows are also a popular choice among girls. Beatrice, for example, said that "well, I like watching Hollywood talk shows mostly, but not that often."

Besides, Valentina states that she watches tutorial videos on personal computer troubleshooting, for instance, and educational videos providing information on a particular topic. She explains that the information is more accessible on the Internet in English than in Hungarian. In her words:

> [I watch] educational videos, [...] because the internet can convey lots of information which is better explained in English than in Hungarian, and yes, I regularly [watch them] in English, I'm especially interested in diseases and also there are many biographies that make more sense in English than Hungarian.

By consuming content to gain knowledge and explaining that such content "makes more sense in English," participants reflect on the functional practice notion in SLA (Bialystok 1981). Here participants emphasize the use of language as a means of gaining new knowledge, and in such situations, they may be regarded as language users, not language learners. This obviously does not mean that no L2 learning can take place, but the deliberate emphasis is placed on language use, and L2 learning may occur simultaneously (Bialystok 1981). In addition, since the dominance of the English language is much higher than that of the Hungarian language and this is perceived by most Hungarian EFL learners (Csizér–Lukács 2010), it makes sense to try to find information in English rather than Hungarian, especially when it comes to more technical topics.

Boys, on the one hand, prefer tutorial videos and video blogs about video games and gaming. Christian, for instance, watches lots of gaming videos and streams as well. In his words: "[I] usually watch Twitch gaming streams." Similarly, Victor also watches streams on Twitch where no subtitles are available, which may lead to an increased cognitive burden (Baranowska 2020) when it comes to understanding the streamers; however, this also definitely contributes to improving his listening skills and can at the same time help him understand the different native and non-native English accents (Mitterer–McQueen 2009). Valentina, a female participant, identified as a "gamer" in the interview

and stated that she watches gameplay videos on YouTube and follows many famous gamers, such PewDiePie, a Swedish internet personality. In her words:

> [I usually] watch gamer videos, for example, I used to be a fan of PewDiePie. There are lots of Hungarian gamers who use English commentary in their videos, or [there are] many games that are not in English, and it's easier to [learn English and] comprehend them.

She also adds that at first, she had difficulties understanding PewDiePie, but then she got used to "the way he [PewDiePie] talks," and it became easier for her to understand him. She explains this as follows: "In the beginning, a few expressions were not clear, and I wasn't sure what they mean, but then I got used to the way he speaks, and it was easier to understand [everything]" (Valentina). This again resonates with the literature and supports that watching videos may familiarize viewers with the different accents of an L2 (Mitterer–McQueen 2009).

Finally, it seems that when it comes to consuming visual content, similar to the findings of previous research (Regueira et al. 2020, Wegener et al. 2020), there are some gender differences between the online video consumption habits of boys and girls, and both genders consume more content traditionally associated with their respective gender; as for video sharing platforms, however, both boys and girls prefer all kinds of websites.

4.5.5 Listening to music in the English language

The next theme was listening to music in English. All participants reported that they listen to music in the English language; some of them even said that they have an exclusive preference for songs in English which, besides being an enjoyable EE activity, can also provide learners with an extensive amount of L2 input (Fonseca-Mora et al. 2011, Schwarz 2013, Sundqvist 2009).

When asked about the lyrics of the songs, Paul stated that he checks the lyrics but never tries to translate them into Hungarian. In his words: "I don't bother too much with translating lyrics into Hungarian because songs are sometimes impossible to translate. The meaning is lost." Other participants use a variety of strategies when they do not understand a line in a song. Luna, for instance, checks the meaning of unknown words herself. Her explanation was as follows: "I check the lyrics, and I usually understand everything, if not, I just look up some definitions or look for a translation." Lucas uses a similar strategy and points out that songs usually contain everyday vocabulary and are easier to understand than movies, which is the conclusion made by Murphy (1992) as well. In his words: "I usually comprehend most of the lyrics. Songs are usually

simple, and the singers do not speak very elaborately because it's difficult to find words that rhyme". By this, Lucas means that in songs, it is not using a varied vocabulary but making words rhyme that is more important. He continues:

> [If there are] lines that I have difficulty understanding, I usually look up the words in the dictionary, but this is less common than in the case of movies because most of the words are familiar, and if somebody speaks at least a little English, they can figure out [the meaning or message] because there are really simple words in these songs.

This, again, reflects on the lexical coverage of songs, which is much lower than movies, enabling learners to have a deeper understanding (Murphy 1992).

Finally, Ben highlighted the differences between native and non-native English performers. He claimed that it is easier for him to understand non-native speakers. He commented on this as follows: "If there are performers who learned English as a foreign language, I understand it better because they speak more clearly [than native speakers]" (Ben). It is somewhat surprising that he considers non-native speakers' pronunciation "nicer" than that of native speakers.

4.5.6 Reading in English

Reading books, blogs, and online content in English is another EE category that could serve as an important resource for EFL input (Day–Bamford 2002, Day et al. 1991, Krashen 2004, 2011, Nation–Waring 2020). Reading books, however, does not seem to be a popular pastime activity – at least not in English. However, it is important to point out that reading in English and even in L1 is a common problem for this generation, whose reading habits are very different from that of the older generations. Therefore, it cannot be neglected that some learners may spend considerable time reading English texts while many other learners prefer not to read at all. Half of the interview participants do not read English language books at all in their free time, but those who do, like to read on a regular basis. Valentina read some of the *Harry Potter* books because she could not wait for the Hungarian translation. She explained this as follows:

> There was one book I read in English, the last book of *Harry Potter*, I wanted to read it right when it came out because I was very hooked, and [the English version] was the only one I could buy in Hungary at the time.

On the other hand, Vera, for instance, would like to read a book in English and then reread the same book in Hungarian and would like to see to what

extent she could understand the book in English beforehand. In her words, "the plan is that I start reading it in English and then in Hungarian, too. Then I'll see how much I misunderstood" (Veronika).

Another aspect of reading is consuming news. As opposed to reading books, there are a few students read the news in English. The popularity of reading the news in English lies in the fact that there is a wider variety of news available in English than in Hungarian, so learners can gain access to more content than if they were reading exclusively in Hungarian. Similarly, to the case of online videos, this again reflects on the notion of language learning through use underlined in the literature (Bialystok 1981), where the emphasis is placed on the real-life use of a particular L2 (e.g., reading news in English), and in such cases, learners are considered more of users than simply EFL learners.

Reading blogs in English was not particularly popular among participants either. Traditional blogs do not appear to be as interesting as video blogs on YouTube, for instance. However, blogs on cooking or computer parts are somewhat popular with students. Male participants showed a preference for IT-related topics and blogs, too, whereas female ones followed blogs with cooking- and baking-related content. When asked why she does not read blogs, Valentina pointed out that she is not interested in blogging.

On the other hand, Vera points out that she uses blogs to find out information and opinions about trips to or accommodation in foreign countries. She explains it as follows:

> I read reviews about trips or hotels very often because [...] the websites that offer accommodation bookings, they're not always legit. We've found many times that they put a good deal on some website, and I decide to take it, and when I get to the hotel's address, I'm stood up.

It is apparent that Vera utilizes blogs, and, this way, the English language to gather and gain access to more information on the Internet. This utilitarian way of using English was also present in the case of videos when learners watched tutorial videos in order to have a better understanding of an issue because the English-language videos usually contain more relevant information than the videos available in Hungarian.

4.5.7 Using social media in English

The next pattern was the use of social media in English. All participants have a Facebook account and use Facebook Messenger to keep in touch with their family and friends. Most students also use Instagram on a daily basis, but boys reported that some of them have an Instagram account, but they rarely check it. Lucas, for

instance, said the following: "I'm not active, but I have Instagram." In contrast, Vera reported that she spends two hours a day using Instagram. In her words:

> I love Instagram and use it often. Probably two hours a day, at least. I follow lots of foreigners, Germans, Russians, maybe French, British, and Americans […]. I think most of the people that I follow are foreigners.

It became evident from the interviews that all participants have a smartphone, and most of their smartphone applications are in English, but the menu of their smartphone is typically Hungarian. Another popular application, TikTok, was also mentioned by some of the participants. TikTok is a video-sharing social networking service used to make short videos in different genres, such as dance, comedy, and education. The duration of videos on TikTok ranges from fifteen seconds to one minute. This video-sharing platform is popular among the participants; however, most of them are not registered users. Instead, they simply tend to check the content of this application. Valentina stated the following about TikTok:

> I'm not a [registered] user, so I'm not a[n active] user, I just watch some silly stuff, I cannot relate to lip-sync to some music and make funny gestures, but I like watching others do it.

As it is apparent from the above quote, she does not make videos but consumes content on a regular basis as she finds this kind of content fun. As Sundqvist and Olin-Scheller (2013) claim, EE activities and social media applications on smartphones in particular may be considered a major resource for L2 learning as teenagers are prosumers (both producers and consumers) of normally English language content (Lam 2000, Thorne et al. 2009, Yi 2008). This means that learners often compose texts, create videos (e.g., on TikTok, YouTube, and Instagram), or simply consume L2 content and communicate with others online.

4.5.8 Video games

The next topic was playing video games in English. There were gender-related differences in playing video games. Most boys reported that they play video games regularly and identified as gamers, while only one girl did the same. Paul pointed out that as most video games are in English, when it comes to online gaming, the language used for intercultural communication is almost exclusively the English language, and this kind of online communication and gaming, in general, provides a plethora of linguistic input and, therefore, could

result in incidental L2 learning (Chik 2014, Ryu 2011, 2013, Sundqvist 2015). He explained this as follows:

> I play most games in English, some in Hungarian, but the point is not what language it is but what language players speak. [...] If you have to [play together] then it's easier to have a common language and use that to solve problems.

In contrast, Charlie prefers single-player video games as he likes to focus on the story and thinks that online cooperation may mar the story. In his words:

> I think most single-player games have great storylines, and multi-player games are often ruined by other players because other players sometimes have different approaches to enjoying the game, and it ruins the whole [experience].

As far as single-player video games are concerned, Valentina, the only female gamer among the interviewees also prefers games where there is an interesting story. She pointed out that in such games, it is important to understand everything because a great deal depends on players' choices, which influence the flow of the story. She explained it as follows:

> [B]asically, this is a role-playing game, and conversations, and interactions are in English, and it's useful to know what's happening because I cannot complete a quest if I don't know what [to do] [...] and if I don't understand and answer something nonsense, then I will find myself in an uncomfortable situation that I misunderstood everything completely.

This could ultimately increase player L2 learning motivation (Bytheway 2015, Ebrahimzadeh–Sepideh 2017) as the inner desire to comprehend the story and to achieve the goals set in a video game may motivate players to check previously unknown vocabulary items in order to improve their general L2 proficiency.

Participants also listed some vocabulary items they possibly learned from playing video games. Some of these vocabulary items are genre-specific; gamers who play football video games, for instance, mentioned phrases such as "goal kick," "sending-off," and "substitution." Vocabulary related to weaponry and warfare was also highlighted. Christian points out that he is entirely convinced that he learned such vocabulary items from video games. In his words: "I don't suppose I would know any military vocabulary if I weren't playing military-themed games. And thanks to that, I know helmets and armor and stuff."

Nevertheless, it is possible the acquire more frequently used common vocabulary items from video games, such as "obtain" and "cloak," too, and these

could highly contribute to L2 vocabulary development (Fajt–Vékási 2022a, 2022b, Hitosugi et al. 2014, Neville 2010, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2012). Furthermore, gaming-related technical vocabulary was also mentioned by some of the participants. They pointed out that they learned game-specific abbreviations, such as "bots" for "robots," from video games. It is clear from the participants' accounts that video games provide an opportunity for them to learn certain content-related vocabulary.

4.5.9 Using English for talking to other people with different L1s

Another emerging topic was talking to people with different L1s than the participants in English. Sandra emphasized the importance of talking to people this way, practicing the given L2, which can ultimately improve fluency. She explained it as follows:

> Talking to tourists in Budapest helped me pass oral exams. It was awkward at first, but it was nice to step outside my comfort zone. I see my friends and myself struggle but, in the long run, it helps you understand both natives and non-natives, and they cannot teach you that in school.

This resonates well with the literature on the role of intercultural orientation in L2 learning. As Clément and Kruidenier (1983) and Root (1999) point out, the knowledge of an L2, in this case, the English language, may enable an L2 learner to make new connections and friends, which is a clear motivating factor for L2 learning.

Lina mentioned that she would like to talk to natives more to see what level of English she is at. In her words: "I am curious how much of what I say they would understand and the other way around. That would be a good indication of what level I am really on." Similarly, Christian also would like to speak to native speakers and later would like to travel abroad alone to see to what extent he can communicate with local people in different countries using the English language. He explained: "I would like to travel abroad alone. I think that's the real test of your language skills." Such L2 interactions are important L2 learning resources and opportunities and may motivate learners to invest more effort into learning English (Crystal 2003, De Wilde et al. 2019, Djigunovic 2018, Sauer–Ellis 2019, Sayer–Ban 2014, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2014, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2012). Similar to Christian, Luna also talked about intercultural interactions and mentioned her classmates who have acquaintances in Canada with whom they keep in touch in English. In her words: "[It helps] keep in touch with foreigners, I have a classmate who has friends in Canada because when she lived there, they spoke in English."

4.5.10 Communicating in English while doing sports

Another emerging theme was doing sports and using English as a lingua franca for communication. Victor goes to football training on a regular basis, and since he is part of an international team, English is used as a common ground for communication. He explained it as follows:

> I have soccer training three times a week, and English is the commonly accepted and used language because there are people from all kinds of minorities and foreigners, so we use [English]. There are more foreigners than Hungarians.

They speak English with coaches or teammates as most of the other team members and coaches do not speak Hungarian. He explains: "In the evening when it is dark, we can't see each other clearly so [we do not recognize who is Hungarian, therefore] we speak to each other in English because everyone speaks and understands English". This kind of intercultural communication may also result in incidental learning of certain vocabulary items as well as developing learners' L2 pragmatic competence (Schmidt 1993, 1995, 2001).

4.5.11 Using English at school in classes other than EFL

Last but not least, students were asked whether it is useful and beneficial for them at school to consume English language content in their free time. Students explained that, in many cases, the information they gain through the English language might be useful at school both in English and other lessons. Furthermore, Christian explained that during Biology lessons, the teacher often uses English-language videos to make the lesson more interesting. In his words: "For example, in Biology classes, we usually watch scientific videos in English, and they're easy to understand. I think most of my class has no problem understanding them." Moreover, Victor's teacher even encourages students to use the knowledge gained through EE activities. Victor explained: "[F]or example, anything that has to do with what we covered in class, I just write down a synonym in the test and I get extra points for that."

4.6 Conclusion

Overall, it may be concluded that participants regularly engage in various EE activities, but in most cases, they do not necessarily do so for language learning purposes. Rather, these EE activities are pursued as if they were average leisure time activities that happen to be English-language activities. Based on

the findings, it may also be concluded that a large proportion of these EE activities provide participants with a plethora of L2 input, equipping participants with the opportunity to learn L2 elements incidentally (cf. Schmidt 1993, 1995, 2001) and to actually practice and use the English language while acquiring new L2 elements, too (cf. Bialystok 1981). The interview results also show some typical gender differences between participants. Girls reported that they tend to do activities that are more gender-specific to girls, but not exclusively, as some female participants also like engaging in EE activities traditionally considered to be more masculine (cf. girls playing video games); at the same time, boys also reported pursuing EE activities that are gender-specific to them. It is important to note, however, that gender differences in this study may be due to the sampling method.

The results also show that some students consciously seek opportunities to regularly engage in EE activities. Many participants even pursue them with the aim of improving their EFL skills. For some participants, EFL lessons at school are less motivating, yet they show interest in English as they do several EE activities. As a result, it may be concluded that they are interested in the English language; however, school-based EFL lessons are not inspiring or motivating enough for them, and EE activities are more interesting and engaging. This may partly explain what Öveges and Csizér (2018) found in their nationwide survey in Hungary, which shows that Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers perceive Hungarian secondary school EFL students to be less motivated in EFL classes than students actually are. Their self-reported EFL learning motivation is relatively higher than their teachers' perceptions.

The results of Study One informed Study Two, and the EE activities collected in Study One are used in Study Two. However, it is important to note that only the more frequent EE activities were included in Study Two, as the more marginal EE activities, which are expected to be pursued only by very few students (e.g., doing sports and using English for communication), had been omitted.

Chapter 5

STUDY TWO

Based on the findings of Study One, Study Two aimed to explore Hungarian secondary school students' extramural English habits and perceptions of and attitudes toward the benefits of extramural English activities in EFL learning. The main research instrument for this study was a self-constructed questionnaire. The choice of adopting the quantitative research paradigm at this stage was motivated by the fact that the quantitative paradigm allows for collecting a large amount of data which can be later compared with the results of other data collected quantitatively (cf. Study Three, detailed in Chapter 6).

The research design of Study Two was guided by four main research questions and some related sub-questions:

RQ2 What are Hungarian secondary school students' perceptions of extramural English activities in EFL learning?

RQ4 How do extramural English activities affect Hungarian secondary school EFL learners' various individual learner differences?

RQ4.1 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 learning motivation?

RQ4.2 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 anxiety?

RQ4.3 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 willingness to communicate?

RQ5 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' and students' perceptions of EFL students' various individual differences?

RQ6 What impact do the various EE activities and various individual differences have on Hungarian secondary school students' in-school motivated learning behavior and extramural motivated language use?

5.1 Participants

Study Two aimed to examine Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests. The participants of the study were 325 Hungarian secondary school students who were recruited by using convenience sampling mixed with snowball sampling methods. The age of the participants ranged from 14 to 20, and

the average age was 16.72 (SD=1.41). In terms of gender, 36.3% of the participants (n=118) was male, and 63.7% of the participants (n=207) was female. As for the different types of secondary school, 48.3% (n=157) attended grammar school, 33.2% (n=108) attended secondary vocational school, and 18.5% (n=60) went to vocational school. The different types of schools and the number of students attending them are summarized in Table 9.

Table 9. The different types of secondary school participants attend

School type	Number of students (n)	Percentage of students (%)
Grammar school	157	48.3%
Secondary vocational school	108	33.2%
Vocational school	60	18.5%

All participants learned English as a Foreign Language at school, and the average time of learning English is 7.51 years (SD=2.84). On average, participants had 4.29 (SD=1.79) EFL lessons at school a week, and the average of grades they were given at the end of the year was 4.52 (SD=.65). As for the first foreign languages (L2) participants learned at school, most students learned English as their first foreign language (86.2%), 9.5% learned German, and only a small proportion learned French and Spanish as their first foreign language (4% and .3% respectively) (see Table 10).

Table 10. The different first and second foreign languages participants learn at school

	Number of students (n)	Percentage of students (%)
First foreign language (L2)		
English	280	86.2
German	31	9.5
French	13	4.0
Spanish	1	.3
Total	325	100
Second foreign language (L3)		
Does not learn a second foreign language at school	137	42.2
German	89	27.4
English	45	13.8
French	25	7.7
Spanish	15	4.6
Italian	8	2.5
Russian	6	1.8
Total	325	100

As far as second foreign languages learned at school are concerned, a large proportion of secondary school students learn only English as a foreign language at school and does not learn any other foreign languages (42.2%). A smaller proportion of students learn German (27.4%), some students learn Romance languages, and only 1.8% learns Russian.

Participants were also asked whether they had taken a foreign language exam and acquired a foreign language exam certificate. 26.5% (n=86) of the participants reported that they had at least a B2 level foreign language exam certificate; consequently, 73.5% (n=239) did not have an at least B2 level language exam certificate at the time of the data collection. Of the participants who had a foreign language exam certificate, 24% (n=78) had only one, and 2.5% (n=8) had two foreign language exam certificates. As for C1 level language exams, 7.1% (n=23) had a C1 level foreign language exam certificate, out of which 21 students had their language exam in English, and two students had their C1 level language exams in both English and German.

5.2% (n=17) of the participants took part in a student exchange program in an anglophone country, out of which 2.8% (n=9) spent less than two weeks, and 2.5% (n=8) spent more than two weeks in their destination countries. As for student exchange programs in non-anglophone countries, 13.8% (n=45) of the participants took part in such programs, and most of these participants (n=39; 12%) spent less than two weeks, and only 1.8% (n=6) spent more than two weeks in their destination countries.

5.2 The research instrument

The instrument used in the study was created by myself and is included in *Appendix B*. The questionnaire consists of four sections: the purpose of the first part was to elicit data on the frequency of student engagement in EE activities, the goal of the second part was to elicit information about learners' perceptions of EE activities, and the aim of the third section was to collect information about participants' individual learner differences, namely L2 learning motivation and some related concepts, L2 anxiety, and L2 willingness to communicate. Finally, the fourth and last section was to collect background information about the participants.

The first section of the research instrument consisted of three constructs. The first three constructs – EE activities, English subtitle use, and Hungarian subtitle use – were based on the findings of Study One. The frequency of engagement in these EE activities was measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (on a daily basis). Even though the use of single-item measures in research has been subject to heavy criticism (Rossiter 2002, Sackett–Larson 1990), it was determined that they would be suitable for the current

research as the selection of single- or multiple-item scales is dependent upon what it is that the researcher wishes to measure, i.e., whether the construct investigated is concrete or abstract. A construct is concrete if it is unidimensional and unambiguous to all raters, and raters clearly understand the construct the same way. Examples of concrete constructs include price perception and buying intention (Rossiter 2002), and, in the scope of this research project, engagement in and time spent doing different EE activities. Since all learners know what it means to, for instance, play a video game for an hour, etc., adopting single-scale measures in the case of EE activities seemed a reasonable approach.

As for subtitle use, secondary school students' willingness to use subtitles in English and Hungarian was measured in the case of different EE activities. Here, students' attitudes were measured by asking them to what extent they enjoyed doing EE activities while using subtitles in different languages. In order to quantify students' responses, a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much) was used. The constructs with an example in each case are detailed below:

1. *EE activities* (18 items): the frequency of different extramural English activities secondary school students could possibly engage in. Sample item: "Watching movies in English."
2. *English subtitle use* (5 items): to what extent do participants enjoy engaging in an activity while using English subtitles. Sample item: "Watching movies in English with English subtitles."
3. *Hungarian subtitle use* (5 items): to what extent do participants enjoy engaging in an activity while using Hungarian subtitles. Sample item: "Watching movies in English with Hungarian subtitles."

The purpose of the second part of the questionnaire was to measure participants' attitudes towards and perceptions about in-school EFL learning, extramural EFL learning, and the incorporation of EE activities into EFL lessons at school. Some of the constructs were adopted from previously validated questionnaires. *In-school motivated learning behavior* was adopted from Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), while *extramural motivated language use*, *extramural learning beliefs*, and *in-school learning beliefs* were adopted from Lajtai (2020), while the other three constructs in this part were created and validated by myself. In order to make participants' responses quantifiable, a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("I do not agree at all") to 5 ("I completely agree") was used. The constructs with an example in each case are detailed below:

4. *In-school motivated learning behavior* (4 items): participants' motivation to learn English in EFL lessons and how much effort and time they

invest into learning English. Sample item: "I spend more time preparing for English lessons at school than any other subject."

5. *Extramural motivated language use* (5 items): participants' motivation to use English in extramural contexts. Sample item: "I would still love to learn English even if I didn't have English lessons at school."
6. *Extramural learning beliefs* (4 items): participants' perceptions about EE activities improving their English language proficiency. Sample item: "I am sure that my English vocabulary will be better if I do more leisure-time activities (e.g., movies, series, music, podcasts, etc.) in English."
7. *In-school EFL learning beliefs* (4 items): participants' perceptions about the benefits of EFL lessons at school contributing to their English language proficiency. Sample item: "My English vocabulary will be better if I regularly do all tasks in the English lessons."
8. *Learners' inclusion of EE interests into EFL lessons* (5 items): participants' willingness to include their own EE interests into EFL lessons at school. Sample item: "If I find an unknown word or expression while I am playing video games, watching movies, surfing the web, I usually ask my teacher what it means."
9. *Teachers' inclusion of learners' EE interests into EFL lessons* (5 items): participants' perceptions of the extent to which their EFL teachers are willing and open to include learners' EE interests into EFL lessons at school. Sample item: "We usually read from English language books, newspapers, or magazines in English lessons at school."
10. *Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests* (5 items): participants' perceptions about the extent to which their EFL teachers are willing to explore learners' EE interests. Sample item: "My English teacher usually inquires about what kind of music we listen to in English in our free time."

The aim of the third part of the questionnaire was to measure participants' attitudes towards and perceptions about their L2 learning motivation and its related concepts, such as intercultural orientation and perceived importance of the English language, L2 anxiety, and L2 willingness to communicate. The constructs of the L2 Motivational Self System were adopted from Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) and Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), namely the *Ideal L2 self*, *Ought-to L2 self*, and *Language learning experience*. On the other hand, *Perceived importance of the English language* was adopted from Kormos and Csizér (2008). *Anxiety in the classroom* was adopted from Tóth (2008). *Willingness to communicate in the EFL classroom* was adopted from Nagy (2005). Finally, *Intercultural orientation*, *Anxiety in extramural contexts*, and *Willingness to*

communicate in extramural contexts were developed and validated by myself. In order to make participants' responses quantifiable, a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("I do not agree at all") to 5 ("I completely agree") was used for constructs 11–17; the WTC scales (18–19) were used to measure students' willingness to communicate in different situations using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("not at all") to 5 ("very much"). The constructs with an example in each case are detailed below:

11. *Ideal L2 self* (5 items): attributes that an EFL learner would like to possess. Sample item: "I can imagine that in the future, I will be studying at a university where all subjects are taught in English."
12. *Ought-to L2 self* (4 items): attributes that the EFL learner thinks the environment might expect from them. Sample item: "It is important for me to learn English because the ones around me expect me to learn English."
13. *Language learning experience* (5 items): motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience, i.e., EFL lessons at school. Sample item: "I like things we usually do in English lessons."
14. *Intercultural orientation* (4 items): participants' openness to make contact with speakers with L1s other than Hungarian using the English language. Sample item: "I would love to travel to countries where I have to communicate in English with locals."
15. *Perceived importance of the English language* (5 items): how important participants consider the English language on a global scale. Sample item: "It is important to learn English as it is an international language."
16. *Anxiety in the classroom* (5 items): speaking anxiety related to EFL learning in classroom situations involving a feeling of inhibition. Sample item: "I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I speak English."
17. *Anxiety in extramural contexts* (5 items): speaking anxiety related to extramural English situations involving a feeling of inhibition. Sample item: "I am very nervous if I have to speak English with a native speaker."
18. *WTC in the EFL classroom* (5 items): participants' openness to make utterances and engage in conversations with others in EFL lessons at school. Sample item: "I hold a presentation in English in an English class."
19. *WTC in extramural contexts* (5 items): participants' openness to make utterances and engage in conversations with others in out-of-school situations. Sample item: "I want to use public transportation when I am abroad and need to buy a ticket using the English language."

In the last part of the questionnaire, a series of questions elicited information about the background of the participants. The questions concerned gender, age, number of years learning English, type of secondary school, number of EFL lessons a week, whether participants have any foreign language exam certificates, and whether participants took part in foreign exchange programs before.

5.3 Data collection and the validation process

The questionnaire was developed in Hungarian, and the adopted English language scales (where necessary) were translated into Hungarian. Through expert judgment, two professionals and two potential participants (secondary school students) were asked to complete the questionnaire implementing the so-called think-aloud protocol, which meant that these people were asked to think aloud while completing the questionnaire. This was important to make sure that all questions and items were interpreted the same way and the way they were meant to be interpreted. All problematic questions were reworded and fine-tuned before the pilot process. The questionnaire was piloted with 50 students, and in order to ensure the internal consistency of the scales, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for all scales. Based on Cronbach's alpha coefficients, some of the items were fine-tuned and reworded once more so that no ambiguous items could remain in the questionnaire (for more information on the validation process, see Fajt 2021b). The final version of the questionnaire was sent to Hungarian secondary school students learning English as a first or second foreign language at secondary school, and the data collection itself took place in March 2021.

5.4 Data analysis

The obtained data were first coded; then, all negatively worded items (reversed items) were recoded in reverse. The coded data was then input into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 27.0, which allowed for complex statistical analyses with the statistical significance level set for $p<.05$. Before the analyses, as explained previously, Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients were calculated for the scales to investigate their reliability. This was followed by descriptive statistical measures when mean scores (M) and standard deviations (SD) were calculated for all scales. Then the mean scores of scales were compared through independent samples t-tests in the case of questions with two answers (e.g., gender). Additionally, paired samples t-tests were also used to compare different scales measuring extramural and in-class dimensions

(e.g., *in-school motivated learning behavior* and *extramural motivated language use*).

Regarding independent and paired samples t-tests, it is not enough to report statistically significant ($p<.05$) differences because a statistically significant result may have a small effect size. In order to estimate the scientific significance and importance of a result, researchers are advised to report the effect size together with the p-value. The effect size measures the strength of the relationship between two (or more) variables. There are several ways to quantify the effect size, but in this research project, Cohen's delta (d) is used, which is the difference between two means divided by the standard deviation for the data (Cohen 1988). The descriptors for magnitudes of Cohen's delta are as follows: small d=.20, medium d=.50, and large d=.80.

As for the different EE activities, factor analysis was used for data and dimension reduction purposes so that a manageable number of EE activities scales could be created. Finally, relationships among the scales were also investigated through correlation analyses and multiple regression analyses with a stepwise approach where EE activities scales were used as independent variables to identify which other scales EE activities have an impact on.

5.5 Results and discussion

The subsequent sections present the results of Study Two. First, the reliability of scales is presented. Then the general frequency of engagement in EE activities is detailed. This is followed by the presentation of factor analysis required to reduce the number of EE activities so that further statistical analyses could be performed with a manageable number of variables. Then participants' beliefs on the use of in-school and extramural EFL learning are discussed, followed by the introduction of results concerning participants' individual learner differences. Then the results of correlation analyses among scales are presented. Finally, the results of regression analyses investigating the impact of different EE activities on individual learner differences are discussed.

5.5.1 The reliability of the scales

First, the reliability of the internal consistency of the different scales was checked. This was achieved by computing the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the 19 scales (see Table 11).

Table 11. Reliability coefficients in the constructs used in Study Two

Scales	Number of items	Cronbach's-alpha
1. EE activities	18	.835
2. English subtitle use	5	.788
3. Hungarian subtitle use	5	.858
4. In-school motivated learning behavior	4	.810
5. Extramural motivated language use	5	.788
6. Extramural learning beliefs	4	.818
7. In-school EFL learning beliefs	4	.896
8. Learners' inclusion of EE interests into EFL lessons	5	.716
9. Teachers' inclusion of learners' EE interests into EFL lessons	5	.744
10. Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests	5	.881
11. Ideal L2 self	5	.822
12. Ought-to L2 self	4	.758
13. Language learning experience	5	.820
14. Intercultural orientation	4	.780
15. Perceived importance of the English language	5	.791
16. Anxiety in the classroom	5	.889
17. Anxiety in extramural contexts	5	.868
18. WTC in the EFL classroom	5	.921
19. WTC in extramural contexts	5	.949

The reliability of the scales was relatively high and reached the .7 threshold indicated in the literature (Dörnyei–Taguchi 2010). The high reliability coefficients of all scales made further statistical analysis possible, and no scales had to be left out from the analysis.

5.5.2 The different EE activities secondary school students pursue

As a second step, the frequency of engagement in the different EE activities was checked in order to see how often learners engage in different EE activities (see Table 12).

Table 12. Secondary school students' frequency of engagement in the different EE activities

EE activities	**M**	**SD**
12. EE listening to music	4.83	.52
10. EE read posts on Instagram	4.23	1.27
6. EE reading websites	3.98	1.14
9. EE watching videobloggers on YouTube	3.91	1.31
1. EE watching series in English	3.88	1.22
16. EE watching TikTok videos	3.66	1.75
7. EE watching movies	3.52	1.22
18. EE reading news in English	3.27	1.45
2. EE watching tutorial videos	3.20	1.28
3. EE playing video games	3.16	1.69
13. EE reading posts on Facebook	3.14	1.60
8. EE reading blogs	2.93	1.44
5. EE reading Twitter posts	2.83	1.67
4. EE chatting with others	2.17	1.42
14. EE watching gamers on Twitch	2.08	1.53
11. EE reading books	2.01	1.26
15. EE reading magazines	1.87	1.20
17. EE reading newspapers	1.79	1.16

It becomes apparent from Table 12 that the most favored EE activities are listening to music in English, checking posts on Instagram, and using social media. The least favored EE activities are reading English-language books, magazines, and newspapers. This may be traced back to learners' age-related reading habits and the fact that this generation tends to read traditional media less than previous generations. Participants' previously analyzed language level differences could also be a reason for the low mean scores, i.e., it could be hypothesized that learners at B2 and C1 levels are more likely to read lengthy texts in English, but also that those who read more are also more likely to have a high level of English. In addition, if we take a closer look at the EE activities in Table 8, we can easily notice that there is a tendency for the EE activities at the bottom to be more time-consuming and require relatively more attention than the ones at the top; therefore, the usual time required for engaging in them decreases from top to bottom. In our fast-paced world, where we are surrounded by all kinds of smart devices, it is no surprise that secondary school students will primarily engage in and prefer activities that they can primarily do on their smartphones, and much more time-consuming activities will be

less frequently done. However, it is interesting why only a small number of students like chatting with others in English. One would assume that this is not a particularly time-consuming activity, and still, it is less favored by students than some other activities. The reason behind this could be that chatting with others in an L2 requires a certain kind of openness, therefore, a certain type of personality too.

In this section, it is investigated whether there are statistically significant differences between students' responses based on the different background variables using independent samples t-tests. First, the gender differences in the frequency of engagement in EE activities are examined (Table 13). For space-saving reasons, only statistically significant differences are included in Table 13.

Table 13. Results of independent samples t-test investigating gender-related differences among participants concerning the frequency of EE engagement

EE activities	Boys (n=118)		Girls (n=207)		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD			
1. EE watching series	3.46	1.31	4.12	1.10	-4.61	<.001*	.56
2. EE watching tutorial videos	3.52	1.25	3.02	1.28	3.38	.001*	.39
7. EE watching movies	3.15	1.26	3.73	1.14	-4.18	<.001*	.48
14. EE watching gamers on Twitch	3.03	1.65	1.54	1.16	8.67	<.001*	1.10
16. EE watching TikTok videos	3.05	1.84	4.00	1.60	-4.68	<.001*	.56
3. EE playing video games	4.42	1.13	2.44	1.53	13.26	<.001*	1.41
8. EE reading blogs	2.65	1.42	3.09	1.43	-2.66	.008*	.31
10. EE reading posts on Instagram	3.92	1.51	4.41	1.08	-3.14	.002*	.40
11. EE reading books	1.63	1.04	2.22	1.33	-4.18	<.001*	.48
17. EE reading newspapers	1.60	1.13	1.90	1.17	-2.27	.024*	.26

Note. Statistical significance level of t-tests: *p<.05

It becomes apparent from Table 13 that girls watch series and movies, and watch videos on TikTok significantly more often than boys. In addition, girls enjoy reading English-language blogs and following English-language Instagram posts. Also, in terms of English-language newspapers and books, girls pursue these EE activities significantly more frequently than boys. Of the statistically significant differences, boys achieved a higher average than girls in only two cases: playing English-language video games and watching streams related to video games (e.g., gameplays on Twitch, a streaming platform primarily focused

on gaming content). Thus, based on Table 13, it may be concluded that in terms of gender differences, the results of the study reflect the results of previous research (e.g., Grau 2009, Józsa–Imre 2013), i.e., there are statistically significant differences in what EE activities girls tend to perform and what activities are pursued by boys.

The second background variable was whether English was the first foreign language learned by students at school. From all the participants in Study Two, a total of 281 people learned English as their first foreign language, while 44 people learned some other language as their first foreign language. Table 14 summarizes the statistically significant differences in students' responses.

Table 14. Results of independent samples t-tests investigating the differences between students learning English as an L2 and students learning English as an L3

EE activities	L2 (n=281)		L3 (n=44)		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD			
9. EE watching videobloggers	3.96	1.30	3.54	1.28	1.99	.048*	.32
14. EE watching gamers on Twitch	2.17	1.57	1.54	1.17	2.52	.003*	.41
4. EE chatting with others	2.24	1.45	1.75	1.12	2.57	.012*	.35
6. EE reading websites	4.04	1.13	3.59	1.15	2.44	.015*	.40
11. EE reading books	2.08	1.28	1.54	1.02	2.62	.009*	.42
18. EE reading news	3.34	1.43	2.82	1.53	2.25	.025*	.36

Note. Statistical significance level of t-tests: *p<.05

It becomes clear from the table that in all cases where there is a statistically significant difference, students who learned English as their first foreign language engage in EE activities more frequently than students who had another first foreign language before learning English as their second foreign language.

The third background variable was to measure how many participants had at least a B2 level foreign language exam certificate. The averages of students' responses for the frequency of engagement in the different EE activities were compared using independent samples t-tests. Of all the participants, 86 had at least a B2 level foreign language exam certificate in English, while 239 did not have any foreign language exam certificates. These results are summarized in Table 15, in which it is visible that, similarly to the previous background variable, those who have at least a B2 level foreign language exam certificate pursue certain EE activities significantly more often than those not possessing such certificates.

Table 15. Results of independent samples t-tests investigating the differences between students having at least a B2 level English language exam certificate and students not having one

EE activities	Yes (n=86)		No (n=239)		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD			
6. EE reading websites	4.29	.92	3.87	1.19	3.38	.001*	.38
11. EE reading books	2.30	1.28	1.90	1.24	2.55	.011*	.32
13. EE reading posts on Facebook	3.65	1.49	2.96	1.59	3.51	.001*	.44
18. EE reading news	3.60	1.31	3.15	1.48	2.48	.013*	.31

Note. Statistical significance level of t-tests: *p<.05

It is also apparent from the table that participants with a foreign language exam certificate engage in relatively more time-consuming EE activities, such as browsing English-language websites, reading English-language books, reading English-language posts on Facebook, and reading English-language news. This may be due to the fact that those having a B2 foreign language exam certificate will not only have a certificate, but it may also reflect a certain level of L2 proficiency, as these exams are carried out by external foreign language exam centers, i.e., authorities independent of the secondary school students attend, which aim to measure learners' foreign language proficiency as objectively as possible. From the data, it may be concluded that the B2 level foreign language exam requirement in Hungary may have a positive impact on learners' English language proficiency, as learners are externally obliged to achieve a B2 level foreign language proficiency (cf. Novák–Fónai 2020).

Another background variable was also connected to foreign language exam certificates. This time it was measured whether participants had any C1 level foreign language exams. Consequently, statistically significant differences between students who have C1 level foreign language exam certificates and those who do not were sought. Of all the participants, only 23 students had C1 level foreign language exam certificates, and the other 302 students did not have such certificates. Similar to the B2 level foreign language exams, the same trends were identified; these are summarized in Table 16.

Table 16. Results of independent samples t-tests investigating the differences between students having a C1 level English language exam certificate and students not having one

EE activities	Yes (n=23)		No (n=302)		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD			
1. EE watching series	4.35	.77	3.84	1.24	2.87	.007*	.42
9. EE watching videobloggers on YouTube	4.48	.84	3.86	1.33	3.19	.003*	.47
6. EE reading websites	4.74	.45	3.92	1.16	7.13	.001*	.73
11. EE reading books	2.78	1.24	1.95	1.25	3.09	.002*	.67
18. EE reading news	4.00	1.00	3.22	1.47	3.47	.002*	.54

Note. Statistical significance level of t-tests: *p<.05

The data show that in the case of the five EE activities where statistically significant differences were found, students possessing a C1 level foreign language exam engage in certain EE activities more frequently than students not having a C1 level foreign language exam. This suggests that the English language proficiency of these students, similar to participants possessing a B2 level certificate, may also be better than those of other students. This means that the language exam requirement may have a positive effect on foreign language skills emphasized by Novák and Fónai (2020), which may ultimately influence the frequency of engagement in EE activities in the Hungarian secondary school context as students may consciously wish to improve their EFL skills.

For the last two background variables, i.e., whether students participated in foreign language exchange programs in an anglophone or non-anglophone country, no statistically significant differences were identified. These seem to be less significant factors in how often students engage in EE activities. On the whole, in the case of the statistically significant differences presented earlier, it may be concluded that students who have a B2 or C1 level foreign language exam certificate and those whose first foreign language learned at school was English engage in EE activities more frequently than their peers.

5.5.3 Categorizing students' EE activities: factor analysis

As there were altogether 18 EE activities in the questionnaire, this would make further statistical analyses more difficult as besides these 18 activities, there were several other scales used in the study. In order to make further analyses easier, factor analysis was used to reduce the number of activities in the questionnaire to a relatively more manageable number of factors. The negative aspect of this procedure is the inevitable data loss that accompanies data

reduction; however, the positive aspect of it is that it creates a manageable number of factors.

First the activities were divided into two sections: those involving reading and the rest of the activities made up the "miscellaneous" category. Once activities were categorized, factor analysis (maximum likelihood with varimax rotation) was used to identify the different dimensions within the categories. Furthermore, varimax rotation was used in the analysis, and the rotated factor matrix was used in the analysis of the results without the small values (<.3) omitted from Tables 13 and 14, in which the factor structures are visually represented. In the second step of the analysis, scales were created from the factors in order to perform further analyses of the database and to explore possible relationships between the factors by correlation and regression analysis.

Half of the EE activities in the questionnaire (nine activities) were found to be related to reading, so as a first step, these nine statements were investigated (see Table 17); factor analysis revealed that these EE activities load onto two dimensions. Consequently, Factor 1 was named "online reading" as all of the activities loading onto this dimension may be pursued online, and Factor 2 was named "paper-based reading" as activities 15, 17, and 11 are traditionally accessible in a printed format.

Table 17. Results of factor analysis examining EE activities related to reading

EE activities	**Factors**	
	1	**2**
6. EE reading websites	.741	
18. EE reading news	.677	
8. EE reading blogs	.659	
5. EE reading Twitter posts	.629	
10. EE read posts on Instagram	.612	
13. EE reading posts on Facebook	.542	
15. EE reading magazines		.846
17. EE reading newspapers		.841
11. EE reading books		.650

The rest of the EE activities (9 activities) were also subjected to factor analysis (maximum likelihood with varimax rotation), which revealed that these activities loaded onto a total of six different dimensions (see Table 18).

Table 18. Results of factor analysis examining the "Miscellaneous" EE category

EE activities	Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. EE watching movies	.890					
1. EE watching series	.884					
14. EE watching gamers on Twitch		.888				
3. EE playing video games		.882				
2. EE watching tutorial videos			.933			
9. EE watching videobloggers on YouTube			.621			
4. EE chatting with others				.965		
12. EE listening to music					.968	
16. EE watching TikTok videos						.963

The first dimension included English-language films and English-language series. It does make sense that those two activities fall into one category since they are more or less the same activity, the only difference between them being the fact that films are shorter, typically 1-2 hours, whereas film series consist of numerous episodes, each lasting for approximately 40-60 minutes. The second dimension included playing English-language video games, which is interestingly related to another EE activity, English-language (video) gameplays streamed or uploaded by video game players. At first glance, these two activities may seem separate, but on closer inspection, it is logical that they load onto one dimension, as a player who plays video games is likely to watch gameplays, too, and video game related streams because they are interested in video games in general. As a result, these two activities were grouped into one category. The third dimension was English-language videos on YouTube, which included tutorial videos and videos from video bloggers. As both types of videos are usually accessible via YouTube, they are clustered into one factor. The fourth dimension was chatting with others using the English language, a dimension in which only this activity can be found. The fifth dimension was listening to music in English; similarly to the previous dimension, this one also consisted of only one activity. Finally, the sixth and last dimension was watching English-language videos on TikTok, which is a popular social media video-sharing platform for smart devices.

Although factor analysis can provide insights into which EE activities relate to one another, we cannot obtain any information from the factor structures about how often respondents engage in the different EE activities.

Table 19. The final scales describing students' frequency of engagement in EE activities

EE activities	M	SD
1. EE listening to music	4.83	.52
2. EE watching films and series	3.70	1.10
3. EE watching videos on TikTok	3.65	1.75
4. EE watching online videos (YouTube)	3.55	1.08
5. EE reading online	3.40	.98
6. EE video games	2.62	1.45
7. EE chatting online	2.17	1.42
8. EE paper-based reading	1.89	.98

Therefore, scales were created from the factors, the descriptive statistical results of which are summarized in Table 19. The subsequent statistical analyses will be carried out using these scales.

5.5.4 Students' subtitle use habits

As far as participants' English and Hungarian subtitle use habits are concerned, participants seem to have an overall positive attitude towards the use of subtitles and typically prefer English subtitles over Hungarian subtitles. This was also tested and confirmed using a paired samples t-test (Table 20).

Table 20. Results of paired samples t-tests investigating students' English and Hungarian subtitles use habits

Scales	M	SD	t	p	d
English subtitle use	3.78	.96	7.45	<.001*	.41
Hungarian subtitle use	3.25	1.10			

Note. Statistical significance level of t-tests: *p<.05

The results of the test show that there is a statistically significant difference between the averages of responses of participants, i.e., students are significantly more likely to use English subtitles than Hungarian subtitles. The positive attitude of students towards the use of subtitles is certainly of benefit when trying to acquire L2 linguistic elements from audio-visual content, as the use of subtitles has many advantages; among other things, they reduce the cognitive burden caused by foreign language content, i.e., both the use of subtitles in the students' mother tongue (interlingual subtitles) and target-language

subtitles (intralingual subtitles) help viewers with comprehension (Baranowska 2020). Moreover, the use of subtitles in a foreign language also contributes greatly to L2 vocabulary acquisition (Guichon–McLornan 2008, Markham et al. 2001, Montero Perez et al. 2014, Winke et al. 2010), but there is no consensus whether intralingual or interlingual subtitles are more useful. However, it is beyond doubt that captions draw learners' attention to the new vocabulary elements, thus also creating a kind of (L2) linguistic awareness in the students (cf. *noticing* emphasized by Schmidt 1993, 1995, 2001).

5.5.5 Students' beliefs on in-class EFL learning and extramural EFL use

Learning perceptions related to in-school and extramural environments as well as learners' in-school motivated learning behavior and extramural motivated language use, were also compared using paired samples t-tests, and the results of these tests are reported in Table 21.

Table 21. Results of paired samples t-tests investigating students' in-school and extramural learning perceptions and students' in-school and extramural motivated learning behavior

Scales	M	SD	t	p	d
In-school learning beliefs	3.45	1.01	-22.55	<.001*	1.25
Extramural learning beliefs	4.73	.50			
In-school motivated learning behavior	3.26	.96	-14.39	<.001*	.80
Extramural motivated language use	4.09	.81			

Note. Statistical significance level of t-tests: *p<.05

In both cases, statistically significant differences were found between students' perceptions of in-school and extramural English language learning. Students seem to perceive that extramural learning adds more to their English language knowledge. They also seem to be more motivated to learn English when it comes to extramural learning contexts. These results confirm the results obtained by Lajtai (2020), who also found that secondary school students are more motivated to learn English in an extramural environment than at school. The findings of this study, along with the findings of the study carried out by Lajtai (2020), may provide answers to the discrepancy found in the study carried out by Öveges and Csizér (2018), a study in which Öveges and Csizér (2018) found that in the Hungarian secondary school context, students' L2 learning motivation perceived by EFL teachers is much lower than the actual L2 learning motivation reported by students. This high self-reported L2

learning motivation of learners suggests that they realize the importance of the English language, thus, the importance of EFL learning, but they are simply not necessarily motivated to put much effort into in-school EFL learning because these lessons may be less interesting and entertaining than engaging in EE activities. Of course, this does not mean that school-based or institutional education is ineffective; these data only reflect students' own perceptions about in-school EFL lessons.

Participants were also asked whether EE activities are involved and incorporated into EFL lessons at school, the results of which are presented in Table 22.

Table 22. The mean scores and standard deviations of the scales measuring the incorporation of EE activities in EFL lessons

Scales	**M**	**SD**
EFL learners' willingness to include their own extramural English interests into EFL lessons	3.52	.85
EFL teachers' willingness to include learners' EE interests into EFL lessons	2.79	.95
EFL teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests	2.25	1.04

Based on the participating student's perceptions, the results show that students try to involve their own EE interests in EFL lessons at school. On the other hand, EFL teachers do not seem to incorporate students' EE interests into EFL lessons regularly and do not necessarily attempt to map students' EE activities. Consequently, it may be concluded that although there would be a need for students to include their own EE activities in EFL lessons at school, EFL teachers may be less open towards this. Yet, it is important to emphasize that these are just secondary school students' perceptions, and in order to get a more sophisticated picture, it is also important to investigate EFL teachers' perceptions about how often they think they try to map students' EE activities and how often EE activities are involved in EFL lessons (cf. Study Three).

5.5.6 Individual learner differences

In the second half of the presentation of the results of Study Two, the averages of the scales measuring individual L2 learner differences are presented. First, L2 learning motivation and its related scales are introduced; this is followed by the description of the scales measuring L2 anxiety and L2 willingness to communicate.

5.5.6.1 L2 learning motivation and its related concepts

The means and standard deviations of the scales related to L2 learning motivation are presented in this section. The means and standard deviations in Table 23 show that students are aware of the importance of the English language globally (M=4.46, SD=.67), which confirms the results of previous research (Csizér–Lukács 2010, Crystal 2003, De Wilde et al. 2019, Djigunovic 2018, Sauer–Ellis 2019, Sayer–Ban 2014, Sundqvist–Sylvén 2014, Sylvén–Sundqvist 2012).

Table 23. The mean scores and standard deviations of the scales measuring L2 learning motivation and its closely related concepts

Scales	**M**	**SD**
Perceived importance of the English language	4.46	.67
Intercultural orientation	4.20	.76
Ideal L2 self	4.10	.81
Language learning experience	3.73	.95
Ought-to L2 self	2.75	.87

Besides, participants are also open to using English as a lingua franca (M=4.20, SD=.76) when communicating with others having a different L1 than Hungarian. These results are also in line with the results of previous research that intercultural orientation and the knowledge of a particular L2 may enable a learner to make new connections and friends, which is a motivating factor for learning the given L2 (Csizér–Kormos 2009, Clément–Kruidenier 1983, Root 1999, Young 1994). Intercultural orientation is also important as in certain L2 learning contexts, such as the Hungarian context, learners have very little opportunity for direct contact with the given target language, so they can access it through indirect intercultural contact (e.g., talking to others using English) as well as L2 media content, such as films, music, etc. (Csizér–Dörnyei 2005, Csizér–Kormos 2009, Kormos–Csizér 2007). Therefore, the role of EE activities and intercultural orientation and openness, in general, is increasingly important and useful in EFL learning (Sundqvist–Sylvén 2016).

As for the components of Dörnyei's (2005) Motivational Self System, the average of the participants' responses in the case of the Ideal L2 Self is high (M=4.10, SD=.76), which means that participants attribute an important role to the English language in their own future. In contrast, the lower average (M=2.75, SD=.87) for the Ought-to L2 Self indicates that participants do not consider EFL learning important because of their teachers, parents, or other external expectations. As the Ideal L2 Self is more internalized than the

Ought-to L2 Self, it may be concluded that some students may watch a lot of English language movies and film series on Netflix, for instance, or spend much time playing English language video games while communicating with others online using the English language. This could ultimately contribute to their Ideal L2 Self rather than their Ought-to L2 Self, as students may successfully comprehend the English language content they consume but may feel less motivated to study and to prepare for in-class EFL tests as at that point, they may not realize the benefits of learning the school content, either. Interestingly, in the case of language learning experiences (i.e., school-based EFL lessons), the average of responses (M=3.73, SD=.95) is relatively close to the average of the Ideal L2 Self (M=4.10, SD=.81). As a result, EFL lessons may be perceived more positively than negatively by students; however, even though students may mostly enjoy EFL lessons, this is not necessarily the case with external requirements, such as weekly tests and exams, set by their EFL teachers, which could explain the difference between the averages of language learning experiences and the Ought-to L2 Self.

5.5.6.2 Anxiety and WTC

The last two individual variables were L2 anxiety and L2 willingness to communicate. As for these two individual learner differences, in-school and extramural L2 anxiety were first compared using a paired samples t-test; however, no statistically significant difference between the two was found (Table 24).

Table 24. Results of paired samples t-tests comparing in-school and extramural anxiety and WTC

Scales	**M**	**SD**	**t**	**p**	**d**
Anxiety in the EFL classroom	2.52	1.23	1.13	.259	.06
Anxiety in extramural contexts	2.57	1.14			
WTC in the EFL classroom	3.51	1.07	6.81	<.001*	.38
WTC in extramural contexts	3.86	1.00			

Note. Statistical significance level of t-tests: *p<.05

What is more, L2 anxiety in extramural contexts is slightly higher than in-school L2 anxiety, but the difference between them may be considered only marginal as there is no statistically significant difference identified between them. This suggests that learners, in general, do not have a high L2 anxiety level, which may be the result of frequent (online) encounters with other speakers of English, which can ultimately lead to more self-confidence and a lower level of L2 anxiety (Clément et al. 1994, Kormos–Csizér 2007). As for

L2 willingness to communicate, a statistically significant difference was found between in-school and extramural L2 willingness to communicate (Table 24). It appears that participants are more willing to communicate in English in extramural contexts, such as purchasing tickets at museums and ordering food in a restaurant, which is in line with the findings of previous research (Piniel–Albert 2018). This can be traced back to the fact that while students are assessed and evaluated at school, their L2 errors and mistakes are corrected, i.e., they are present there as language learners and they may not really wish to communicate more than necessary. In contrast, when engaging in EE activities, where successful communication or even financial matters (e.g., the price of a souvenir when bargaining) are at stake, students are present as language users and may feel more motivated to communicate and use English. This resonates well with the notions of *functional practice* (Bialystok 1981) and *language-as-social-practice* (Barton–Potts 2013) found in the literature.

Even though several statistically significant differences were found between the scales measuring individual differences in in-school and extramural contexts, it is also important to examine the relationships between the different scales. Therefore, in the next section, correlation analyses between the scales and then regression analyses were run to examine causative relationships among scales.

5.5.7 Correlations among scales

In this section, statistically significant correlations among scales are presented (see Table 25). As for the strength of the relationship between variables, the correlation coefficient may be between -1 and +1. Positive correlation coefficients refer to a direct relationship between variables; therefore, if the value of one variable increases, so does the value of the other variable. Negative correlation, however, refers to an inverse relationship, i.e., as one variable's value increases, the other variable's value decreases (Dörnyei 2007). Based on the literature (Hinkle et al. 2003), if the correlation coefficient is between .00 and 0.30 (-.30), there is only a negligible positive (or negative) correlation; between .31 (-.31) and .50 (-.50), there is a low positive (negative) correlation; between .51 (-.51) and .70 (-.70), there is a moderate positive (negative) correlation; and between .71 (-.71) and 1.00 (-1.00), there is high positive (negative) correlation.

First, the different EE activities (altogether eight activities) were correlated with one another. It can be seen from Table 25 that there are a number of significant correlations among EE activities, yet most can be found between online reading and other activities. It is not surprising, however, that there is a moderate correlation between online reading and paper-based reading (.55),

for instance, as the two activities are really similar in nature, i.e., they both involve reading. Surprisingly, video games correlate with only a few other EE activities, and even where correlation can be detected, the values are very low. A possible explanation for this could lie in the fact that video games are one of the most complex EE activities: it involves reading, writing, speaking, i.e., communicating with others, interactions, etc.; therefore, it is not surprising that such an activity behaves a little differently than other, somewhat less complex, EE activities. This could be further investigated in the future, both qualitatively and quantitatively.

Table 25. Significant correlations among scales in the student questionnaire

Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1. EE reading (online)	1																									
2. EE reading (paper-based)	.55	1																								
3. EE films and series	.44	.39	1																							
4. EE video games	.13			1																						
5. EE YouTube	.48	.34	.24	.31	1																					
6. EE TikTok	.28	.19	.28		.15	1																				
7. EE chatting	.46	.43	.27		.22	.26	1																			
8. EE listening to music	.30	.14	.19		.27	.32	.16	1																		
9. Extramural EFL WTC	.40	.40	.37	.14	.29		.31	.17	1																	
10. In-school EFL WTC	.26	.33	.31	.15	.26		.33	.13	.59	1																
11. Extramural EFL anxiety	-.22	-.25	-.15	-.12	-.22		-.27		-.54	-.50	1															
12. In-school EFL anxiety	-.13	-.23		-.13	-.25	.09	-.25		-.46	-.68	.75	1														
13. Extramural motivated language use	.53	.42	.49	.17	.36	.22	.42	.30	.69	.54	-.48	-.43	1													
14. In-school motivated learning behavior	.12		.19	-.15	-.09	.21	.20	.17	.14	.28			.32	1												
15. Extramural learning beliefs	.45	.26	.33		.27	.19	.23	.38	.40	.31	-.16	-.18	.64	.23	1											

Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
16. In-school learning beliefs										.25	.11		.15	.61	.23	1										
17. English subtitle use	.46	.33	.34	.40	.47	.14	.26	.15	.39	.37	-.25	-.22	.54	.15	.38	.11	1									
18. Hungarian subtitle use				.13		.16		.12			.22	.21		.18		.19	.21	1								
19. Perceived importance of English	.37	.17	.16		.22	.15	.23	.27	.41	.20			.47	.19	.56	.15	.33	.05	1							
20. Intercultural orientation	.47	.39	.34		.35	.17	.35	.21	.73	.50	-.43	-.38	.72	.16	.49		.43		.66	1						
21. Language Learning Experience	.17		.19			.15	.13	.16	.24	.43		-.11	.37	.61	.32	.62	.23	.12	.38	.39	1					
22. Ideal L2 Self	.47	.44	.48		.35	.19	.33	.24	.59	.51	-.34	-.33	.69	.23	.52		.45		.51	.65	.35	1				
23. Ought-To L2 Self					.12						.19	.17		.14		.14			.25	.15			1			
24. Inclusion of own EE interests into EFL lessons	.50	.30	.31	.41	.36	.14	.28	.26	.46	.37	-.23	-.20	.58	.14	.43	.13	.49	.17	.37	.46	.25	.44		1		
25. EFL teachers' inclusion of learners' interests into EFL lessons	.27	.21	.23		.12	.14	.17	.16	.22	.31		-.17	.32	.30	.25	.34	.21		.24	.30	.47	.28	.25	.32	1	
26. EFL teachers willingness to map learners' EE interests	.23	.15	.14			.14	.19		.13	.29			.25	.36	.17	.35			.19	.19	.45	.18	.22	.38	.64	1

As a second step, different individual learner differences were examined. In terms of willingness to communicate, there were several statistically significant correlations identified between extramural as well as in-class willingness to communicate and many other variables. In the case of extramural WTC, relationships were identified between this variable and in-school WTC (.59), extramural anxiety (-.54), in-school anxiety (-.46), extramural motivated language use (.69), extramural learning beliefs (.40), English subtitle use (.39), the perceived importance of the English language (.41), intercultural orientation (.73), the Ideal L2 Self (.59) and the inclusion of own EE interests into EFL lessons at school. As for in-school WTC, significant correlations were identified with extramural WTC (.59), in-school anxiety (-.68), extramural anxiety (-.50), extramural motivated language use (.54), English subtitle use (.37), intercultural orientation (.50), Language Learning Experience (.43) and the Ideal L2 Self (.51). These results are partly in line with the results of previous research, as results of this study also show that WTC in both the in-school and extramural contexts negatively correlate with anxiety, i.e., less anxious learner are more willing to communicate in English (Chu 2008, MacIntyre 1999, MacIntyre et al. 1999, Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. 1991, Yildiz–Piniel 2020). Intercultural orientation may be another important predictor of WTC. If learners are interested in making new connections and finding friends with whom they can speak English, they are more likely to be open for communication in English than learners who do not wish to make such connections. The high values for the Ideal L2 Self (.51) and Language Learning Experience (.43) also mean that the more motivated a learner is, the more likely it is that they are willing to make utterances in English, findings which are in line with the results of previous research (Hashimoto 2002, MacIntyre et al. 2001, Peng 2007, Peng–Woodrow 2010, Yashima 2002). As for the relationship between extramural WTC and extramural motivated language use (.54), it seems that the more motivated a learner is in an extramural context, the more likely it is that they are willing to communicate using the English language (Horowitz 2019, Reinders–Wattana 2014, Reinders–Wattana 2015).

As far as anxiety is concerned, statistically significant relationships were found between extramural anxiety and extramural (-.54) and in-school (-.50) WTC, extramural motivated language use (-.48), intercultural orientation (-.43) and the Ideal L2 Self (-.34). In the case of in-school anxiety, statistically significant correlations were identified between in-school anxiety and extramural (-.46) and in-school (-.68) WTC, extramural anxiety (.75), extramural motivated language use (-.43), intercultural orientation (-.38) and the Ideal L2 Self (-.33). These results are in line with previous research, which shows that anxiety negatively correlates with both motivation (Csizér–Piniel 2016, Gardner et al. 1997, Kormos–Dörnyei 2004, Papi 2010, Piniel–Albert 2018) and

WTC (Chu 2008, MacIntyre 1999, MacIntyre et al. 1999, Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. 1991, Yildiz–Piniel 2020).

From the three components of Dörnyei's (2005) Motivational Self System, the Ideal L2 Self is found to be correlating with extramural (.59) and in-school (.51) WTC, extramural (-.34) and in-school (-.33) anxiety, extramural motivated language use (.69), extramural learning beliefs (.52), English subtitle use (.45), the perceived importance of English (.51), intercultural orientation (.65) and the Language Learning Experiences (.35) of learners. The Ought-To L2 self is found to be correlating with the perceived importance of the English language (.25). Finally, Language Learning Experience correlates with in-school anxiety (.43), in-school motivated learning behavior (.61), the perceived importance of English (.38), intercultural orientation (.39) and the Ideal L2 Self (.35). The results are in line with the findings of previous research that learners are aware of the global importance of the English language (Csizér–Lukács 2010) and that the ideal self is the strongest predictor of in-school motivated learning behavior (Csizér–Kormos 2009). Furthermore, as the Ought-To L2 Self did not correlate with many other variables, it may be concluded that, in line with the results of previous research, it plays a less significant role in the motivation of participants (Busse–Williams 2010, Csizér–Lukács 2010, Eid 2008, Lamb 2012, Kormos et al. 2011). In addition, similarly to the results of previous research showing that learners' L2 learning experience is strongly connected to motivated language learning behavior, the results of this study also found that in-school motivated language learning behavior strongly correlates with the language learning experience component of the Motivational Self System (Csizér–Kormos 2009, Islam et al. 2013, Kormos–Csizér 2008, Lamb 2012, Papi 2010, Papi–Teimouri 2012, Taguchi et al. 2009).

5.5.8 The impact of EE activities on the different individual learner differences

In this section, it is investigated whether the different EE activities (independent variables) have an impact on the different individual learner differences (dependent variables), such as L2 learning motivation and its related concepts, L2 anxiety, and L2 willingness to communicate. Finally, the potential impacts of the different individual differences (independent variables) on in-school motivated English language learning behavior and extramural motivated English language use (dependent variable) are also investigated.

5.5.8.1 Learners' willingness to incorporate their EE interests into EFL lessons

Results of the regression analysis uncovered four latent dimensions explaining 40% of students' willingness to include their own EE interests in EFL lessons at school (see Table 26). Four EE activities turned out to be significant predictors of the extent to which learners involve what they have learned from EE activities in EFL lessons at the p<.05 level of significance.

Table 26. Results of regression analysis regarding learners' willingness to include their EE interests in EFL lessons

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE reading online	.31	.04	.36*	7.24
EE video games	.21	.03	.36*	8.30
EE watching films and series	.11	.04	.14*	2.85
EE listening to music	.17	.07	.10*	2.27
R^2	.40			
F for change in R^2	53.340			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

A total of four activities determine 40% of how often and how willingly students incorporate L2 elements they have acquired from various EE interests into school-based EFL lessons. Reading online content in English (e.g., news, websites, etc.) as well as playing English-language video games seem to be the most significant factors in determining to what extent participants are willing to include English-language lexical items and expressions learned from EE in EFL lessons. In the case of English-language films and series, as well as music, the standardized coefficient is less than half of that of playing video games, which may be explained by the fact that in the case of music, for instance, songs, especially pop songs, use really simple language (Murphy 1992, Pavia et al. 2019). As a result, lexical coverage of such songs is also relatively low, i.e., these songs contain basic vocabulary items, so the words students could learn from them are already encountered at earlier stages of the L2 learning process; therefore, at higher levels, songs may be less efficient ways of improving WTC than other EE activities.

5.5.8.2 Beliefs about in-school and extramural learning

The results of the regression analysis revealed that none of the EE activities explain in-school learning beliefs, which may be elucidated by the authenticity gap underlined by Henry (2013), as EE activities by nature occur outside the walls of an EFL classroom; therefore, they may not have an impact on EFL students' in-school learning beliefs. On the other hand, the results also showed that three EE activities explain 28% of participants' extramural learning beliefs (see Table 27). The three EE activities turned out to be significant predictors of extramural learning beliefs at the p<.05 level of significance.

Table 27. Results of regression analysis regarding extramural learning beliefs

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE reading online	.16	.03	.35*	5.86
EE listening to music	.25	.05	.26*	5.19
EE watching film series	.07	.02	.15*	2.80
R^2	.28			
F for change in R^2	43.634			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

5.5.8.3 Motivation and its predictors

This section discusses the impact of EE activities on the three components of Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System, i.e., the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-To L2 Self, and the Language Learning Experience. Additionally, the impact of EE activities on closely related predictors of L2 learning motivation, namely intercultural orientation and the perceived importance of the English language are also investigated. The impact of EE activities on these variables are examined through regression analyses. First, the results pertaining to the Ideal L2 Self are presented.

The results of regression analysis revealed four EE activities explaining 35% of participants' Ideal L2 Self at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 28).

Table 28. Results of regression analysis regarding the Ideal L2 Self

EE activities	B	SE B	β	t
EE watching series	.22	.04	.30*	5.94
EE reading online	.15	.05	.18*	2.97
EE paper-based reading	.15	.05	.18*	3.31
EE watching online videos on YouTube	.10	.04	.13*	2.50
R^2	.35			
F for change in R^2	43.975			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

As the data in Table 28 show, watching English-language films and series, as well as reading English-language content (both online and paper-based), affects participants' Ideal L2 Self. In addition, YouTube videos also have an impact on this motivational component. These results are also in line with the results of Józsa and Imre (2013), Lajtai (2020), confirming that certain EE activities do indeed influence the L2 learning motivation of Hungarian secondary school students.

In the case of the Ought-To L2 Self, the results of the regression analysis revealed that only YouTube videos affect this component of the Motivational Self System at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 29). However, this particular EE activity explains only 1% of the Ought-To L2 Self; therefore, it may be concluded that EE activities do not explain participants' Ought-To L2 Self at all. These results are in line with the findings of previous research showing that the Ought-To L2 Self has a lower impact on the L2 learning process than the Ideal L2 Self (Busse–Williams 2010, Dörnyei et al. 2006, Eid 2008, Kormos–Csizér 2008, Kormos et al. 2011, Lamb 2012). What is more, Kormos and Csizér (2008) had the very same results, i.e., the Ideal L2 Self played a significant role in the motivation of Hungarian EFL learners, while the effect of the Ought-to L2 Self could not be identified in their research.

Table 29. Results of regression analysis regarding the Ought-To L2 Self

EE activities	B	SE B	β	t
EE watching online videos on YouTube	.10	.04	.12*	2.25
R^2	.01			
F for change in R^2	5.080			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

As for the last component of the Motivational Self System, the results of the regression analysis uncovered that the Language Learning Experience can be explained by two EE activities (see Table 30). These two EE activities, namely English-language films and series as well as English-language music, turned out to be significant predictors of this motivational component at the $p<.05$ level of significance but explain only 5% of it.

Table 30. Results of regression analysis regarding the Language Learning Experience

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE watching films and series	.14	.05	.16*	2.89
EE listening to music	.24	.10	.13*	2.41
R^2	.05			
F for change in R^2	8.767			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

These two EE activities, albeit to a marginal extent, could explain the Language Learning Experience component because, as the literature points out, videos and films have been part of foreign language education for decades (Degrave 2019); therefore, students may be more used to engaging in these activities in an EFL lesson, too.

The results in this study concerning two of the three components of the Motivational Self System, the Ideal L2 Self, and the Ought-To L2 Self are in line with the findings of previous research in both the international and Hungarian contexts (Csizér–Kormos 2009, Islam et al. 2013, Kormos–Csizér 2008, Lamb 2012, Papi 2010, Papi–Teimouri 2012, Taguchi et al. 2009). The Ideal L2 Self is a significant predictor, while the Ought-To L2 Self is of much less significance when describing EFL learners' L2 learning motivation. However, in the case of the Language Learning Experience, the results of the current study do not support previous results reported in the literature. Contrary to the previous findings reporting that the Language Learning Experience is also a significant predictor of L2 learning motivation, the impact of EE activities on this component of L2 learning motivation is marginal and negligible. It has to be underlined, however, that previous research did not investigate the impact of EE activities on this motivational component; additionally, the marginal role of the Language Learning Experience (i.e., attitude to in-class EFL lessons) can be simply explained by the fact that EE activities are leisure-time activities and are not pursued by students at school. Therefore, it is no surprise that they do not have a considerable impact on students' attitudes toward EFL lessons.

Dörnyei (2019: 24) recently made an attempt to reconceptualize the Language Learning Experience component of the L2 Motivational Self System, which involved the aspect of "active participation and involvement" of learners in certain behaviors. However, Csizér and Dörnyei (2019) also reconceptualized the Language Learning Experience again and added EE activities to the definition as they play a significant role in describing learners' L2 learning motivation. More recently, Mercer and Dörnyei (2020) have also considered student engagement in the learning process as an important prerequisite for motivated learning behavior. These changes in the definition were required, as otherwise, the original concept of Language Learning Experience could not have been completely applicable in the context of the current research project, yet further research may be required to investigate how EE activities could be incorporated into the concept of Language Learning Experience in order to better capture the essence of the concept.

Regarding the further closely-related variables affecting motivation are concerned, the regression analysis results uncovered that intercultural orientation can be explained by five EE activities (see Table 31).

Table 31. Results of regression analysis regarding intercultural orientation

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE reading online	.18	.05	.23*	3.47
EE paper-based reading	.09	.05	.12*	1.96
EE watching online videos on YouTube	.10	.04	.14*	2.62
EE chatting with others	.07	.03	.13*	2.34
EE watching films and series	.08	.04	.12*	2.29
R^2	.29			
F for change in R^2	25.800			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05

SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient

β – standardized coefficient

R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

These five EE activities turned out to be significant predictors of intercultural orientation at the p<.05 level of significance, explaining 29% of it.

In the case of intercultural orientation, of the five EE activities, YouTube, chatting, and watching films and series may also be of particular interest because, as Kormos and Csizér (2007) point out, Hungary being a predominantly monolingual country, the most common type of contact with the target

language and culture does not occur in person but through the Internet and media. As a result, indirect contact with the target-language culture may be achieved through engagement in EE activities. In addition, through reading, be it online or paper-based, students also have the opportunity to gain access to the target-language culture by consuming recent news or reading novels and short stories in English. Therefore, it may be concluded that intercultural orientation may be affected by engagement in EE activities.

Finally, the impact of EE activities on participants' perceptions of the importance of the English language was also examined through regression analysis. The results show that the importance of the English language variable may be explained by two EE activities, and these two activities have an explanatory power of 16% at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 32).

Table 32. Results of regression analysis regarding the perceived importance of the English language

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE reading online	.21	.04	.31*	5.88
EE listening to music	.22	.07	.17*	3.22
R^2	.16			
F for change in R^2	30.876			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

Regarding the importance of the English language, it may be concluded that reading online and listening to music have an impact on participants' perceptions of the global importance of the English language. Online reading, i.e., the consumption of news and content in general, may provide students with the impression that the English language is an important language, as a great deal of content is either available exclusively in English or for a relatively long time in English only; only later, if at all, are these materials translated into Hungarian. In the case of music, it also speaks for itself that most internationally popular songs are in English. This demonstrates the global dominance and status of the English language, which Crystal (2003) already pointed out in the early 2000s and which Csizér and Lukács (2010) also emphasize.

5.5.8.4 In-school motivated English language learning behavior and extramural motivated language use

When examining in-school motivated English language learning behavior, the results of the regression analysis revealed that four EE activities explain 14% of participants' in-school motivated English language learning behavior (see Table 33). Altogether the four EE activities turned out to be significant predictors of in-school motivated English language learning behavior at the p<.05 level of significance.

Table 33. Results of regression analysis regarding in-school motivated language learning behavior

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE chatting with others	.11	.04	.16*	2.85
EE listening to music	.26	.10	.14*	2.45
EE watching online videos on YouTube	-.15	.05	-.17*	-2.96
EE watching films and series	.11	.05	.13*	2.32
R^2	.14			
F for change in R^2	8.385			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

The four EE activities shaping in-school motivated English language learning behavior are chatting, listening to music, watching YouTube videos, and watching films and series in English. Music and films have been a part of foreign language education for several decades (Degrave 2019); as for writing, certain genres, such as letters and emails, are also parts of EFL lessons, so these activities are familiar for students in EFL lesson-based learning contexts, too. In contrast, YouTube videos have a negative impact on in-school motivated L2 learning behavior, meaning the more videos students watch on YouTube, the less motivated they are in class. This may be explained by the fact that, as opposed to films and series, YouTube videos feature several native and non-native speakers of the English language; therefore, students may encounter all sorts of different native (e.g., Australian, South African, etc.) and non-native varieties (e.g., Germans or Italians speaking English with their distinctive accent) of the English language. As a result, as Buck (2001) points out, language learners who only learn standard varieties of English from textbooks

typically have difficulties understanding other native, let alone non-native varieties of English as they are not used to them.

As for extramural motivated English language learning behavior, the results of the regression analysis uncovered that five out of the eight EE activities explain 42% of the extramural motivated English language learning behavior of the participants of this research project at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 34).

Table 34. Results of regression analysis regarding extramural motivated language use

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE reading (online)	.21	.04	.25*	4.70
EE watching films and series	.22	.03	.31*	6.43
EE chatting with others	.11	.03	.19*	4.05
EE video games	.07	.02	.13*	3.10
EE listening to music	.20	.07	.13*	2.89
R^2	.42			
F for change in R^2	47.174			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

As explained above, these EE activities only marginally determine classroom motivation but seem to contribute much more to extramural motivated language use. These results are consistent with the results of Lajtai (2020). As for the benefits of EE, it may be concluded that the main benefit of these activities is the fact that they motivate language learners to learn English and provide them with exposure to L2 input, learners obtain opportunities for EFL learning while using it at the same time (cf. Bialystok 1981).

5.5.8.5 In-school and extramural anxiety

In the case of in-school L2 speaking anxiety, the results of the regression analysis uncovered that three out of the eight EE activities explain 14% of the L2 speaking anxiety experienced by learners in EFL lessons at school, and these EE activities proved to be significant predictors of anxiety at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 35).

Table 35. Results of regression analysis regarding in-school anxiety

EE activities	B	SE B	β	t
EE watching online videos on YouTube	-.26	.06	-.22*	-4.20
EE chatting with others	-.22	.05	-.25*	-4.59
EE watching videos on TikTok	.13	.04	.19*	3.56
R^2	.14			
F for change in R^2	17.056			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

Two of the activities, YouTube videos and chatting, negatively correlate with in-school anxiety, which means the more learners chat or consume YouTube content, the less anxious they are in EFL classes. In contrast, TikTok positively correlates with in-school anxiety, meaning those who consume more TikTok content are more anxious in EFL classes. A possible explanation may be that TikTok is a more solitary activity and is less interactive than other social media platforms, such as Facebook or Instagram. As Bhandari and Bimo (2020: n.p.) point out, in the case of TikTok, "the crux of interaction is not between users and their social network, but between a user and what we call an 'algorithmized' version of self." Opening TikTok results in being presented with a stream of videos compiled by an algorithm, and no communication is necessary between the user and the content provider. This kind of interaction is completely different from EFL classroom interactions, as in classes, students have to interact with both the teacher and their peers.

Table 36. Results of regression analysis regarding extramural anxiety

EE activities	B	SE B	β	t
EE chatting with others	-.17	.05	-.21*	-3.59
EE watching online videos on YouTube	-.16	.06	-.15*	-2.69
EE watching videos on TikTok	.08	.03	.13*	2.42
EE paper-based reading	-.15	.07	-.13*	-2.16
R^2	.13			
F for change in R^2	11.569			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

In the case of extramural speaking anxiety, the results of the regression analysis revealed that altogether four EE activities explain 13% of the L2 speaking anxiety experienced by learners outside the EFL classroom. All four activities proved to be a significant predictor of anxiety at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 36).

Similar to classroom anxiety, in terms of extramural anxiety, chatting and watching videos on YouTube as well as reading paper-based content were found to have a negative impact on anxiety, meaning that the more someone engages in these activities, the less anxious they are in an extramural environment when they have to speak English. In the case of TikTok, similar to in-school anxiety, a positive correlation was identified, which means that the more TikTok content someone consumes, the more anxious they are when they have to speak English outside of school. Here, too, an explanation for this could be the fact that TikTok is more of a lonely activity and that those who do not create content on TikTok but only consume it are more likely to be more introverted individuals (Bhandari–Bimo 2020).

5.5.8.6 In-school and extramural willingness to communicate

It was also investigated whether EE activities have an impact on in-class WTC through regression analysis. The results of the analysis show that altogether four EE activities explain 20% of in-class WTC. These activities proved to be a significant predictor of in-class WTC at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 37).

Table 37. Results of regression analysis regarding in-class WTC

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE paper-based reading	.19	.06	.17*	2.93
EE chatting with others	.15	.04	.20*	3.57
EE watching films and series	.18	.05	.19*	3.45
EE video games	.10	.04	.14*	2.79
R^2	.20			
F for change in R^2	20.057			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

Furthermore, the impact of EE activities on extramural WTC was also investigated by running a regression analysis. The results of regression analysis uncovered that four EE activities have an impact on extramural WTC with and explanatory power of 24%.

Table 38. Results of regression analysis regarding extramural WTC

EE activities	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
EE reading (online)	.18	.06	.18*	2.94
EE watching films and series	.19	.05	.22*	3.94
EE paper-based reading	.22	.06	.21*	3.61
EE video games	.08	.03	.12*	2.46
R^2	.24			
F for change in R^2	27.332			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

These four EE activities turned out to be significant predictors at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 38). The results in the case of the two WTC variables are remarkably similar. Interestingly, some of the EE activities affecting in-class WTC are more passive activities, such as reading and watching movies and series, during which one only consumes content, while chatting and playing video games are much more interactive activities involving interaction with several parties. Reading and watching films and series can have an impact on in-school WTC because they are also present in the EFL classroom, as coursebooks contain interactive materials through which learners may watch videos in class and read texts, possibly short stories or even shorter novels. As far as films and series are concerned, students can learn a number of vocabulary items that may prove useful in everyday communication, and audio-visual content can also develop students' pragmatic competence (Qiang et al. 2007). As for video games, previous research shows that they positively affect WTC (Reinders–Wattana 2012).

5.5.9 The impact of individual learner differences on motivated learning behavior

The impact of individual learner differences on in-school motivated language learning behavior was also investigated through regression analysis.

Table 39. Results of regression analysis regarding in-school motivated learning behavior and individual learner differences

Variables	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**
In-school learning beliefs	.36	.05	.38*	7.32
Language learning experience	.37	.05	.37*	6.99
R^2	.46			
F for change in R^2	136.674			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

The results of the analysis show that two variables explain 46% of in-class motivated language learning behavior. Both variables are significant predictors at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 39). In-school motivated language learning behavior is explained by two variables: in-school learning beliefs and the language learning experience. These results are partly in line with the findings obtained by Lajtai (2020), according to which in-school learning beliefs and language learning experience are two of the main predictors of in-school motivated language learning behavior. Previous research also found that the language learning experience is one of the most important predictors of in-school motivated language learning behavior (Csizér–Kormos 2009, Islam et al. 2013, Kormos–Csizér 2008, Lamb 2012, Papi 2010, Papi–Teimouri 2012, Taguchi et al. 2009). However, it is important to highlight that, as opposed to the findings of previous research, which found that Ideal L2 Self is the main predictor of school-motivated language learning, in the scope of the present research, the Ideal L2 Self did not turn out to have any impact on in-school motivated language learning behavior.

In addition, the impact of the different individual learner differences on extramural motivated language use was also examined through regression analysis. The results of the analysis show that altogether nine variables explain 75% of extramural motivated language use at the p<.05 level of significance (see Table 40).

Table 40. Results of regression analysis regarding extramural motivated language use and individual learner differences

Variables	B	SE B	β	t
Intercultural orientation	.23	.06	.21*	3.91
Extramural learning beliefs	.47	.06	.29*	7.87
WTC in extramural contexts	.13	.04	.16*	3.59
Ideal L2 self	.18	.04	.18*	4.37
Learners' willingness to include their own extramural English interests into EFL lessons	.13	.03	.14*	3.84
Anxiety in extramural contexts	-.10	.02	-.14*	-4.01
English subtitle use	.09	.03	.11*	3.08
Perceived importance of the English language	.13	.05	.11*	2.59
Language learning experience	.06	.03	.07*	2.31
R^2	.75			
F for change in R^2	105.703			

Note. B stands for regression coefficient. *p<.05
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
β – standardized coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

Regarding extramural motivated language use, the results show that a number of different variables are involved in explaining it. Most of these variables are extramural language learner differences, such as extramural learning beliefs, extramural WTC, and extramural anxiety. In addition, the perceived importance of the English language also plays an important role in explaining extramural motivated language use, as those who value the English language more are more likely to use it in their free time.

Besides, intercultural orientation – that is, openness to communicate with people from different linguacultural backgrounds using the English language – and the use of English subtitles are also important predictors of extramural motivated language use. Similarly to the findings of previous research in the classroom based educational context (Csizér–Kormos 2009, Islam et al. 2013, Kormos–Csizér 2008, Lamb 2012, Papi 2010, Papi–Teimouri 2012, Taguchi et al. 2009), the Ideal L2 Self and language learning experiences play an important role in the extramural context, too, and are important predictors of extramural motivated language use. It may be concluded, therefore, that students who think English is an important language in everyday life use English subtitles when engaging in EE activities. Additionally, these learners seem less anxious in the extramural contexts and have a higher Ideal L2 Self and more positive language learning experiences.

5.6 Conclusion

Study Two involved a number of statistical analyses, so first Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests were investigated through a large-scale questionnaire study. Here, gender differences were investigated, and in line with the results of Study One and previous research (Grau 2009, Józsa–Imre 2013), several gender differences were identified. There was also a difference between the preferences of students who learned English as their first L2 and those who learned English as their second L2. Finally, some differences could also be explored between those who already had a B2 level and those who did not have a B2 level foreign language exam certificate, as well as between participants with a C1 and those who did not have a C1 level foreign language exam certificate in English.

Then, to reduce the number of EE activities in order to obtain a manageable number of variables, factor analysis was used, and a total of eight EE activities were identified. In addition, learners' Hungarian or English subtitles preferences were also investigated, with English subtitles being preferred more over Hungarian subtitles. Learners' beliefs about in-school EFL learning and extramural EFL learning were also put under scrutiny, and it was found that learners found extramural EFL learning (M=4.73) more useful than in-school EFL learning (M=3.45). Similarly, the results showed that students are less motivated in EFL lessons to learn English than to use English in extramural contexts. Therefore, students would be open to incorporating their own interests into EFL lessons; however, they seem to perceive that EFL teachers do not necessarily make efforts to allow this or to map students' EE interests.

In terms of individual learner differences, the L2 learning motivation of the students, especially their Ideal L2 Self, was found to be relatively high, along with students' responses concerning their Language Learning Experience. In contrast, their Ought-To L2 Self was much lower, indicating that peers', parents', and teachers' expectations play a less significant role in the motivation of Hungarian secondary school students. As for intercultural orientation and the perceived importance of the English language, the high averages of these variables indicate that students are open to meeting and communicating with others using the English language and realize the global importance of the English language. In the case of anxiety, no difference between in-school and extramural anxiety was identified; nevertheless, students' extramural WTC proved to be higher than their in-school WTC.

Chapter 6

STUDY THREE

This phase of the research investigated Hungarian EFL teachers' perceptions of (the benefits of) engaging in EE activities and of Hungarian EFL learners' individual learner differences. In order to investigate Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions, the following research questions were formulated:

RQ3 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions of extramural English activities in EFL learning?

RQ5 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' and students' perceptions of EFL students' various individual differences?

The research instrument used in this study was a questionnaire. In fact, the student questionnaire used in Study Two was modified in a way that most constructs investigating students' in-class performance and behavior were kept; however, the items were, to some extent, modified so that secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions of secondary school students could be examined. The reason for including Study Three in the research project was motivated by the intention to investigate EE activities and learners' individual differences from different aspects and perspectives, which ultimately provides an opportunity for data source triangulation, too. This design allowed for the expansion of the findings of Study Two by another quantitative study and for the comparison of the answers of secondary school EFL students and secondary school EFL teachers. It is important to note that the participants of this study, i.e., the Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers involved, do not necessarily have a connection to the student participants of Study Two.

6.1 Participants

Study Three investigated Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers; altogether 60 participants (N=60) were recruited for the study, and the gender distribution of participants was the following: 25% of the participants (n=15) were male, and 75% of the participants (n=45) were female. The average age of the participants was 41.95 years (SD=11.00), with the youngest being 23 and

the oldest 63 years old. The average of years participants taught EFL at the time of the questionnaire was 16.52 (SD=11.39). As for the different types of schools in which participants taught EFL, 73.3% (n=44) teachers taught in grammar schools and 26.7% (n=16) taught in vocational secondary schools. The highest EFL teaching qualification of 88.3% (n=53) of the participants was an MA certificate in EFL teaching, and 11.7% (n=7) of the participants had a BA certificate in EFL teaching. Most participants (85%, n=51) regularly prepared students for foreign language exams, and half of the participants (48.3%, n=29) taught another subject at school besides EFL.

6.2 Instrument

The instrument used in Study Three (see *Appendix C*) is based on the questionnaire used in Study Two, so that comparisons between students' and teachers' responses could be performed. The instrument used in Study Three consists of two sections. The first section aimed to collect information about Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions of Hungarian secondary school EFL learners, more precisely, their in-school motivated behavior, the benefits of EFL lessons and EE activities in EFL learning, teachers' willingness to include and map EE learner interests and EFL teachers' perceptions about Hungarian secondary school EFL learners' in-class EFL anxiety and willingness to communicate in EFL. The first section of the questionnaire included eight constructs consisting of 37 statements. In order to make participants' responses quantifiable, a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("I do not agree at all") to 5 ("I completely agree") was used in the case of the first seven constructs. The constructs with an example in each case are detailed below:

1. *In-school motivated learning behavior* (4 items): EFL teachers' perceptions about how motivated students are to learn English in EFL lessons and how much effort and time they invest into learning English. Sample item: "I think students try to do their best when doing tasks in the English lessons at school."
2. *Extramural learning beliefs* (4 items): EFL teachers' perceptions about EE activities improving EFL learners' English language proficiency. Sample item: "I think if students use English a lot outside of school, they will be better English speakers."
3. *In-school EFL learning beliefs* (4 items): EFL teachers' perceptions about the benefits of EFL lessons at school contributing to their students' English language proficiency. Sample item: "In my opinion, if students pay attention in the English lessons at school, their English will improve."

4. *Learners' inclusion of EE interests into EFL lessons* (5 items): EFL teachers' perceptions about their students' willingness to include their own EE interests into EFL lessons at school. Sample item: "In the English lessons at school, students tend to use words and expressions they have learned in movies, series, or videos."
5. *Teachers' inclusion of learners' EE interests into EFL lessons* (5 items): EFL teachers' perceptions about the extent to which they are willing and open to include their learners' EE interests in EFL lessons at school. Sample item: "We often watch scenes from movies and series in English in English lessons at school."
6. *Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests* (5 items): EFL teachers' perceptions about the extent to which they are willing to explore their learners' EE interests. Sample item: "I usually ask my students what kind of films they watch in English in their free time."
7. *Anxiety in the EFL classroom* (5 items): EFL teachers' perceptions about their students' speaking anxiety related to EFL learning in classroom situations involving a feeling of inhibition. Sample item: "Students are afraid that their classmates will laugh at them when they speak English in class."

The last construct, willingness to communicate in the EFL classroom, was measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much). The construct with an example is detailed below:

8. *WTC in the EFL classroom* (5 items): EFL teachers' perceptions about their students' openness to make utterances and engage in conversations with others in EFL lessons at school. Sample item: "Students hold a presentation in English in an English class."

The second section was to elicit background information about the participants, including age, gender, number of years teaching EFL, types of secondary school participants teach in, highest EFL teaching qualification, whether participants prepare students for foreign language exams, and whether participants teach any other subject(s) besides EFL.

6.3 Data collection and the validation process

Similar to the student questionnaire, the teacher questionnaire was developed in Hungarian. Through expert judgment, two professionals were asked to check if the statements of the questionnaire were to measure the same dimension as the original student questionnaire. This was important so that the data

collected in Study Three and students' answers in Study Two could be compared. The questionnaire was piloted with 30 EFL teachers. To ensure the internal consistency of the scales, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for all scales (for more information about the pilot process, see Fajt 2022a). The final version of the teacher questionnaire was sent to Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers, who were then asked to share it with their EFL teacher colleagues. The data collection itself took place in May 2021.

6.4 Data analysis

As for data analysis, the methods used in Study Two were transferred to Study Three, too. The collected data were first coded, and all negatively worded items (reversed items) were recoded in a reversed manner (e.g., answers of "do not agree at all" (1) were coded as "completely agree" (5), etc.). The coded data were then input into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 27.0, which allowed for complex statistical analyses with the statistical significance level set for $p<.05$. Before the analyses, Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients were calculated for the eight scales to ensure the reliability of the scales used in the study. This was followed by descriptive statistical measures when mean scores (M) and standard deviations (SD) were calculated for all scales. Then relationships among the scales were examined by implementing correlation analyses. Finally, the mean scores of the scales measuring Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' answers were compared with the mean scores of the same scales measuring Hungarian school EFL learners' answers using independent samples t-tests.

6.5 Results and discussion

These sections provide an overview of the results of Study Three. First, the reliability of scales is presented, followed by the presentation of descriptive statistics (mean scores of scales). Then the results of correlation analyses among scales are described, and finally, EFL teachers' (participants of Study Three) and EFL learners' (participants of Study Two) responses are compared and contrasted.

6.5.1 The reliability of scales

First, the reliability of the internal consistency of the different scales used in the study was checked. As a result, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed for the eight scales (see Table 41).

Table 41. Reliability coefficients in the constructs used in Study Three

Scales	Number of items	Cronbach's-alpha
1. In-school motivated learning behavior	4	.846
2. Extramural learning beliefs	4	.780
3. In-school EFL learning beliefs	4	.779
4. Learners' inclusion of EE interests into EFL lessons	5	.702
5. Teachers' inclusion of learners' EE interests into EFL lessons	5	.737
6. Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests	5	.842
7. Anxiety in the EFL classroom	5	.809
8. WTC in the EFL classroom	5	.812

The reliability of the scales was relatively high and reached the .7 threshold indicated in the literature (Dörnyei–Taguchi 2010). The high reliability coefficients of all scales made further analysis – such as the comparison of student and teacher responses – possible and no scales had to be left out from the analysis.

6.5.2 Descriptive statistics

As a second step, the averages of participants' responses were calculated; these are presented in Table 42. From the averages of responses, it becomes apparent that EFL teachers seem to be of the opinion that extramural English activities make a major contribution to EFL students' EFL skills, which is well illustrated not only by the high average (M=4.81) but also by the low standard deviation (SD=.35).

Table 42. Means and standard deviations of the scales of the EFL teacher questionnaire

Scales	M	SD
1. Extramural learning beliefs	4.81	.35
2. In-school EFL learning beliefs	4.19	.59
3. Learners' inclusion of EE interests into EFL lessons	4.17	.61
4. Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests	3.97	.87
5. Teachers' inclusion of learners' EE interests into EFL lessons	3.84	.72
6. WTC in the EFL classroom	3.57	.68
7. In-school motivated learning behavior	3.49	.72
8. Anxiety in the EFL classroom	2.75	.92

In addition to the importance of extramural learning, EFL teachers consider in-school EFL learning to be also important and believe that students are open to incorporating their own EE interests into EFL lessons by using words and phrases they learned while engaging in their various EE activities. Teachers' responses also show that they are open to mapping and incorporating students' EE interests in EFL lessons, probably to motivate them. In the case of individual learner differences, it may be concluded that EFL teachers perceive that students like to speak English in-class (M=3.57) and experience a relatively low level of anxiety (M=2.75). Finally, in the case of in-school motivated learning behavior, EFL teachers do not think that students are particularly motivated to learn English at school (M=3.49).

6.5.3 Correlations among scales

In addition to the means and standard deviations, the relationships between participants' perceptions were also investigated by examining the correlation between them (see Table 43). In Table 43, only statistically significant correlations are reported.

Table 43. Correlations among scales of the EFL teacher questionnaire

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Extramural learning beliefs	1							
2. In-school EFL learning beliefs	.49	1						
3. In-school motivated learning behavior	.43	.29	1					
4. Learners' inclusion of EE interests into EFL lessons	.32		.28	1				
5. Teachers' inclusion of learners' EE interests into EFL lessons				.53	1			
6. Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests	.29			.62	.62	1		
7. Anxiety in the EFL classroom							1	
8. WTC in the EFL classroom			.27				-.67	1

The Pearson's correlation test revealed a relationship between EFL teachers' views on in-school learning and extramural learning (.49) and also a relationship between the usefulness of EE activities in language learning and in-class motivated learning behavior (.43). Interestingly, the relationship between views on the effectiveness of in-school EFL learning and in-school motivated learning behavior (.29) was found to be weaker than between extramural learning beliefs and in-school motivated learning behavior (.43). EFL teachers may think that those who are more motivated at school are motivated because they use English outside of school, too,

and recognize the importance of exploiting the opportunities to learn English at school, too, as this could help learners engage in their EE interests more effectively.

It is also clear from Table 43 that EFL teachers who believe that EE activities are useful in language learning are more likely to think that students incorporate their own interests in EFL lessons (.32). In addition, those who think that students involve their EE interests are more likely to think that students are also more motivated (.28). The data also show that EFL teachers who believe that students involve their own interests are much more likely to map their students' interests (.64) and to involve them in English lessons themselves (.53). It was also found that, similarly to the results of previous research (Chu 2008, MacIntyre 1999, MacIntyre et al. 1999, Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. 1991, Yildiz–Piniel 2020), EFL teachers perceive that there is a negative relationship between anxiety and willingness to communicate (-.67), meaning that the more anxious someone is, the less willing they are to communicate in English. The data also show that teachers think that students who are more willing to communicate in class are more motivated (.27) than those who are less willing to speak English.

6.5.4 The comparison of EFL student and EFL teacher responses

In order to compare EFL students' and EFL teachers' responses, independent samples t-tests were run. The results of independent samples t-tests show that in the case of a total of five variables, statistically significant differences were found (see Table 44).

Table 44. Results of t-tests comparing the averages of Hungarian EFL student and EFL teacher responses

Scales	Teachers (n=60)		Students (n=325)		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD			
1. In-school motivated learning behavior	3.49	.72	3.26	.96	-2.09	.039*	.24
2. Extramural learning beliefs	4.81	.35	4.73	.50	-1.28	.201	.31
3. In-school EFL learning beliefs	4.19	.59	3.45	1.01	-7.82	<.001*	.77
4. Learners' inclusion of EE interests into EFL lessons	4.17	.61	3.34	.83	-9.09	<.001*	1.04
5. Teachers' inclusion of learners' EE interests into EFL lessons	3.84	.72	2.79	.95	-9.78	<.001*	1.14
6. Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests	3.97	.87	2.25	1.04	-13.53	<.001*	1.69
7. Anxiety in the EFL classroom	2.75	.92	2.52	1.23	-1.70	.091	.20
8. WTC in the EFL classroom	3.57	.68	3.51	1.07	-.57	.569	.06

Note. Statistical significance level of t-tests: *p<.05

For the first variable, school-motivated language learning behavior, EFL teachers seem to consider students to be significantly more motivated in class (M=3.49) than students rate their own in-class motivation (M=3.26). These results are in contrast with the findings of previous research, which found that students felt more motivated to learn English than EFL teachers perceived EFL students' in-school motivated learning behavior (Öveges–Csizér 2018). In the case of the second variable, extramural learning beliefs, no statistically significant difference was identified; nonetheless, EFL teachers find EE activities slightly more useful for EFL learning than students. In the case of in-school learning beliefs, however, a statistically significant difference was found in the perceptions of EFL students and teachers. Teachers (M=4.19) find in-school English lessons significantly more useful than students (M=3.45). This may be because EFL teachers know what is useful for EFL learning, as they have learned the tricks of the trade, but this may not always coincide with what students find interesting or entertaining.

The next variable was how often students incorporate English language linguistic elements, such as vocabulary or grammatical structures, learned from EE activities into in-school EFL lessons. The results of an independent samples t-test revealed that EFL teachers seem to think (M=4.17) that students incorporate their interests more frequently in EFL lessons. However, students' perception of the frequency of such incorporation (M=3.34) is much lower. EFL teachers similarly believe (M=3.84) that they regularly involve their students' interests in in-school EFL lessons, but EFL students reported (M=2.79) that EFL teachers do this less frequently. Similarly, teachers believe (M=3.97) that they regularly map learners' EE activities, but EFL students (M=2.25) reported that teachers do this much less frequently. The reason for this discrepancy may lie in the fact that while EFL teachers make attempts to bring such interests into in-school EFL classes, they may not be able to gauge exactly what students are interested in. Therefore, it is possible that they listen to English language music in EFL classes, but it may be that these songs are relatively old (for learners), and therefore learners do not listen to them. As for films and film scenes, for instance, it is possible that the scenes or films that students watch in EFL lessons may not be of interest to them as much as if they themselves could select a film or series to be watched in class (cf. Henry, 2013).

In terms of in-school EFL anxiety and in-school EFL willingness to communicate, no significant differences between EFL teachers' and EFL students' responses were identified; however, in both cases, it may be concluded that teachers rate students' willingness to communicate slightly higher (M=3.57) than students themselves do (M=3.51), and EFL teachers also perceive (M=2.75) that students are more anxious in EFL lessons than they actually are (M=2.52).

6.6 Conclusion

The results of Study Three partly confirm the results of previous research (Chu 2008, MacIntyre 1999, MacIntyre et al. 1999, Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. 1991, Yildiz–Piniel 2020), as it was found in the perceptions of Hungarian EFL teachers that there is a negative relationship between L2 speaking anxiety and L2 willingness to communicate. It was also revealed that EFL teachers who find EE activities more useful for EFL learning incorporate such activities in their EFL lessons more often. A comparison of students' and teachers' responses showed that students are less motivated in EFL classes than EFL teachers perceive them to be. The results also uncovered that EFL teachers typically think that they do incorporate learners' EE interests into the EFL lessons; however, students are of the opinion that this is not necessarily the case. It would be worthwhile to investigate the underlying reasons for this difference in the perceptions of students and teachers, as it is possible that EFL teachers overestimate how well they know their students' EE interests. EFL teachers, therefore, should actually map their students' interests by adopting some of the methods described in Section 3.1 (e.g., questionnaires and interviews).

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

This chapter summarizes the main findings of the present research project, followed by the pedagogical and theoretical implications of the findings. Finally, possible directions for further research are outlined, along with the limitations of the research project.

7.1 The main findings of the research project

The research project adopted a mixed methods research design, which meant that both qualitative and quantitative methods were combined in order to map the context of EFL learning through EE activities at the secondary education level in Hungary. Another important feature of the research was that the different research phases (Study One, Study Two, and Study Three) informed each other, i.e., the results of the different phases were not only related to each other, but all research instruments were designed and prepared based on the results of the studies preceding them within the framework of this project. The results of this research aim to fill an important research gap by adding findings to the very little such research in Hungary (cf. Lajtai 2020), in this way contributing to a better understanding of EFL learning through EE activities.

The main aim of the research was, on the one hand, to map Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests and, on the other hand, to examine the impact of these EE activities on the different foreign language learning individual variables. The exploration of these relationships was carried out using different statistical methods (inferential statistics). In the following sections, the main findings of this research project are presented for each research question.

RQ1 What extramural English activities do Hungarian secondary school EFL learners engage in?

Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests were examined using both qualitative and quantitative methods. As I did not have any insights into the

EE interests of secondary school students, it seemed straightforward to try to gain insight into them through qualitative methods, more precisely, semi-structured interviews. The findings of the qualitative interview study showed that students pursue a number of EE activities in their free time, namely (1) traveling abroad and using English, (2) watching TV, movies, and series in English, (3) watching videos in English, (4) listening to music in English, (5) reading blogs in English, (6) reading books in English, (7) reading and checking the news in English, (8) using social media in English, (9) playing video games in English, (10) exposure to native speakers of English or speakers with different L1s than that of the participants, (11) communicating in English while doing sports, and (12) using English at school in classes other than EFL. It is striking that learners use English as a means in several cases, such as visiting different websites or watching videos for non-language learning purposes. In addition, when they consume EE content, such as series and movies, they mainly do so for their own entertainment. This, of course, does not prevent but promotes foreign language learning while using the language (Bialystok 1981) – through incidental learning (Schmidt 1993, 1995, 2001). Based on the quantitative results of Study Two, the most favored EE activities include (1) reading books, (2) reading posts on Instagram, (3) playing video games, (4) chatting with others, (5) reading websites, (6) watching movies, (7) reading blogs, (8) reading Twitter posts, (9) watching films and series in English, (10) watching tutorial videos, (11) watching videobloggers on YouTube, (12) listening to music, (13) reading posts on Facebook, (14) watching gamers on Twitch, (15) reading magazines, (16) watching TikTok videos, (17) reading newspapers, (18) reading news in English. Based on these findings, it may be concluded that students seem to prefer EE activities that they can do on their smart devices and typically require a shorter attention span (e.g., listening to music, or watching videos).

Similar to the findings of previous research (cf. Grau 2009, Józsa–Imre 2013), gender differences in students' preferences were also identified. Video games, for instance, seem to be more popular among boys, but the qualitative results also included, of course, female participants who identified themselves as "gamers". In contrast, both qualitative and quantitative results show that TikTok and beauty and makeup videos on YouTube are more popular among girls.

The results also show that in many cases, where available, students use English subtitles instead of Hungarian subtitles when consuming audiovisual EE content. This contributes to incidental learning and increases L2 awareness, as learners, in addition to hearing L2 input, can also visualize the language content.

RQ2 What are Hungarian secondary school students' perceptions of extramural English activities in EFL learning?
RQ3 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions of extramural English activities in EFL learning?

In the case of perceptions about in-school EFL learning and extramural EFL learning, the conclusion may be drawn that both students and teachers find it useful to learn languages from both in-school and EE activities. The data also showed that both groups considered EE activities to be more useful than school-based EFL lessons. However, based on the answers of the teachers, it can be said that they consider in-school English lessons to be significantly more useful for EFL learning than the students, which is not surprising, as the teachers are methodologically prepared and trained for education, so they actually know what is needed for effective EFL learning. Additionally, as it is underlined in the literature, there is a consensus among both teachers and researchers that effective L2 learning involves the combination of both classroom-based L2 instruction and out-of-school exposure to the particular L2 (Nunan–Richards 2015, Richards 2015). As for the differences between EFL teachers' and students' perceptions about the benefits of EE activities, presumably, as Henry (2013) points out, students find EE activities more interesting and thus more useful than school English lessons.

RQ4 How do extramural English activities affect Hungarian secondary school EFL learners' various individual learner differences?

Since several individual learner differences were included in the present research along with numerous related variables affecting individual differences, this section presents findings based on the sub-research questions of RQ4.

RQ4.1 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 learning motivation?

When examining the L2 language learning motivation of Hungarian secondary school EFL learners, Dörnyei's (2005) Motivational Self System was chosen as a theoretical framework for the present research project. This choice was motivated by the fact that this theory has been one of the most recent theories, and it has also been tested in various contexts, including Hungary. In addition, the three components of the theory have been proven to describe the Hungarian EFL learning context adequately. As a consequence, these components and the impact of EE activities on these variables were investigated.

In the case of the Ideal L2 Self, it was found that several EE activities, namely (1) watching films and series, (2) reading online, (3) paper-based reading, and (4) watching online videos on YouTube, have an impact on it. In contrast, the Ought-To L2 Self was affected only by one EE activity, (1) watching YouTube videos, while in the case of Language Learning Experience, positive cause–effect relationships between said variable and different EE activities, such as (1) watching films and series and (2) listening to music were identified in several cases. These results are, in some respects, consistent with the results of previous research, which found that the Ideal L2 Self and the Language Learning Experience are the main predictors of L2 learning motivated behavior in the Hungarian context. In contrast, the Ought-To L2 Self was found to be a less significant factor (Dörnyei et al. 2006, Kormos–Csizér 2008). The results of the present research also show that EE activities impact the former two variables and much less on the latter, which again indicates that the Ought-To L2 Self is less significant in the Hungarian context.

Based on previous research as well as the literature, the impact of EE activities on additional predictors of L2 learning motivation was also investigated. The results show that intercultural orientation is affected by a number of EE activities (reading online, paper-based reading, watching YouTube videos, chatting with others, and watching films and series), while the perceived importance of the English language was only affected by only two EE activities (online reading and listening to music); however, in the case of both variables, EE activities had a somewhat strong explanatory power (29% and 16% respectively). Thus, it may be concluded that L2 learning motivation and its further related variables, such as intercultural motivation and the perceived importance of the English language, are highly affected by EE activities.

RQ4.2 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 anxiety?

As opposed to motivation, a slightly weaker relationship between EE activities and students' in-school and extramural anxiety was identified in the case of anxiety. Albeit with a relatively weak explanatory power, three EE activities (watching YouTube videos, chatting, and TikTok) affect Hungarian secondary school students' self-perceived level of anxiety. An interesting result is that all activities but one (TikTok) have a positive effect on foreign language anxiety, meaning that the more one does such activities, the less anxiety they experience; yet in the case of TikTok, a negative effect was identified, i.e., those who use TikTok a lot, experience more L2 speaking anxiety, which might be related to TikTok being more of a loner EE activity.

RQ4.3 What characterizes Hungarian secondary school students' L2 willingness to communicate?

Four EE activities (reading online, watching films and series, paper-based reading, and video games) affect in-school and extramural WTC; however, the impact is only marginal here, too. Interestingly, in the case of the WTC, both in-school and extramural WTC are more affected by passive EE activities. Playing video games is the only EE activity out of the four which requires players to speak and communicate with others when gaming online.

RQ5 What are Hungarian secondary school EFL teachers' and students' perceptions of EFL students' various individual differences?

A comparison of the results of the student and teacher questionnaires also revealed that in many cases, EFL teachers do not necessarily perceive EFL learners' L2 learning motivation, WTC, and anxiety adequately as in the case of anxiety, for instance, teachers rated students' anxiety levels higher than students' self-reported anxiety levels actually were. In addition, in the case of L2 learning motivation, it may be concluded that EFL teachers rated EFL learners' in-school motivated learning behavior higher than the results obtained from the student questionnaire. These results are in contrast with those of Öveges and Csizér (2018), whose nationwide study showed that EFL teachers consider students less motivated than students consider themselves. These results suggest that it would be much more worthwhile for EFL teachers to cater more to learners' individual differences to reduce anxiety and increase students' motivation in lessons by incorporating their EE interests in EFL lessons much more frequently and to a greater extent.

RQ6 What impact do the various EE activities and various individual differences have on Hungarian secondary school students' in-school motivated learning behavior and extramural motivated language use?

Several EE activities impact both in-school motivated language learning behavior and extramural motivated language use. In-school motivated learning behavior is explained by four EE activities (chatting, listening to music, YouTube, and films and series) with an explanatory power of only 14%. All these activities are frequently used in an EFL classroom and could, therefore, be predictors of in-school motivated learning behavior. On the other hand, extramural motivated language use is affected by several EE activities, too. These five EE activities, namely online reading, films and series, chatting, listening

to music, and video games, predict extramural motivated language use with an explanatory power of 42%. This means that the more learners engage in these EE activities, the more motivated they become to use the English language and, consequently, to learn English.

Both in-school motivated language learning behavior and extramural motivated language use are affected by a number of individual learner differences. In the case of in-school motivated language learning behavior, with an explanatory power of 46%, partly in line with the results of previous research (Busse–Williams 2010, Dörnyei et al. 2006, Eid 2008, Kormos–Csizér 2008, Kormos et al. 2011, Lamb 2012), Language Learning Experience and perceptions about in-school EFL learning turned out to be the main predictors in this study. However, as opposed to the results of previous research, the Ideal L2 Self was found to have no impact on in-school motivated language learning behavior. This requires further research to investigate what other variables could affect motivated language learning behavior instead.

As for extramural motivated language use, several variables, a total of nine (Ideal L2 Self, Language Learning Experience, intercultural orientation, the perceived importance of the English language, extramural EFL learning beliefs, English subtitle use, extramural L2 anxiety, extramural WTC, learners' willingness to include their own Extramural English interests into EFL lessons), explain it and the explanatory power is also very high (75%). These results are consistent with the results of Lajtai (2020) as well as previous research. It seems that intercultural orientation, beliefs, and perceptions about extramural EFL learning largely determine extramural motivated language use. It would also be important to investigate further the impact of these variables on motivated learning behavior as well as extramural motivated language use.

7.2 Pedagogical and theoretical implications

The findings of this research include implications for both researchers and language teaching professionals. The results of the study show that EE activities have a positive effect on various individual learner variables (e.g., motivation); therefore, it is worthwhile to incorporate EE activities in L2 teaching as they have the potential to make the teaching and learning process more efficient by making attempts to abridge the *authenticity gap* proposed by Henry (2013). Another important pedagogical implication of the research project is that by involving students' EE interests in EFL lessons, examples could be provided to them on how to improve their L2 skills in the future, thereby fostering learner autonomy and life-long learning skills. These skills along with self-regulation are important skills in the 21st century, and one of the important aims of foreign language teachers should be the nurture of these skills. It is, therefore,

important to draw the attention of language teachers to the importance and benefits of mapping their own students' EE interests as this, provided that it is successful, may increase learners' L2 learning motivation, reduce their L2 anxiety and increase their L2 willingness to communicate. However, a kind of openness and genuine interest on the part of foreign language teachers is also important for this. As for theoretical implications, EE activities could be involved more in L2 motivation research as they may impact learners' L2 learning motivation in other L2 learning contexts than that of secondary education, too.

7.3 Directions for further research

The present research project investigated EFL learning through EE activities and the potential impact of EE activities on the different individual learner differences in the Hungarian secondary education context. As a next step, a larger-scale representative quantitative study could investigate and map Hungarian secondary school students' EE interests and investigate the relationship between their EE interests and individual learner differences; this way, findings of such a study could be extrapolated for the whole population of Hungarian secondary school students. Besides, other contexts could also be investigated, namely Hungarian primary school students' EE interests, and individual learner differences could also be mapped along with Hungarian adult EFL learners' EE interests and individual differences. Furthermore, other individual learner variables, such as learning strategies, and the impact of EE on these variables could be investigated. Certain findings of this research project, such as the positive correlation between the frequent use of TikTok and anxiety, could also be investigated qualitatively to obtain more in-depth insights into why using TikTok increases EFL anxiety. Finally, based on the findings of this research project, recommendations, practical tips, and good practices could be compiled from experienced EFL teachers who already incorporate EE in their teaching. These good practices could then be published.

7.4 Limitations of the research design

One of the limitations of the present research is the sampling methods which do not allow for the generalizability of the results and findings to the whole population of both secondary school EFL students and EFL teachers. These findings, however, provide insights into EFL learning and teaching practices in Hungary and may lay the foundations for future research in the field.

Since self-reported data were gathered through the student and teacher questionnaires, participants might have been biased in certain ways, e.g., due

to selective memory (they might remember or might not remember specific events or experiences), exaggeration (they might attribute more significance to something that is only suggested) and attribution (they might feel that positive outcomes happen because of themselves and negative outcomes occur due to external forces) (Cohen et al. 2018). Furthermore, the researcher behind this research project is also a human being, so from the researcher's point of view, personal bias was to be avoided, but even with the external help of other researchers (e.g., with the coding, etc.), a certain degree of subjectivity may be found in the interpretation of the collected (qualitative) data.

Finally, *social desirability bias* (Militades 2008) and the so-called *Hawthorne effect* are also possible project limitations (Dörnyei 2007). Participants often feel that there are certain answers, behavior patterns or attitudes they are expected to have (social desirability bias), and therefore, they might not share their honest opinion or view on something but provide answers that they think they are expected to give. A closely related issue is when participants overreport the socially desirable attitude in a questionnaire or an interview, for instance, and underreport the socially less desirable ones. This could have influenced the data collected in the project. In addition, participants may alter their behavior and act differently if they know they are being observed (Hawthorne effect) (Shaughnessy et al. 2011).

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: The English version of the interview guide (Study One)

BASIC QUESTIONS	FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS
Background questions	
How old are you?	
Which grade are you in?	
What kind of school do you go to?	Secondary school? Comprehensive grammar school? Secondary technical school?
What foreign languages do you speak?	
How long have you been learning English at school?	Do you learn any other foreign languages at school? How long have you been learning them?
Have you ever been abroad?	If so, where? Did you have to speak English there?
If you are at home and prepare and revise for an English as a Foreign Language lesson, what do you usually do?	How do you learn words/expressions? How do you learn grammar?
Free time activities in English	
Do you watch TV/movies/series?	If so, in English or in Hungarian? Do you use a subtitle? If so, English or Hungarian? Can you remember any expressions you learned from series or movies?
Do you watch videos on the Internet?	If so, where? Do you follow any vloggers? Do they make videos in English? Are they native speakers?
Do you read any written blogs?	If so, what kind of content?
Do you listen to music? Do you watch music videos?	If so, do you check the lyrics of English language songs?
Do you play video games?	If so, do you play offline or online? Do you like playing video games with others online? Do you communicate in English?
Do you read books, magazines, newspapers in English?	Please specify it.
Do you surf the Internet?	What kind of webpages that are in English do you visit regularly?
If you are on social media, do you follow anyone?	If so, what social media are you on? Are you active? Tumblr? Facebook? Instagram? Snapchat?

If you have a smart phone, do you use any applications?	If so, what kind of applications? In English or in Hungarian?
Do you read / write / listen to anything or talk to anyone in English in general?	Can you describe a typical situation?
Have you ever been in a situation when you learned something from an "out-of-school English activity" and could use this knowledge in a lesson that was not an English lesson?	What was it? Please specify it.
Have you ever been in a situation when you learned something from an "out-of-school English activity" and could use this knowledge in an English?	What was it? Please specify it.
What are the English language activities you do not do in your free time, but your friends and acquaintances do?	Why do you not do these activities?
Is there any English language activity you would like to try?	If so, why?
Is there anything else I did not ask you about but you think could be related to the topic?	

Appendix B: The English version of the student questionnaire (Study Two)

Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how often you do the following activities in English.
1 (never)
2 (less than once a week)
3 (once a week)
4 (several times a week)
5 (every day)

1. Watching film series in English
2. Watching tutorial videos in English
3. Playing video games in English
4. Chatting with others in English
5. Reading Twitter posts in English
6. Reading websites in English
7. Watching movies in English
8. Reading blogs in English
9. Watching videobloggers on YouTube in English
10. Reading posts on Instagram in English
11. Reading books in English
12. Listening to music in English
13. Reading posts on Facebook in English
14. Watching gamers on Twitch in English
15. Reading magazines in English
16. Watching TikTok videos in English
17. Reading newspapers in English
18. Reading news in English

Subtitle use habits
Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 to what extent you like doing the following activities.
1 (I don't like doing it at all)
2 (I don't like doing it)
3 (I both like doing it and not like doing it)
4 (I like doing it)
5 (I really like doing it)

English subtitle use habits
1. Watching movies in English with English subtitles.
2. Watching series in English with English subtitles.

3. Playing video games in English with English subtitles.
4. Watching English speaking video bloggers using English subtitles.
5. Watching tutorial videos in English with English subtitles.

Hungarian subtitles use habits

1. Watching movies in English with Hungarian subtitles.
2. Watching series in English with Hungarian subtitles.
3. Playing video games in English with Hungarian subtitles.
4. Watching English speaking video bloggers using Hungarian subtitles.
5. Watching tutorial videos in English with Hungarian subtitles.

Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 to what extent you agree with the following statements.

1 (I absolutely disagree)
2 (I rather disagree)
3 (I neither agree nor disagree)
4 (I rather agree)
5 (I completely agree)

In-school motivated learning behavior

1. I spend more time to preparing for English lessons at school than any other subject.
2. I am happy to make an effort to get better grades in English lessons at school.
3. I will do my best to get good grades in English lessons at school.
4. I try to spend much time studying English.

Extramural motivated language use

1. I would still love to learn English even if I didn't have English lessons at school.
2. I do several leisure time activities that require the knowledge of the English language.
3. I like using English in my free time.
4. I like going to places where I have to speak English with foreigners.
5. I like taking every opportunity outside of school to use English.

Extramural learning beliefs

1. I think I would become a better speaker if I use English a lot outside of school.
2. I am sure that my English vocabulary will be better if I do more leisure time activities (e.g., movies, series, music, podcasts, etc.) in English.
3. I feel the more I encounter English in my free time, the more I understand the different content in English.
4. I feel the more I use English in my free time, the better my English language skills will be.

In-school learning beliefs

1. I think if I pay attention in English lessons, my English will improve.
2. My English vocabulary will be better if I regularly do all tasks in the English lessons.
3. In my opinion, the more English lessons we have at school, the more our English improves.
4. I think if I do all exercises in the English lessons, my English will improve.

Learners' willingness to include their own extramural English interests into EFL lessons

1. I often use words, expressions that I heard in movies, series or in videos in English lessons at school.
2. I use words, expressions that I heard from songs in English lessons at school.
3. I usually use words and expressions that I learned from video games in English lessons at school.
4. If I find an unknown word or expression while I am playing video games, watching movies, surfing the web, I usually ask my teacher what it means.
5. I usually use words, expressions that I learned from native English speakers on the internet in English lessons at school.

Teachers' willingness to include learners' EE interests into EFL lessons

1. We usually watch scenes from movies and series in English in English lessons at school.
2. We usually read from English language books, newspapers or magazines in English lessons at school.
3. We listen to English language songs in English lessons at school.
4. We play English language video games (e.g., on our smartphones or on PC) in English lessons at school.
5. We watch videos in English in English lessons at school.

Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests

1. My English teacher usually asks us what kind of films we watch in English in our free time.
2. My English teacher usually asks us whether we read books in English in our free time.
3. My English teacher usually inquires about what kind of music we listen to in English in our free time.
4. My English teacher often asks us what kind of video games we play in English in our free time.
5. My English teacher usually asks what kind of English videos we watch in our free time.

Ideal L2 self

1. In my opinion in a few years' time, I will be able to communicate well in English.
2. When I think of myself in the future, I see myself as a person who speaks English very well.
3. I can imagine that in the future I will be studying at a university where all subjects are taught in English.
4. I can imagine that I can speak English fluently.
5. In my opinion, in the future, I will be able to communicate well with foreigners using English.

Ought-to L2 self

1. It is important for me to learn English, because the ones around me expect me to learn English.
2. It is important for me to learn English because my close friends also think it is important to learn English.
3. I feel others expect me to speak English as well as a native speaker does.
4. According to my parents, being able to speak English fluently makes us educated.

Language learning experience

1. I like things we usually do in English lessons.
2. I love the atmosphere of English lessons.
3. I think learning English is very interesting.
4. I am glad that I can learn English at school.
5. I would love to have more English lessons at school.

Intercultural orientation

1. I like getting in touch with English speaking foreigners.
2. I like situations when I must speak English with others.
3. I would love to travel to countries where I have to communicate in English with locals.
4. It is great to speak English because many people speak it around the world.

Perceived importance of the English language

1. It is important to learn English as it is an international language.
2. Learning English helps me understand others from all over the world.
3. If I spoke English well, I would be able to get to know more people from all over the world.
4. I like learning English because I can communicate with people from other countries.
5. Nowadays, it is important to speak English in order to get by in the world.

Anxiety in the EFL classroom

1. I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I speak English.
2. I get nervous when I have to speak English in class.
3. It is embarrassing for me to speak English in front of other students.
4. I feel confident when I speak English in class.
5. I am really confident when I speak English in class.

Anxiety in extramural contexts

1. I am very nervous if I have to speak English with a native speaker.
2. I get confused if I have to speak English with someone who is not Hungarian.
3. I feel bad when I have to speak English with a native speaker.
4. I get anxious when I have to chat in English with someone on the internet.
5. I don't feel good if I have to speak English abroad.

WTC

Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 to what extent you are willing to speak English in the following situations.

1 (I don't want to speak at all)
2 (I don't want to speak)
3 (Neutral)
4 (I want to speak)
5 (I want to speak very much)

WTC in the EFL classroom

1. I hold a presentation in English in an English class.
2. I speak English with my classmates in an English class.
3. I speak English with my English teacher in class.
4. I answer a question asked by my English teacher in class.
5. I ask something in English from my English teacher in class.

WTC in extramural contexts

1. I am on vacation abroad with my parents and I need to ask for directions in English.
2. I must communicate in English when I am shopping abroad.
3. I want to use public transportation when I am abroad and need to buy a ticket using the English language.
4. I need to buy an entrance ticket to visit a museum abroad using English.
5. I would like to buy a gift for my family members or friends and I need to speak in English with the shopkeeper.

Background questions

1. How old are you?

2. What gender are you?
– male
– female

3. In what grade are you in?

4. What type of secondary school do you attend?
– 8 grade grammar school
– 6 grade grammar school
– 4 grade grammar school
– special foreign language preparatory program (4+1 years)
– vocational secondary school

5. Do you learn English at school?
– yes
– no

6. How long have you been learning English at school?

7. How many English lessons do you have a week?

8. What is your first foreign language learned at school?
– I don't learn a second foreign language at school
– English
– German
– French
– Spanish
– Italian
– Other

9. What is your second foreign language learned at school?
– English
– German
– French
– Spanish
– Italian
– Other

10. Do you have at least a B2 level complex foreign language exam certificate? (If you have a C1 level exam certificate, click on "yes")
– yes
– no

11. How many B2 level complex language exam certificates do you have?

12. What foreign languages do you have an at least B2 level complex language exam certificate? (indicate all languages)
– English
– German
– French
– Spanish
– Italian
– Other

13. Do you have any C1 level complex foreign language exam certificates?
– yes
– no

14. How many C1 level complex foreign language exam certificates do you have?

15. What foreign languages do you have an at least C1 level complex language exam certificate? (indicate all languages)
– English
– German
– French
– Spanish
– Italian
– Other

16. What grade did you get in English at the end of the year last year?

17. Have you ever participated in an exchange student program in a country where English is not the main spoken language? (e.g., France, Germany, etc.)
– no
– yes, for a shorter period (1-2 weeks)
– yes, for a longer period (more than 2 weeks)

18. Have you ever participated an exchange student program in a country where English is the main spoken language? (e.g., USA, England, etc.)
– no
– yes, for a shorter period (1-2 weeks)
– yes, for a longer period (more than 2 weeks)

Appendix C: The English version of the teacher questionnaire (Study Three)

Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 to what extent you agree with the following statements.
1 (I absolutely disagree)
2 (I rather disagree)
3 (I neither agree nor disagree)
4 (I rather agree)
5 (I completely agree)

In-school motivated language learning behavior
1. I think students try to do their best when doing tasks in the English lessons at school.
2. Students like investing energy into getting better and better results in the English lessons at school.
3. Students pay attention in the English lessons at school to get good grades.
4. Students tend to try to learn as much as possible from the materials in the English lessons at school.

Extramural learning beliefs
1. I think if students use English a lot outside of school, they will be better English speakers.
2. Students can improve their English vocabulary by encountering English many times in their spare time (e.g., English-language videos, movies, music, etc.).
3. The more students encounter English outside of school, the better they will understand English texts.
4. If students use English a lot in their free time, their English skills will improve.

In-school learning beliefs
1. In my opinion if students pay attention in the English lessons at school, their English will improve.
2. If students do the tasks properly in the English lessons at school, their English language skills will improve.
3. The more English lessons students have at school, the better English language skills they will have.
4. If students do all the tasks in the English lessons at school, their English will improve.

Learners' willingness to include their own extramural English interests into EFL lessons

1. In the English lessons at school, students tend to use word and expressions they have learned from movies, series or videos.
2. In the English lessons at school, students tend to use words, expressions they have learned from songs.
3. In the English lessons at school, students tend to use words, expressions they have learned from video games.
4. If students come across a new word or phrase while surfing the internet, watching movies or series, they usually ask me what they mean.
5. Students tend to use words or phrases they have learned on the internet from a native English speaker.

Teachers' willingness to include learners' EE interests into EFL lessons

1. We often watch scenes from movies and film series in English in English lessons at school.
2. We often read from English language books, newspapers or magazines in English lessons at school.
3. We listen to English language songs in English lessons at school.
4. We play English language video games (e.g., on our smartphones or on PC) in English lessons at school.
5. We watch videos in English in English lessons at school.

Teachers' willingness to map learners' EE interests

1. I usually ask my students what kind of films they watch in English in their free time.
2. I usually ask my students whether they read books in English in their free time.
3. I usually inquire about what kind of music my students listen to in English in their free time.
4. I usually ask my students about what kind of video games they play in English in their free time.
5. My English teacher usually asks what kind of English videos we watch in our free time.

Anxiety in the EFL classroom

1. Students are afraid that their classmates will laugh at them when they speak English in class.
2. Students get nervous when they have to speak English in class.
3. It is embarrassing for students to speak English in front of other students.
4. Students feel confident when they speak English in class.
5. Students are really confident when they speak English in class.

WTC

Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 to what extent you think students are willing to speak English in the following situations.
1 (They don't want to speak at all)
2 (They don't want to speak)
3 (Neutral)
4 (They want to speak)
5 (They want to speak very much)

WTC in the EFL classroom

1. Students hold a presentation in English in an English class.
2. Students speak English with their classmates in an English class.
3. Students speak English with me in class.
4. Students answer a question asked by me in class.
5. Students ask something in English from me in class.

Background questions

1. How old are you?

2. What is your gender?
– male
– female

3. What kind of secondary school do you teach in?
– grammar school
– vocational secondary school

4. How long have you been teaching?

5. What is your highest qualification as a teacher of English as a Foreign Language?
– college degree
– university degree

6. Do you usually prepare students for a foreign language exam in English?
– yes
– no

7. Do you teach any other subject besides English?
– yes
– no

8. What other subjects do you teach besides English?
– Hungarian Grammar and Literature
– History
– Ethics
– Other foreign languages (e.g., German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian, etc.)
– Mathematics
– Chemistry
– Biology
– Geography
– IT
– Media
– Physical Education
– Other

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