

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**THE ROLE OF OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITIES IN IMPROVING ELT STUDENTS'
VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE**

MASTER'S THESIS

Merve CENGİZHAN

ÇANAKKALE

July, 2019

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**Supervisor
Assist. Prof. Dr. Mehmet Sercan UZTOSUN**

ÇANAKKALE

July, 2019

Taahhütname

Yüksek lisans tezi olarak sunduğum “The role of out-of-class activities in improving ELT students’ vocabulary knowledge” adlı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve değerlere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yaparak yararlanmış olduğumu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.



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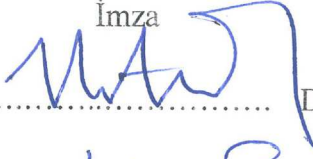
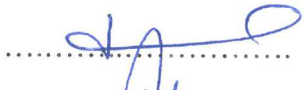
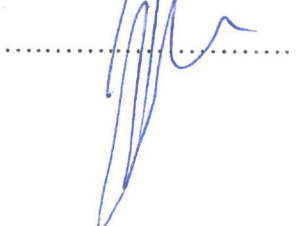
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List of Abbreviations

CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
ELT	English Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UG	Universal Grammar
VLT	Vocabulary Levels Test

ABSTRACT

The Role of Out-of-Class Activities in Improving Vocabulary Knowledge of Turkish ELT Students

The present mixed-method research study investigated the out-of-class English activities that Turkish English Language Teaching (ELT) students report doing frequently and infrequently and explored the relationship between out-of-class activities and five variables: gender, year of study, vocabulary knowledge, perceived English competence, and perceived importance of English. 245 first and fourth year ELT students from two state universities took part in the study. Qualitative and quantitative research tools were used to collect data. Students completed a questionnaire and a vocabulary levels test. After analyzing the results of the quantitative data, follow-up interviews were conducted with 5 volunteer students. Quantitative data were analyzed through SPSS using descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation coefficient, and Mann-Whitney U tests. Qualitative data were analyzed through a content analysis. The findings of this study revealed that the activities Turkish students reported doing frequently were listening to songs, watching TV series and movies, and surfing on English websites; whereas the activities that they reported doing infrequently were playing video games that require speaking, using computer in English and reading English newspapers. Weak positive correlations were found between perceived English competence and perceived importance of English in most of the out-of-class activities, in that students who were positive about these two concepts reported doing these out-of-class activities significantly more frequently than students who were negative about these two concepts. No correlations were found between vocabulary knowledge and the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. There were weak positive correlations between the frequency of out-of-class activities and gender and year of study and it was revealed that males and first year students reported doing

out-of-class activities significantly more frequently. In the light of these findings, implications were discussed for different stakeholders for improving the effectiveness of language learning.

Key words: autonomy, out-of-class activities, self directed language learning



ÖZET

Sınıf Dışı Aktivitelerin İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Türk Öğrencilerinin

Kelime Bilgisinin Geliştirilmesi Üzerindeki Rolü

Bu karma yöntemli araştırmada Türkiye’deki İngilizce Öğretmenliği (ELT) bölümü öğrencilerinin sıklıkla ve seyrek olarak yaptıklarını belirttikleri sınıf dışı İngilizce aktiviteleri ve bu aktivitelerle beş değişkenin (cinsiyet, eğitim yılı, kelime bilgisi, İngilizce yeterlilik algısı, günlük hayatta İngilizceye verilen önem) ilişkisi incelenmiştir. Türkiye’deki iki devlet üniversitesinde öğrenim görmekte olan 245 birinci ve dördüncü sınıf ELT öğrencisi çalışmada yer almıştır. Veriyi toplamak için nitel ve nicel araştırma yöntemleri kullanılmıştır. Öğrenciler bir anket ve kelime seviyesi testini doldurmuşlardır. Nicel verilerin analizinden sonra 5 gönüllü öğrenci ile görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Nicel veriler SPSS programında betimsel istatistikler, Pearson korelasyon katsayısı ve Mann-Whitney U testi ile incelenmiştir. Nitel veriler ise içerik analizi yöntemiyle incelenmiştir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları Türk öğrencilerinin en çok yaptıklarını belirttikleri aktivitelerin şarkı dinlemek, televizyon dizileri ve filmler izlemek ve İngilizce web sitelerinde gezinmek olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna kıyasla öğrencilerin seyrek olarak yaptıklarını belirttikleri aktiviteler konuşmayı gerektiren video oyunları oynamak, bilgisayarı İngilizce kullanmak ve İngilizce haber okumaktır. Öğrencilerin İngilizce yeterlilik algıları ve İngilizceye verdikleri önem ile birçok aktivite arasında pozitif zayıf ilişki bulunmuştur. Bu iki kavramı pozitif olan öğrenciler, negatif olan öğrencilere kıyasla önemli derecede çok sınıf dışı aktivite yaptıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Kelime bilgisi ve sınıf dışı aktivite yapma arasında korelasyon bulunmamıştır. Sınıf dışı aktivitelerin sıklığı ile cinsiyet ve eğitim yılı arasında zayıf güçlü ilişkiler bulunmuştur. Erkeklerin ve birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin daha çok sınıf dışı aktivite yaptıklarını belirttikleri ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu bulguların ışığında dil öğreniminin yararlılığını arttırmak açısından ilgili taraflara önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: otonomi, özerk dil öğrenme, sınıf dışı aktiviteler



Chapter One

Introduction

Introduction

This chapter briefly reviews the background of the study. Afterwards, the purpose of the study is discussed and the research questions are introduced. Then, the significance of the study, assumptions and limitations are highlighted. Finally, a brief organization of the study is provided.

Background of the Study

Today, many people learn English or other languages for various reasons. This importance placed on language learning triggered the birth of the field of Second Language Acquisition, which deals with how people learn a second language, what we learn, what we do not learn and the characteristics of the learning process (Gass, 2013). It also deals with formal and non-formal learning settings.

An important branch of study that SLA deals with is theories that are concerned with how we learn a language. There have been many different language learning theories even before SLA was defined as a field (Gass, 2013). An important learning theory that emerged in the 1950s was behaviorism which suggested that language learning was “response system that humans acquire through automatic conditioning processes” in which “some patterns of language are reinforced (rewarded) and others are not” (Omaggio, 1993, pp. 45-46). As the popularity of behaviorism declined, innatism started to become popular. One of the most prominent figures that supported innatism, Chomsky (1980) suggested that all people have the capacity to learn languages since birth, as there is an inherent language system in our minds. This language system incorporates grammatical rules that characterize core grammars of all languages. In the 1990s, psychological theories were popular. One of these theories was the

interaction hypothesis proposed by Long (1985) which suggested that learners need to initiate face-to-face communication for acquisition to take place. Another theory, The Output Theory, was suggested by Swain (1995) who indicated that trying to generate meaningful output promotes language acquisition.

Language learning theories triggered the development of different language teaching theories. During the 1950s, audio-lingual method emerged and it was informed by behaviorism and relied heavily on drills and repetition to teach grammar (Brown, 2007). However, in the 1980s, approaches that highlight meaning started to become more important compared to approaches that rely on memorization (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). In this period, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) became popular. CLT is an approach that focuses on communicative competence rather than grammatical accuracy (Brown, 2007). Therefore, CLT increased the importance of communication in which errors were accepted as a natural part of learning and teachers were seen as facilitators of learning (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010). With these changing views in the language teaching field, a learner-centered approach emerged. Learners started to take part in the learning process and work collaboratively with the teacher to create content (Nunan, 1989). It started a new era in language teaching field.

This new era in ELT field led to the development of further relevant constructs. One of these terms was learner autonomy, which was defined as “the capacity to take charge of one's own learning” (Benson, 2001, p. 8). Ever since its first appearance, the term autonomy has gained considerable attention. Autonomous learners are described as individuals who manage their learning processes themselves by arranging their own learning methods, materials; and by assessing themselves (Dam, 1995). There are various reasons why it is beneficial to manage your own learning process. It is believed that autonomy promotes learners' intrinsic motivation (Little, 2004) and makes the learning process more meaningful to them (Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002).

As learner-centeredness and autonomy gained importance, it has been accepted that learning is not restricted to a classroom setting considering the fact that classroom learning has some limitations such as large classroom sizes, time restrictions, insufficient materials and test-focused programs (Richards, 2015). By the developments in technology, many people started to get exposed to the language in their daily lives through the Internet, media or in their workplaces; and even use it for a variety of purposes (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016). This meant that learners do not only learn English in the classroom but through the different environments in which they get exposed to English. Moreover, they started new hobbies in English, such as reading English books, watching English TV series, listening to English songs and playing games in English.

The focus on out-of-class learning, which is summarized above, triggered the rise of the concept of out-of-class learning in ELT field. Benson (2011) stated that any learning that happens outside the classroom in English may be considered as out-of-class learning (e.g. learning English through exposure to movies or TV series, listening to songs, and surfing on English websites). There are many reasons why these activities are helpful. They are likely to promote learner motivation as they provide a natural learning environment (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006), show the real use of language (Benson, 2011), and allow for choosing the type of content that is relevant to individual's lives (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016). As a result, out-of-class activities became one of the significant means to learning English.

In the light of the assumptions regarding the significance of doing out-of-class activities, it is essential to understand the concept in depth through providing empirical evidence on the extent to which learners of English are exposed to out-of-class activities. To address this problem, this study focuses on the frequency of out-of-class activities in the Turkish context and attempts to reveal possible relationships between out-of-class activities

and gender, year of study, self-perceived language competence, perceived importance of English, and vocabulary knowledge.

Research Questions

Although out-of-class learning is relatively a new concept, it has recently been one of the most popular concepts in ELT field. Various studies conducted in this field have emphasized the importance of doing different activities outside the language classroom in fostering language development.

When research studies conducted on out-of-class learning in the Turkish context are analyzed, it could be seen that these studies mostly focused on the different activity types and the frequency of doing these activities. Therefore, it is appropriate to state that there are not sufficient studies conducted on this subject in the Turkish context. The relationship between these activities and different skills and factors seems to be still under researched.

There have been some research studies that explored the relationship between vocabulary and out-of-class activities around the world. These studies were conducted in different educational settings and different contexts. However, to the best of my knowledge, no research study focused on the relationship between out-of-class activities and vocabulary knowledge in the Turkish context.

Apart from vocabulary, out-of-class activities and the frequency of doing them might have a relationship with other learner-related factors; such as gender, year of study, learners' self-perceived competence, and beliefs regarding the importance of English in daily life. Research studies that focused on the relationship between out-of-class activities and these factors are very few. Therefore, it is apparent that there is a scarcity in the literature on the relationship between out-of-class activities and self-perceived competence, beliefs regarding the importance of English in daily life, gender and year of study. This dissertation aimed to

fill in this gap by investigating the relationship between out-of-class activities and the variables that are named above. In relation to these points mentioned, this study is conducted to answer the following research questions:

- RQ1: What are ELT students' perceptions of their English competence?
- RQ2: What are ELT students' views about the importance of English in their daily lives?
- RQ3: What out-of-class activities do ELT students report doing frequently and infrequently?
- RQ4: What are ELT students' vocabulary levels?
- RQ5: What out-of-class activities significantly correlate with perceived English competence?
 - RQ5a: Do students with different perceived English competence significantly differ in the frequency of out-of-class activities?
- RQ6: What out-of-class activities significantly correlate with participants' beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives?
 - RQ6a: Do students with different beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives significantly differ in the frequency of out-of-class activities?
- RQ7: Are there significant differences between learners with different vocabulary knowledge levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities?
- RQ8: Are there significant differences between female and male learners in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities?
 - RQ8a: What are ELT students' views about the possible relationship between gender and doing out-of-class activities?
- RQ9: Are there significant differences between first and fourth year students in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities?

- RQ9a: What are ELT students' views about the possible relationship between year of study and doing out-of-class activities?

Significance of the Study

Out-of-class learning is still a newly-developing field, especially in the Turkish context. Therefore, there are not sufficient studies in the Turkish context that investigate out-of-class learning activities and their relationship with gender, year of study, learners' vocabulary level, learners' self-perceived competence, and beliefs regarding the importance of English in daily life. In that respect, this study aims to fill this gap in the literature.

The present study may yield important results for English language students, teachers and program developers. In the case of a positive relationship between out-of-class activities and the variables investigated in this study, teachers may integrate out-of-class learning environments into their lessons. Students may become aware of these learning environments and be engaged to them more to facilitate their learning. Program developers may revise the English language teaching program accordingly.

Assumptions

The participants in this study are assumed to have participated in this study willingly. It is assumed that they answered all the questions in the questionnaire and interviews truthfully and in an unbiased way. Besides, it is assumed that the participants of this study have reached a certain level of proficiency in English as they are all students in English Language Teaching department. It also assumed that vocabulary knowledge test measures learners' vocabulary knowledge in a reliable and valid way.

Limitations

This study has the following limitations:

- 1) The participants that took part in this study are 245 first and fourth year students from two medium-ranked state universities in Turkey. Therefore, the results of this study may not be generalized to different universities and different levels of students.
- 2) Students' answers to the questionnaire may not be true.
- 3) Although it was aimed to include as many activities as possible in the questionnaire, there might be some activities that were not included in the scope of this study.
- 4) The Vocabulary Levels Test may not have determined their vocabulary levels truthfully.

Organization of the Study

The present thesis is composed of five chapters. Chapter 1 presents a brief literature review on language learning and out-of-class learning. Then, the significance of the study is discussed. Furthermore, it includes the research questions, assumptions and limitations.

Chapter 2 presents the definitions and the literature review pertinent to the research study. It starts with a discussion of the history of language learning and teaching theories. Then, it deals with learner autonomy and discusses its significance. Besides, it presents out-of-class learning in a detailed way and it discusses the benefits of out-of-class activities and the factors that might have a relationship with these activities. Finally, it deals with vocabulary learning, different types of vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary teaching.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology of the study. Firstly, it introduces the research methodology. Then, it presents the pilot study. Besides, the setting, participants, data collection tools and data analysis methods are described.

Chapter 4 reports the findings of the study retrieve from the questionnaire, vocabulary levels test and interviews. Moreover, the results are discussed based on the relevant literature and interpretations are made.

Chapter 5 concludes the study by summarizing the study and the main findings briefly. Furthermore, conclusions are drawn based on the findings. Finally, it presents some pedagogical and methodological implications.

Summary

This chapter started with a brief review of the background of the study. Afterwards, the purpose of the study was discussed. After the presentation of the research questions, the significance of the study was discussed, and the assumptions and limitations were listed. Finally, an outline of the organization of the present study was provided.



Chapter Two

Literature Review

Introduction

In this section, an overall outline of the theoretical framework on the related terminology of the thesis is presented. Firstly, the definition of foreign language teaching and second language acquisition as a field are discussed. Secondly, language learning theories and language teaching methods are introduced. Then, the term autonomy is discussed. Afterwards, the features of in-class and out-of-class learning are presented and factors that might affect out-of-class learning are discussed. Finally, vocabulary, different frameworks on teaching vocabulary, different vocabulary types and out-of-class vocabulary acquisition are introduced.

Defining Foreign Language Learning

In today's world where English is in every part of our lives, it is of critical importance to learn English. There might be different reasons for learning English, such as getting a job, establishing cross-cultural and inter-cultural connections and gaining new perspectives. In such a world where it is more uncommon to speak only one language than to know several languages, language learning has grown to become an important field. It has become a significant field of study since ancient Greeks and accepted as a discipline around the 1970s (Cook, 2008; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 2014).

The field of learning a second language is generally referred to as second language acquisition (SLA). Gass (2013) defined the study of SLA as “the acquisition of a non-primary language; that is, the acquisition of a language beyond the native language” (p. 1). She also went on to expand the definition by stating that SLA is concerned with how learners create a language system; what we learn in a second language and what we do not learn; why different

learners reach different levels of proficiency and the characteristics of the hypotheses that are produced by second language learners.

After years of research, the field of SLA has become increasingly diverse. Although SLA is generally associated with a formal learning setting, it encompasses a lot more than that. There are many different learning environments and contexts where a foreign language can be learned. Language learning can occur formally in a classroom setting or an educational institution. Aside from that, people also learn foreign languages incidentally in informal settings; such as in the countries where they are spoken, through making friends who speak that language, or simply through watching movies and TV series in that language.

An important point to consider when we talk about second language learning is the difference between “learning” and “acquisition”. The distinction, which was first made by Krashen, had a profound effect on the field. Krashen (1982) asserted that language learners construct their language learning in two different ways: learning and acquisition. As he put it, acquisition is a subconscious process, similar to the way children acquire knowledge of their first language. When we acquire a language, we are not aware of this process. We just use it as a tool for communication. Learning, on the other hand, takes place consciously. When we learn a language, we learn its system, its rules and grammar. We are aware of the learning process (Krashen, 1982). This distinction between acquisition and learning led to the development of various language learning theories and methods.

Language Learning Theories

Since its foundation as a discipline, there have been many theories that try to explain how the acquisition of a second language (L2) takes place. Before SLA was established as a discipline, language studies were heavily influenced by the popular linguistic and psychological paradigms at the time (Gass, 2013). Behaviorism was one popular theory of

learning in the 1950s and 1960s, which viewed language just like any other human behavior. Behaviorist theory considered "... all learning to be the establishment of habits as a result of reinforcement and reward" (Rivers, 1963, p. 73). Skinner (1957), one of the pioneers of this view, discussed that as children acquire their first language, utterances are positively or negatively reinforced, in the form of a praise or correction. As the correct utterances are rewarded; and thus reinforced, they slowly become habits. Behaviorists only focused on publicly measurable aspects of language learning, which means that feelings and mental processes were disregarded by behaviorists (Brown, 2007).

As the popularity of behaviorism decreased, innatism, which was informed by Chomsky's views, became popular (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). With his Universal Grammar (UG) model, Chomsky assumed that we are all born with an innate language faculty in our brain with certain set of structural rules. There are principles surrounding these rules which characterize core grammars of all natural languages. In addition to these rules, there are also parameters which change across different languages (Gass, 2013). When a child learns his first language, he applies the principles on his mind to the language input he receives, i.e., his L1. While some scholars believe that UG could describe second language acquisition, others think that UG could only explain first language acquisition (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006).

In the 1980s, one of the most influential SLA theories, "monitor hypothesis", was developed by Krashen (1982). His hypothesis posits five hypotheses. The first of these is "acquisition-learning hypothesis", which was discussed above. With this hypothesis, Krashen argued that we have two systems of second language: learning system, which is related to what we consciously learn and acquisition system, which is related to what we subconsciously acquire. His second hypothesis is known as "monitor hypothesis", which indicates that the language we acquired or the acquired system, is responsible for initiating a spontaneous

utterance; while the language we learned, or the learned system, only monitors and makes minor changes on what the acquired system has produced (Krashen, 1982). Monitoring only takes place when the speaker is concerned about producing correct language. Therefore, it is important to foster students' acquisition, rather than learning, if we want them to become more fluent. His third hypothesis, "natural order hypothesis" suggests that all the learners learn the grammatical forms and structures in the same order. For instance, although third person "-s" (she laughs) is taught at the beginning for many English learners, many of these learners cannot acquire it until later stages of learning. The fourth hypothesis, "input hypothesis" proposes that language learners acquire language when they receive input that is one step further their current knowledge (*i*). He used the formula " $i + 1$ " to describe this phenomena. Finally, his fifth hypothesis "affective filter" claims that certain variables (such as motivation, anxiety and self confidence), the total of which he names as *the affective filter*, affect our acquisition. When this filter is raised up by these variables, (i.e., a learner has a high level of anxiety and a low level of self-confidence and motivation), it impedes acquisition. His views were highly debated at the time (Brown, 2007). Although some scholars stated that his hypotheses were inadequate or not clearly defined (Gregg, 1984, McLaughlin, 1987), it influenced the field of SLA greatly and brought about new research into language acquisition (Gitsaki, 1998).

In the 1990s, psychological theories were central to the study of SLA (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). A number of theories that were inspired by cognitivism were introduced to the field. One of those theories is the interaction hypothesis by Long (1985). He argued that in order for second language acquisition to take place, a learner needs to engage in meaningful face-to-face communication. This was only one of the many theories at the time that emphasized the importance of communication and interaction. Another hypothesis that emerged in this era is the Output Hypothesis which was put forth by Swain (1995). Swain

argued that when language learners try to generate meaningful output, this action promotes their development. This meaningful output facilitates language development in several other ways. According to Saville-Troike (2012), these reasons may be as follows: as learners generate output, this practice becomes automatic and their fluency is fostered, they can notice the areas that they need to improve on and they can get the corrective feedback from others. Accordingly, it could be theorized that productive skills (speaking and writing) have a central role in helping learners progress. While a learner may feel comfortable with his receptive skills (reading and writing), being proficient in these does not necessarily mean that one is proficient in the language. A learner who understands many of the spoken language might be a very weak speaker. According to Swain (1995), when this learner focuses more on his productive skills; he will notice the areas he needs to improve.

Going through all these theories, it could be inferred that scholars have paid more attention to communicative and interactive purposes of language starting from 1990s instead of the structural features of it. Meaning started to be a more important term than form and more emphasis was given to fluency-based language practice compared to accuracy-based practice. All the theories discussed above were the precursor of different approaches to second language teaching, which will be discussed in the next section.

Language Teaching Methods

During the 1950s-1970s, there was a very classical approach to language teaching, influenced by Skinner's Behaviorism. In these years, audio-lingual method was popular, in which target language patterns were taught through drills and memorization (Richards, 2002). A Skinnerian way of teaching was widespread, which relied heavily on controlled practice of operants (Brown, 2007). In order to teach grammatical structures, target forms were repeated over and over again, until they became habitual. This mechanical way of teaching completely

ignored learners' mental processes and thoughts. Such kind of a teaching view also meant that language was mostly confined to a classroom setting.

In the 1970s, there was a large dissatisfaction with behaviorist teaching methods, as stated by Lightbrown and Spada (2006). They pointed out that Krashen's Monitor Theory was highly influential in this era, as the language teaching scene witnessed a transition from approaches that highlight rules and memorization to approaches that emphasize meaning. Therefore, it could be discussed that this period was when language teaching started to see a major shift. The focus shifted from heavy reliance on classroom instruction, rules and producing accurate utterances to meaning and different ways in which language can be acquired.

It was the 1970s when the communicative language approach (CLT) started to appear. CLT is a language teaching approach that emphasizes communication and interaction. As Brown (2007) states, scholars have not been able to agree on one definition that best defines what CLT is. He suggested four principles to explain CLT. The first principle indicates that a CLT classroom doesn't restrict itself to grammatical competence; it focuses on all communicative aspects of the language. The second principle, he continues, expresses that teaching techniques aim to get learners to use language in meaningful ways for meaningful purposes. According to the third principle, "fluency" and "accuracy" are two main principles behind communicative techniques. To keep learners engaged in conversation, sometimes fluency may have to be emphasized more. The last principle, according to him, is that in a communicative classroom, students use language without any prior rehearsal.

A CLT classroom is very different from a traditional language classroom. While there was a heavy emphasis on grammar in earlier language teaching approaches; with CLT, communication gained importance over grammar. Errors were seen a part of development;

teachers were not the sole controllers of the classroom anymore, they rather had a new role as learning facilitators; and learners' focus was on fluency (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010). For these reasons, CLT caused a major change when it first appeared (Richards, 2002). It changed the language teaching scene in a way that the classroom roles were re-established. Since then, it has been the "in" approach to foreign language teaching, being favored by many scholars (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

As the focus in language teaching shifted to real-life situations, rather than grammatical forms and rules, a learner-centered approach emerged (Tirkeş, 2000). Learners were now involved in decisions about the teaching process. They got the opportunity to choose their content and method; and thus; work collaboratively with teacher to create the curriculum (Nunan, 1989). They could decide what they would learn and how they would learn it, and thus, they were at the center of learning process. Although this curriculum is quite similar to traditional curricula, the main difference was that the learners were more active and took more responsibilities in the teaching process. In the light of these learner-centered approaches, language learner was required to "... contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way" (Breen & Candlin, 1980, p. 110). These learner centered approaches led to a shift in language learners' role. They started to become more involved in the teaching process.

Learner Autonomy

Autonomy in language education was proposed by Holec (1981). In his words, autonomy is "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3). Dickinson (1995) expands Holec's definition by stating that when a learner is autonomous, he/she is active and has the capacity to conduct his/her learning process independently. Higgs (1988) adds that autonomous learners do not depend on the teacher during the learning process. Teachers manage the learning program. Autonomous learners select their own materials, arrange their

own time, goals and materials; and they evaluate their own activities (Dam, 1995). Based on these definitions of an autonomous learner, it could be discussed that autonomous learners are described as learners who are able to create a learning environment and control it on their own in an effective way. According to Holec (1981), when learners determine their own goals, language learning is no longer an “independent reality” but rather “a reality which he himself constructs and dominates” (p. 21). This view implies that when learners construct their own goals and materials, language learning becomes more meaningful to them and they can internalize the target language.

There are several reasons why learner autonomy is an important concept in language learning. If we analyze it from a psychological perspective, autonomy is a basic human need (Little & Dam, 1998). It supports our intrinsic motivation, and in turn, is supported by it. Little and Dam explain that autonomous learners depend on their intrinsic motivation and devote themselves to develop their self-management skills and when they are successful, their intrinsic motivation is strengthened. As a result, they conduct their learning process effectively and efficiently. Scharle and Szabó (2000) explain autonomy with an old saying, “you can bring the horse to water, but you cannot make him drink” (p. 4). According to them, no matter how many materials and circumstances you bring to the classroom, learning only takes place when learners are eager to learn. Their presence in the classroom is not enough when they do not actively get involved in the lesson. Little (2004) points out that when learners take responsibility and control their own learning process, they also cultivate their intrinsic motivation. Motivation and autonomy are interrelated (Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002). Thus, motivated students also become autonomous. Taking these statements into consideration, it can be hypothesized that when learners internalize the learning process, it becomes much more entertaining and meaningful to them. Consequently, it can be concluded

that autonomy is crucial for learners to generate intrinsic motivation and feel personally connected to their learning.

Dickinson (1993) proposed five points to define the characteristics of autonomous learners. According to him, the first characteristic is that an autonomous learner is always aware of the lesson content, goals, and objectives and why certain strategies are employed. An autonomous learner who is learning a new grammatical topic, for example, is aware of the contexts where the form would be used and can make connections between this topic and the topics that they have learnt previously. Secondly, an autonomous learner is able to formulate their own goals and objectives concerning their learning. In that respect, autonomous learners try to develop their English skills outside the classroom (Bayat, 2008). They may watch TV or surf English websites in line with this goal. The third characteristic of an autonomous learner is choosing their own strategies. Fourth characteristic, as Dickinson explains, is that they can implement the appropriate strategy to their needs. To give an example, while answering post-reading questions, they are able to select the correct reading strategy (such as skimming and scanning) that is needed for the activity. Finally, autonomous learners can evaluate their own performance. For example, an autonomous learner who has made mistakes on an exam can go through their mistakes, identify the areas which they need to improve and detect what they have and have not understood. These five points signify that an autonomous learner is completely aware of what is going on throughout their learning process and can actively control it.

The concept of learner autonomy restructured language pedagogy in a way that rejected the traditional classroom setting and introduced new ways of working (Allwright, 1998). In that respect, learner autonomy is a particularly important term for out-of-class English. Learners may have limited time and opportunities to learn English in a classroom context. For this reason, it is crucial for them to become responsible for their learning and

conduct learning activities effectively outside the classroom setting. On a related note, as Little (1991) pointed out, the more autonomous language learners become in terms of language learning, the more autonomous they become in language use. From this perspective, it could be concluded that students who choose to take the initiative in carrying out activities outside the classroom setting, i.e. autonomous learners, might also become more proficient in target language. In light of all these, it is of great importance for teachers to support their students' autonomous activities. They have a critical role in promoting their students' in-class and out-of-class autonomous activities.

There have been various studies that highlight the importance of autonomous learning. In one study investigating why some students were significantly more proficient in the language in an English classroom in Indonesia, it was found out that such students attribute their success to their own autonomous learning outside of school (Lamb, 2002). Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon and Barch's (2004) study on teacher autonomy support also revealed that the more teachers support learners' autonomy, the more engaged their students become. Many of the research studies on learner autonomy dealt with the relationship between autonomy and technology. Bhattacharya and Chauhan (2010) asked 35 ELT students in India to create a blog and write reflective reports regarding their experience. They analyzed these reports and found out that blogging supported these learners' autonomy. In the Turkish context, Dincer, Yesilyurt and Takkac (2012) investigated the effects of autonomy-supportive classes on learners' engagement, achievement and competence in speaking. According to their results, students who feel that their teachers support their autonomy also show high levels of perceived speaking competence. Such students also show higher engagement in classroom activities which also brings about higher exam results.

In-class and Out-of-Class Language Learning

Language learning may take place in various settings. These different settings of learning could be grouped into two categories: in-class learning and out-of-class learning (Richards, 2015). It is important to clearly define what language classroom is and explain what in-class learning and out-of-class learning encompasses. Van Lier (1988) defines language classroom as “the gathering, for a given period of time, of two or more persons (one of whom generally assumes the role of instructor) for the purposes of language learning” (p. 47). This definition indicates that in-class language learning covers a variety of formal settings in which a foreign language is taught to one or more people by an instructor. In this type of learning, a curriculum may be followed and different methods, approaches and techniques may be used. Learning could be evaluated through different types of examinations.

Although in-class learning is one of the most preferred ways of learning a second language, it has some shortcomings. As Richards (2015) indicates, people regard in-class learning as the natural way of learning, while environments outside the classroom are usually not visible for instructors and learners. He further states that learning and teaching have mainly focused on methods, materials and tests for years but we have recently started to realize that learners today are more independent. This assumption led to an increased attention to out-of-class learning.

Richards (2015) argues that in-class learning could be inadequate because of large classroom sizes, time limitations, insufficient materials, test-focused curricula and incompetent teachers. In addition to these, in-class learning might be highly teacher centered and sequential. In a traditional classroom setting, many students do not ask for repetition even when they need it and they do not have the chance to adapt the lessons to their needs (Zhang, Zhao, Zhou & Nunamaker, 2004). All these limitations of in-class learning led us to search for new ways of learning.

With the spread of the Internet, social media and smart phones; English has gained a new role in non-native speakers' lives (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016). Many people have started to get exposed to and use English in environments outside the classroom for many different communicative and social purposes. It is now used to contact speakers of other languages (Canagarajah, 2007) and considered to be “the language of business, technology, science, the Internet, popular entertainment, and even sports” (Nunan, 2001, p. 605). In this respect, classroom might not even be considered as the dominant language learning context anymore (Sockett, 2014). Therefore, researchers are now starting to place their focus on out-of-class-learning, which is defined as “any kind of learning that takes place outside the classroom and involves self-instruction, naturalistic learning or self-directed naturalistic learning” (Benson, 2001, p. 62). According to this definition, out-of-class learning may involve a great range of activities that take place outside the classroom. Today, people watch content in English, listen to English songs, read English books, play games in English, surf on English websites and communicate to people across the world in English. These may or may not be carried out deliberately, however, most of the time; learners that engage themselves in such activities do it voluntarily (Sundqvist, 2011).

To identify different sorts of out of class activities, Benson (2011) suggests four major dimensions: location, formality, pedagogy and locus of control. Location refers to the place where the activity might take place. According to Benson, out-of-classroom activities may take place out-of-school or, self-contradictorily, in-school, such as the “English-only days” practice carried out in Hong Kong schools. Secondly, formality is about whether the activity is carried out in an educational setting, involving tests and qualifications (formal), or individually (informal). This dimension suggests that the formality of an out-of-class activity may change. While most out-of-class activities are conducted individually and thus autonomously, it does not necessarily mean that all of them are informal. Out-of-class

learning could involve tests and qualifications, as many students study for a qualification on their own (Benson, 2011). Thirdly, pedagogy deals with “instruction”; whether or not the learning is specifically designed for teaching. Watching a YouTube video about English tenses involves pedagogy; however, listening to an English song cannot be considered as a pedagogical activity. Finally, locus of control deals with how much learners conduct the learning process on their own or through different materials or people. Generally when one is engaged with out-of-class activities, the decision to conduct these activities is made by the learner. So, when a learner watches TV series in English outside the classroom, the locus of control is on them. If learners choose to use instructional materials, the locus of control is on the materials.

Several reasons may be put forward why out-of-class activities are helpful. First of all, in out-of-class learning environments, foreign language is learned naturally (Lightbown & Spada, 2003). Learners do not study explicit grammatical rules like how they normally do in a conventional classroom setting; they implicitly acquire the target language as they use it for social purposes. Another reason is that out of class learning prepares students for the real use of language. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983), the purpose of language teaching is to get learners to use the language in real world settings. For this reason, it is crucial to support learning through authentic language input (Krashen, 1985). In a traditional classroom setting, they might not have the chance to be exposed to the real use of language. Through out of class learning, learners may easily explore authentic use of language and use it for various meaningful purposes. Other major advantage of out-of-class learning is that learners can access contents that are of relevance to their lives (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016). Learners are only motivated to learn when they think the content is important and relevant to their lives (Biggs, 1995). Learners cannot relate to the content that is taught in the classroom. When they conduct out of class activities, they mostly do it for pleasure; thus language acquisition takes

place. When learners conduct out of class activities, they go beyond the conventional ELT classroom (Foss, Carney, McDonald, & Rooks, 2008). Taking into consideration all these benefits of out of class learning, it could be concluded that these activities are necessary for learners to facilitate their language learning.

Factors that might be related to doing out-of-class activities. There are many factors that could influence the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. This dissertation focused on four of these possible factors: age, gender, self-perceived language competence, and beliefs about the importance of English.

Age. In the literature, there is an agreement that age is one of the important constructs that influence language learning. It is believed that children learn languages in a more effective way and much faster than adult learners (Schumann, 1975). Compared to adults, children are reported to acquire language quickly (Steinberg, 2008), achieve a much better pronunciation (Oroji & Ghane, 2014) and their grammar is better (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). All of these views confirm the assumption that younger people are more inclined to be better language learners.

However, many have argued that the relationship between age and language learning is not straightforward (Flege, 1999) and there are some research studies that yielded contradictory results which suggested that older learners acquire language more quickly (Harley, 1986; Ekstrand & Underwood, 1967). One point to consider here is what successful language learning encompasses. One might achieve native level fluency; however, have problems with his or her pronunciation. It might therefore be better to analyze the success in different areas separately. Singleton and Ryan (2004) revealed that younger learners are more successful in phonology. In comparison, Herschensohn (2007) indicated that older learners implement their first language learning strategies on their second language learning process

and show a better performance compared to young students. These studies make it clear that different age groups might perform better in different aspects of the language.

It is important to remember that there are other important factors that affect language learning in different ages. Marinova-Todd, Marshall and Snow (2000) argue that the differences between adult and children learners stem from non-biological factors, such as motivation, intensity of exposure and affective emotional processes. Similarly, many researchers believe that younger learners are more advantageous in terms of motivation and other affective variables (Flege, 1987; Morris & Gertsman, 1986). According to Curran (1961), compared to children, adults may resist speaking in a second language as they may feel threatened. Therefore, successful adult learners are those who can overcome these threatening barriers.

Furthermore, there is the issue of peer pressure. Brown (2007) states that children experience peer pressure more, which extends to language learning. He indicates that adult learners can tolerate mistakes more but younger learners who feel pressure might want to avoid errors at all costs. This might affect language learning positively or negatively. Although students might try as hard as possible to avoid mistakes, this pressure might cause them to be afraid of making mistakes and hinder their speech as well.

Finally, it should be taken into account that these comparisons made between younger and older learners generally compare children to adults. Therefore, these differences may not account for the cases where the age gap between two learners is not very big. In that respect, university students with different study years may be assumed to have similar neurological and biological factors that affect their language acquisition. They may, however, get affected by different emotional affective processes such as motivation. A first year student and a fourth year student might have different motivations to learn the language and they might be in

different circumstances which might affect them positively or negatively. In the light of the points mentioned about regarding the differences between different ages in language learning, this study investigated whether first year and fourth year students also differ in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities.

Gender. Gender differences in academic achievement has been a topic of high interest for researchers for a long time. There is a large body of research studies that prove that males and females display differences in academic achievement and in language learning (Chee, Pino, & Smith, 2005; Nowell & Hedges 1998; Oxford, 1993; Zusman, Knox, & Lieberman, 2005). Accordingly, males are generally thought to perform better in areas of mathematical ability, whereas females perform better in areas that require verbal ability (Nowell & Hedges, 1998). According to Oxford (1993), females' success in verbal ability makes them become more inclined to be better language learners compared to males. Females' success in learning languages also stems from their different learning and study styles. Zusman, Knox and Lieberman (2005) noted that female students attend class on time, sit in front of the classroom, take notes, organize their study time and purchase books significantly more compared to males. Being inclined to study in a more organized way, therefore, is one of the reasons behind females' success in language learning. To add to these methods, females are also reported to use more strategies when learning a language (Oxford, 1993). These strategies might be using memory strategies to retrieve information, cognitive strategies such as repeating and summarizing, and social strategies such as using the language for communication purposes (Oxford, 1990). In addition to these issues, it is believed that females are more motivated to learn languages compared to males (Dörnyei, 2001).

Similar to their academic differences, males and females might be different in their out-of-class learning behaviors as well. These differences especially become more apparent when their computer and technology use is analyzed. It has been reported that female learners

have less positive views regarding computer use (Busch, 1997) and use computers less outside the school compared to males (Hakkarainen et al., 2000). In this regard, females might be less engaged in out-of-class activities that require computer use, such as playing games, surfing on the Internet and even watching TV series on the Internet. Research studies conducted on out-of-class learning confirm this assumption (Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén, 2004). Accordingly, although females are found to be more motivated and successful at language learning, they are less likely to do out-of-class activities. This could be attributed to the fact that many of the activities that are regarded as out-of-class activities entail using technology and computers. While these activities appeal to males more; females, as mentioned, tend to study in an organized and traditional way. Considering the differences between males and females that are summarized above, it is worth understanding whether female and male ELT students differ in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities in the Turkish context.

Self-perceived competence. Self-perceived competence can be defined as an individual's evaluation of their language competence and communication ability (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988). Students' perceptions regarding their own language competence has been regarded as an important construct in determining their willingness to communicate in the target language (MacIntyre, 1994). It could be discussed that learners who have high self-perceived competence would be more willing to use English for communication. This willingness might lead to becoming successful language learners. In contrast, individuals with low self-perceived competence are less likely to be eager to communicate in English, which could hinder their language learning process. Considering this, it might be suggested that a person's perceptions regarding their language competence may be more important than their actual communication competence (Öz, Demirezen, & Pourfeiz, 2014). When a language learner perceives herself/himself to have a high language competence, she/he would not hesitate to use and communicate in English. As Barraclough, Christophel, and McCroskey

(1988) asserted “it is what a person thinks he/she can do, not what he/she actually could do which impacts the individual's behavioral choices” (p.188). Then, a language learner who is not willing to use English for communication might have low self-perceived competence.

Another important term to discuss related to self-perceived competence is the term “self-efficacy”. Self-efficacy was defined as “people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). To put it differently, it refers to people’s beliefs or judgments of their own capabilities to do tasks. Self-efficacy is closely related to self-perceived competence. Learners who have high self-efficacy beliefs tend to have high perceived ability, which contribute positively to their language learning process (Uztosun, 2017). Current research supports this claim, in that learners who have high self-efficacy show higher levels of motivation (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994), set challenges for themselves, study hard to accomplish them and avoid failure (Ching, 2002). Therefore, it could be indicated that self-efficacy and self-perceived competence are important terms in determining students’ success in language learning. Based on the assumptions summarized above, self-perceived competence could also be a factor influencing the frequency of doing out-of-class activities, and therefore, this study investigated whether ELT students with different levels of self-perceived competence statistically differ in doing out-of-class activities.

Beliefs about the importance of English. Language learners’ beliefs have gained importance since the 1980s with the developments of cognitive psychology (Gabillona, 2013) and it has been an important construct in language learning research ever since (Sakui & Gaies, 1999). Sakui and Gaies (1999) assert that beliefs are central to every discipline related to human. In this regard, its importance in language learning has also been emphasized a lot. Victori and Lockhart (1995) define language beliefs as “general assumptions that students hold about themselves as learners, about factors influencing language learning, and about the

nature of language learning and teaching” (p. 224). From this definition, it could be understood that learner beliefs refer to learners’ own perceptions towards the importance of language and how they view this language in their daily life. It has been discussed that learners bring their own experiences, expectations, attitudes and beliefs into the learning process (Benson, 1991). Hence, learners’ beliefs towards the importance of language also affect the learning process. Then, it could be discussed that when a learner has negative views regarding English as a language, their learning would be hindered. Learning process of learners with positive views about English and the importance of English are facilitated. Therefore, beliefs are determinants of language learning (Ryan, 1984).

A closely linked term with beliefs is the term attitudes. In learning a foreign language, learners’ attitudes towards the target language and language learning is an important issue. In that respect, as Starks and Paltridge (1996) indicated, learning a language and the attitudes of learners towards the language are closely linked to each other. In his definition of motivation, Gardner (1985) includes attitudes as an importance concept. He defines motivation as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language” (p. 10). Therefore, learners who have positive attitudes towards a language also have high motivation, which is important in promoting facilitating language learning. Considering the close relationship between motivation, beliefs, attitudes and language learning, this study investigated whether beliefs about the importance of English influence the frequency of out-of-class activities.

Finding of previous research studies. Research has revealed that out-of-class learning facilitates language development in many ways (Hyland, 2004; Lai & Zhu, & Gong, 2015; Lamb, 2004; Larsson, 2012; Pearson, 2004; Sundqvist, 2009). Richards (2009) points out that in northern European countries such as Netherlands and Sweden, young people are reported to be much more proficient in English than the rest of the Europe. Indeed,

Scandinavians do have a reputation for being excellent in English. According to EF EPI (The EF English Proficiency Index), the top 5 non-native English speaking countries in Europe are: Netherlands, Sweden, Denmark, Norway and Finland, respectively. One may think that this success is due to their top-notch education system. However, Richards (2009) attributes this to the fact that the media in those countries are all in English, meaning that putting subtitles to movies and TV series are preferred over dubbing. This kind of an exposure to the English might enable them to be more proficient in the communicative language compared to many other countries.

Recently, various studies have been carried out to investigate the benefits of out-of-class activities across the world. Sundqvist (2009, 2011, 2015) conducted various research studies to investigate out-of-class English behaviors, which she refers to as extramural English activities of Swedish learners. In her longitudinal study, Sundqvist (2009) explored the activities Swedish learners of English were engaged in outside the school to determine whether they have an impact on students' speaking skills and vocabulary knowledge. She conducted a mixed-method study to investigate 80 student's daily out-of-class activities by means of a language diary, questionnaire, speaking tests, productive levels test, vocabulary levels test and interviews throughout one school year. The study yielded several findings. It was revealed that the activity that Swedish learners mostly spent time on were listening to music, playing video games, watching TV, watching films and surfing on the Internet, respectively. Extramural English activities were revealed to have a significantly positive effect on both oral proficiency and vocabulary. It was revealed that the correlation between out of class activities and vocabulary was higher than the correlation between out-of-class activities and oral proficiency. The activities that contributed most to vocabulary were revealed to be playing games, surfing on the Internet and watching television. Furthermore,

she noted that activities that require learners to be active influence their speaking performance and vocabulary more compared to activities where learners are more passive.

Hyland (2004) examined the out-of-class activities of 228 EFL students in a university in Hong Kong. She administered a questionnaire investigating students' reported out-of-class activities, asked 8 of the students to keep a journal of their language activities, and interviewed with these 8 participants. Her study yielded important results. An important number of the students reported that they occasionally used English in their daily lives, appearing to be either unmotivated or unable to find opportunities to speak; although more than half of the participants stated that they still have some room for improvement. Her results showed that the activities students in Hong Kong conduct mostly are writing emails, reading academic books and articles, surfing the internet, watching videos/DVDs/VCDs and watching TV programs. The findings show that learners mostly spend time on receptive activities such as listening and reading, rather than productive activities such as speaking and writing.

Pickard (1995, 1996) conducted two research studies to examine German speakers of English regarding their out of class activities. In his first case study involving three proficient learners, where he used a questionnaire and interviews to gather information on learners' strategy use and the nature of their out-of-class activities, he found that these learners use a wide variety of strategies but reading outside the classroom and listening to radio appeared to score high in all these learners' list. In his second study, he examined 20 first-year university students' out of class English activities through a mixed method research design. He applied a questionnaire on out-of-class learning strategies and did in-depth interviews into out of class activities. He drew 4 important implications: (1) learners benefitted mostly from the activities that they had chosen instead of the activities that were given by teachers, (2) the foremost reason why learners chose certain materials was the intrinsic value attached to them (3)

learners mostly made use of receptive activities (listening and reading) and (4) many of the subjects realized their inadequacies and took measures to remedy them.

In Lai, Zhu and Gong's (2015) study, 82 Chinese second year high school EFL students' out-of-class activities were investigated through a questionnaire. The questionnaire included close ended questions as well as open ended questions that investigated the features of their out-of-class activities and the time they spend on these activities. It was claimed that in contexts where English instruction is form-focused and teacher-centered, such as China, students' the frequency of doing out-of-class activities had a relationship with learners' grades, confidence in English and enjoyment in learning it. The activities conducted mostly by the participants were "watching movies" and "listening to songs". They noted that students favor receptive activities.

There have been various studies that focused on the benefits of different out-of-class activities. Rodgers (2013) investigated the impact of watching TV series on listening comprehension, incidental vocabulary acquisition and lexical coverage through 5 different research studies that he applied to 415 Japanese university students. His findings on all of these studies support that watching television series increases learners' vocabulary levels.

There have been some studies in the Turkish context regarding out-of-class English. İnözü, Şahinkarakaş and Yumru (2010) applied a questionnaire to investigate the out-of-class activities of 309 first-year ELT students in two universities. They later did follow-up interviews with 34 of these students. Their results yielded several important results about Turkish students' out of class activities. The first of these results is that while these students all believe that English has an important place in their lives, a large amount of the students indicated that they rarely use English outside of a classroom setting. Regarding the out-of-class activities used by these students, using the Internet for various reasons scored the

highest, followed by “listening to music”, “watching television” and “reading books” respectively. Another outcome of this study was that students believe these activities are mostly effective for the development of vocabulary and receptive skills rather than productive skills. Coşkun (2016) integrated 5 different out-of-class speaking activities into 21 first-year EFL students’ study program. Students represented certain characters of a story and acted their parts within the context of the story, wrote a sentence relevant to previous sentence to write a story together, shared their opinions about the debated topic, took roles as radio show host and guests to present their own radio show and did a live broadcast to talk about certain topics on the smartphone application, Periscope. He conducted a qualitative study based on open-ended survey questions to investigate the benefits of these activities. He found that participants believed these activities enhance their fluency and vocabulary; and all of them were more confident in their speaking skills at the end of the study. There were also some studies that focused on the impact of one certain out-of-class activity on learners’ English. In this regard, Turgut and İrgin (2009) analyzed the impact of computer games on young students’ English level. They observed 10 primary and secondary school students between the ages of 10-14 in an Internet café in Mersin, Turkey. After their observation, they conducted semi-structured interviews with each participant. They found that playing games have three important outcomes for learners: they develop strategies to learn the meaning of words in the game, they are more motivated to learn English to keep up with the story of the game and they are aware of the benefits and dangers of games.

All in all, it could be concluded that out-of-class activities are very important in language learning process. Different types of out-of-class activities aid the development of different skills and areas. They support classroom learning and compensate for the areas where classroom learning may be insufficient.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary is an important language component that is fundamental in mastering a language. Vocabulary is defined as “all the words used by a particular person or all the words which exist in a particular language or subject” (Cambridge international dictionary of English, 1995, p. 1628). Any single word unit, such as “table”, “walk” or “through” can be defined as vocabulary. So, vocabulary knowledge deals with the knowledge of all of the words that are existent in the target language.

Long and Richards (2007) consider vocabulary to be “the core component of all language skills.” (p. xii). They argue that failing to learn it can damage communication much more than other language components. In fact, it is almost impossible to communicate without an understanding of words. This issue has been elaborated by Wilkins (1972) who notes that: “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p. 111). This quote highlights the fact that other elements of the language are not enough on their own for communication without any vocabulary knowledge. You may know all the grammatical rules to a tense, but without knowing the right words, you cannot communicate. Therefore, vocabulary learning and teaching have always been central to language research.

Knowing a word. In discussing vocabulary knowledge, it is essential to clearly establish what knowing a word entails. There have been quite a lot of views on the issue of knowing a word. According to Mezynski (1983) different words can be known to different degrees. One can know the first meaning of a word, however, knowing a word encompasses much more than knowing its definition; such as second or third meanings, side meanings, different connotations and collocations. Although one may know the superficial meaning of a word, in most situations, a deeper knowledge might be needed.

Over the years, the issue of what it means to know a word has been discussed a lot by researchers. Cronbach (1942) was one of the first people to explain vocabulary knowledge. He suggested that vocabulary knowledge entails knowing multiple meanings of words and being able to recognize situations where it is appropriate to use these words. As more research studies were conducted on vocabulary knowledge, different parameters were included in describing vocabulary knowledge. Some of these aspects were pronunciation, morpho-syntactic properties, semantic features, pragmatic features, and collocation (Qian, 2002). Upon all these developments, Nation (2013) categorized vocabulary knowledge into three categories: form, meaning and use. Firstly, according to Oxford and Scarcella (1994), knowing the form of a word means knowing how to spell the word in written language and how to produce the right sounds in spoken language. Secondly, knowing the meaning implies knowing the dictionary meaning of that word. Oxford and Scarcella explain that knowing the dictionary meaning is a deeper construct than one might think. Words have various “shades of meaning” (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994, p. 3). Although different words could refer to the same semantic feature, they all have different connotations and different contexts where they would be used. In the same vein, a word’s features or connotation could change when it is translated into another language. Thirdly, knowing the use of a word indicates knowing the specific grammatical rules and properties concerning that word. This implies knowing its part of speech (noun, adjective, adverb and so on) and knowing how to appropriately use them without violating any grammatical rules. Regarding L2 word knowledge, Oxford and Scarcella add that recognizing the word and matching it with its translation is not enough. Vocabulary knowledge also involves being able to use it in communicative contexts. Vocabulary, just like grammar, cannot be isolated. One should know how to apply it in real communicative contexts.

Considering all these different definitions and explanations as to what it means to know vocabulary, it could be hypothesized that vocabulary knowledge is a deeper construct than one might think.

Frameworks on vocabulary knowledge and learning. Apart from the different definitions mentioned above regarding vocabulary knowledge, some frameworks have been proposed to distinguish different types of vocabulary knowledge and learning. Among all these frameworks, a prominent proposal was put forth by Freebody and Anderson (1981). They made a distinction between two different types of vocabulary knowledge: vocabulary breadth and vocabulary depth. They defined vocabulary breadth as “the number of words for which the person knows at least some of the significant aspects of meaning” and vocabulary depth as “the quality or depth of understanding” (p. 93). In that sense, vocabulary breadth deals with the amount of words a person knows while vocabulary depth deals with how well these words are known. Vocabulary depth is about knowing various aspects of a word. These aspects, as mentioned in the former section, involve its semantic relations (such as connotations and collocations). In that sense, many researchers have simply explained that knowing a word in depth entails knowing a word’s various meanings and how these meanings could be used in different settings (Tannenbaum, Torgesen & Wagner, 2006).

It has been discussed that many traditional measures and research studies which assess participants’ vocabulary knowledge only deal with one dimension of their vocabulary, which is vocabulary breadth (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996). When such measures evaluate how many words are known, they do not take into account how well these words are known. Compared to vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth is a less researched area (Li & Kirby, 2014). However, it is a fairly important construct in assessing vocabulary knowledge. Having a large breadth of vocabulary is crucial in mastery of a language; however, it’s not sufficient. Without a great depth of vocabulary, using these words correctly may not be possible. One

could know the meaning of traffic but without knowing its connotations well (such as heavy), they still do not know how to use it correctly, and therefore they may produce an incorrect expression such as strong traffic. In some cases where learners do not know the words in depth, it might not be possible for them to use these words in their sentences at all. In other cases, incorrect use of a word may lead to misunderstandings. Within the last decades, it has been discussed that learning a word more in depth, with the different contexts where the word can be used, is crucial in using language communicatively (Pawley & Syder, 1983).

Implicit vs. explicit vocabulary. The terms “implicit” and “explicit” vocabulary are important terms to be discussed within the scope of this study. Implicit learning is defined as acquiring knowledge about complicated concepts without consciously trying; whereas explicit learning implies that learner is aware of the learning process and consciously manages this process (Ellis, 1994). Doughty and Williams (1998) explain this difference by stating that the goal of explicit instruction is to “direct learner attention” whereas the goal of implicit instruction is to “attract learner attention” (p. 231). Therefore, an explicit learning setting is an intentional learning setting where learners are fully aware that learning has taken place. A traditional classroom where grammatical forms are directly presented to students could be given as an example to an explicit learning setting. On the other hand, in an implicit learning setting, the attention is on another subject matter while learning takes place subconsciously. If you take a mathematics classroom in English, for example, you could subconsciously internalize grammatical forms while your attention is on the mathematics lesson. Such a learning situation could be classified as implicit learning. As Ellis (2009) later further describes implicit learning, it is a kind of “learning without metalinguistic awareness” (p. 7).

In vocabulary acquisition studies, implicit vs. explicit learning is commonly used interchangeably with incidental vs. intentional vocabulary acquisition (Brown, 2007). Intentional vocabulary learning is defined by Robinson (2001) as “any activity aiming at

committing lexical information to memory” (p. 271). According to Hulstijn (2005), in an intentional learning task, learners are told that they will be assessed on how well they retain the vocabulary. This type of a vocabulary acquisition is similar to explicit learning. On the other hand, incidental learning is more similar to implicit learning. Gass (2013) explains that incidental vocabulary acquisition takes place as a by-product of other comprehension activities. Although the meaning of incidental vs. intentional learning overlaps with implicit vs. explicit learning, Hulstijn (2012) argues that they refer to different constructs in different domains. He explains that implicit knowledge is argued to be stored all over the brain while explicit knowledge independently occupies a particular area of the brain. In contrast to implicit and explicit learning, incidental and intentional learning are not associated with any cognitive theories and generally preferred to be used in the vocabulary learning-teaching literature (Hulstijn, 2005). Considering the points mentioned above, it could be discussed that implicit and explicit learning differ from incidental and intentional learning in that they are used in cognitive contexts, however, all of these terms are about whether the learning takes place consciously or not.

Vocabulary teaching. In most language classrooms, vocabulary is usually not taught separately as a subject but integrated into other subjects such as reading and listening (Huyen & Nga, 2003). Huyen and Nga argue that this is not an effective way to study vocabulary. Decarrico (2001) supports this view on the grounds that words should not be learnt in isolation. When learnt from a list, there is no context to give clues on the collocations, connotations and other semantic features of a word. This type of word knowledge would not be a deep knowledge, overlooking its depth and its different pragmatic and semantic functions. Sternberg (1987) emphasizes the importance of context stating that people encounter and learn tens of thousands of words in their lifespan and no one has learnt all of these words explicitly studying each of them one by one. Many of these words are acquired in context

without a conscious effort. In this respect, learning words in a context could be associated with incidental learning. As Thornbury (2002) indicates, through incidental learning, learners acquire target forms in a meaningful learning context. He adds that especially extensive reading, reading of materials away from the classroom, will result in positive vocabulary gains. Taking all these into consideration, we need to discuss the feasibility of learning vocabulary in a classroom setting. In a traditional language classroom, words are usually taught explicitly in an isolated way, which may lead to failure in the retention of these words. Such a setting may be insufficient in providing the students enough context and incidental learning opportunities. All in all, compared to an explicit learning setting, in an implicit learning situation where learners are focused more on the meaning, it is easier for them to naturally acquire vocabulary.

Out-of-class vocabulary acquisition. Compared to in-class vocabulary learning practices that are mentioned in the former section, out-of-class activities, such as watching a TV show in English, playing an English online game and reading an English book, may present more opportunities for students to acquire vocabulary incidentally. Whereas words are mostly treated like a list to be memorized in traditional classrooms; in out-of-class activities, they appear in meaningful contexts. When a learner encounters an unknown word in television series, online games, songs, books, online websites and so on, they see how this word is used in an authentic context. Such an authentic and meaningful context enables them to acquire words incidentally, without a conscious effort. These contexts also enable learners to acquire words on a deeper level. They do not only learn words' form and translation but have opportunities to learn words on a deeper level, involving the contexts where words are normally used, connotations, collocations, side meanings and second meanings. Whereas classroom learning may only support learners' vocabulary breadth, this type of learning also supports their vocabulary depth.

Another advantage of out-of-class vocabulary learning compared to in-class vocabulary learning is that through out-of-class environments, learners have the chance to repetitively encounter the same words. According to Huckin and Coady (1999), the frequency of exposure to words has a great influence on incidental vocabulary acquisition. This hypothesis was supported by a study conducted by Kachroo (1962). Kachroo reported that words that only appear one or two times are generally forgotten; whereas words that appear more than 7 times are retained. In a classroom setting, new words are generally presented once and may be repeated again for a few times more. However, a typical language classroom does not offer enough opportunities for words to be repeated recurrently because of time and syllabus limitations. Many out-of-class environments present the same words repetitively. Most commonly used daily words are repeated in authentic conversations in television series. Songs are listened to many times, which allows the learners to memorize the lyrics and leads to retention of new words. Learners who play online games encounter the game terminology repeatedly. Most of them use these new words in written or spoken language in these games. In this regard, learners' both receptive and productive skills are activated. They do not only see, or receive new words; they also use these words for a purpose: to produce language.

Finally, out-of-class activities allow a more pleasurable learning environment for learners. Out-of-class activities are conducted willingly for the purpose of entertainment instead of educational purposes. In this respect, these activities are entertaining activities in their nature. While learners have fun conducting these activities, they also acquire words implicitly. In such a learning situation, learning takes place in a pleasant environment which learners can relate to their own lives. A learner who loves a music group that produces music in English would be more eager to learn the language and subconsciously acquire target words as these words are presented in a context that is of interest to them. A learner who is interested in a movie series may acquire new words as these words are relevant and important

to the sequence of the story, and because of it, they may be more willing to learn these words. When an out-of-class activity is interesting to learners, it supports their subconscious vocabulary acquisition and similarly, learners are prompted to learn more about the language.

In consideration of the points described, it could be proposed that out-of-class learning environments provide more opportunities for learners to acquire new words and allow the words that are learnt to be retained.

Summary

This section provided an outline of the relevant literature of the thesis. Firstly, language learning and the field of second language acquisition were defined and discussed. Then, the history of language learning theories and language teaching theories were reviewed. Afterwards, in-class and out-of-class learning were defined and compared. The factors that might be related to out-of-class learning were introduced. Lastly, vocabulary, different frameworks on vocabulary and different vocabulary types were reviewed and out-of-class vocabulary acquisition was discussed.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Introduction

In this chapter, the design of the study is presented. Firstly, the research methodology and the approaches followed are explained with reference to the literature. Secondly, the pilot study is described in detail. Finally, the main study is presented by introducing the setting and participants, data collection tools and data analysis methods.

Research Methodology

In this study, a mixed type survey research methodology was implemented to determine the role of out-of-class activities on students' vocabulary knowledge. Survey research is defined as "the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions" (Check & Schutt, 2012, p. 160). There are many reasons for conducting survey methodology in this study. Through surveys, the researcher gathered data from a large sample of population quickly and easily. Surveys also enable the researcher to collect information on many data types that are difficult to observe (McIntyre, 2011). Surveys are believed to be the only method that can make generalizations and give a representative picture of a large popularity (Check & Schutt, 2012).

In conducting this survey study, both quantitative and qualitative approaches were followed. Quantitative research is defined as "a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data are used to obtain information about the world" (Burns & Groove, 2005, p. 23) whereas qualitative research is defined as discerning and describing events using qualitative data types such as documents, observation and/or interviews (Myers & Avison, 1997). In other words, quantitative research deals with numbers while qualitative research deals with words. In social research studies, quantitative research is given more importance; however,

mixing two methodologies and conducting a mixed-method inquiry allows researchers to have a better, and more insightful understanding while generating stronger credibility (Greene, 2005). Accordingly, the quantitative data in this study were supported with qualitative data gathered through interviews.

The Pilot Study

Pilot studies are important parts of well-designed research studies. They help researchers test their instruments, check the feasibility of the study, identify potential problems which might occur during the main study and develop a research plan (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). As stated by Mason and Zuercher (1998), although pilot studies may be time consuming, “it is better to deal with them before investing a great deal of time, money, and effort in the full study” (p. 29). For these reasons, a pilot study was conducted in this study.

The pilot study was conducted in Trakya University, Edirne, Turkey in December 2018. The participants were 30 first-year English Language Teaching (ELT) students from two different classrooms. There were 17 female students and 13 male students. Their ages ranged from 18 to 33 ($M = 20.25$, $SD = 2.90$).

The data were collected through three instruments: a questionnaire, a vocabulary test and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. Part A comprised demographic questions, such as age, gender, and number of years spent learning English. Part B included 33 4-point Likert type questions (1 = almost never, 2 = a few days in a month, 3 = a few days in a week, 4 = everyday) that investigated the frequency of participants' out-of-class activities. The questionnaire and the vocabulary test were administered on the same day. The administration of these two instruments took 45 minutes. On the last page of VLT, a part was also provided where students could write down their contact details for the interviews.

They were also asked to write their views about the questionnaire so that the researcher could improve the questionnaire in the main study.

For the semi-structured interviews, six volunteer students were contacted through e-mail. Two students who replied the e-mail were chosen for the interviews randomly. They were interviewed through Skype and mobile phone. Before starting, the researcher asked for their permission to record the interview. The students were asked three questions. The questions aimed to find out (1) if the students conducted any out-of-class activities, (2) the reasons for conducting these activities (for pleasure or for learning), (3) in what ways these activities are different compared to in-class activities. Researcher transcribed the interviews verbatim. Both interviews took approximately 5 minutes.

Implications for the main study. An analysis of pilot study results laid out crucial implications on the questionnaire and the interviews.

There were several issues regarding the questionnaire. A major drawback of the questionnaire was that it took too long to administer, which caused many complications during its administration. Some students were bored and couldn't complete the questionnaire. It was also difficult to complete it in just one lesson hour. After the analysis, it was found out that some items in the questionnaire were redundant. For the main study, the questionnaire was revised and edited. 14 unnecessary items were removed, 5 of them were combined. The second important issue was the answer options of the Likert scale. The questionnaire used in the pilot study was a 4-point scale. When the questionnaire was revised, the items were changed to a 5-point frequency response format (always, usually, often, sometimes, never). Finally, some items in the questionnaire were re-written as the negative sentence structure caused some problems while analyzing the data.

Important inferences were also made regarding the interviewing process. The interviews were too short and did not contain necessary prompts. The reason for this was because the researcher was not familiar enough with the interviewing process. Some questions that were written for the interviews were unnecessary. They caused the interviewees to divert from the topic. They took a long time to answer these questions and not enough attention was given to the most important question, which was “In what ways are the out-of-class activities different compared to in-class activities regarding vocabulary?”. To avoid this, the researcher restructured the interview questions to place more importance to the question above. The researcher also made some notes to herself to ensure that the participants do not talk about topics irrelevant to the scope of this study.

Main Study

After the implementation of the pilot study and the necessary changes to the questionnaire were made, the main study was implemented in February, 2019. Before that, official permissions were obtained from two institutions (See Appendix E and F).

Setting and participants. The main study was conducted at the English Language Teaching departments of two universities in Turkey. Participants were chosen through convenience sampling due to accessibility to the participants. Participants consist of 245 first and fourth year ELT students. 148 of the participants are students at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University and 97 of them are students at Trakya University, Edirne. The number of 1st year students is 130 and the number of 4th year students is 115. Of the total participants, 177 are females and 68 are males. All of the participants are of Turkish background. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 34 ($M = 21.04$, $SD = 2.26$).

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants in a more detailed way. The number of male and female students and their grades are shown for both universities.

Participants were predominantly female. There were 63 female participants from Trakya University and 113 female participants from Onsekiz Mart University, compared to 34 male participants from Trakya University and 34 male participants from Onsekiz Mart University.

Table 1

Participants' University, Year of Study and Gender

University	<u>1st year students</u>		<u>4th year students</u>	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Trakya University	32	18	31	16
Onsekiz Mart University	53	26	60	8
Total	85	44	91	24

Interview participants. For the interviews, participants were selected through purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is defined as a sampling method in which “particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices” (Maxwell, 1998, p. 87). To gain more insight as to why certain students reported doing more out-of-class activities, researcher selected 5 students based on six criteria. These criteria were: (1) participants who are at 2000 word level and indicated that they conduct out-of-class activities very often, (2) participants who are at 6000 word level and indicated that they do not conduct out-of-class activities often, (3) male participants that conduct out of class activities often, (4) female participants that do not conduct out-of-class activities often, (5) 1st year students who reported that they conduct out-of-class activities often and (6) 4th year students who reported that they do not conduct out-of-class activities often.

Data collection tools. The data in the main study were collected through three data collection tools: questionnaire, vocabulary test and interviews. To collect quantitative data about students' out-of-class activities and their views on these activities, a questionnaire was developed. The questionnaire was adapted from Sundqvist's questionnaire (2009) and some

of the items were taken from Hyland's (2004) questionnaire. As mentioned in the pilot study section, the questionnaire was revised after the implementation of the pilot study. Following the revision of the questionnaire, the new questionnaire used in the main study consisted of two parts (see Appendix A). Part A included personal detail questions about the participants such as age, gender, university and grade. Part B included 19 5-point Likert type items (1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = usually, 5 = always) that investigated the frequency of students' out-of-class activities. Part B was found to be reliable ($\alpha = .83$). The questionnaire was designed in Turkish in order to avoid misunderstandings due to lack of language competence.

The second data collection tool used in the main study was the second version of The Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) designed by Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham (2001) (see Appendix B). The test aims to assess the vocabulary knowledge of test takers. The test consists of 5 groups of words: 2000 word level, 3000 word level, 5000 word level, 10000 word level and academic vocabulary. In each group, there are 10 items, each consisting of 3 definitions and 6 words. Test takers are expected to match the words to their corresponding definition. There are 50 items that include three definitions, therefore, in total; there are 150 definitions to be matched to the correct vocabulary. The questionnaire and VLT were implemented on the same day. The students completed the questionnaire and VLT in 30 minutes.

The third data collection tool, semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect qualitative data. After the implementation of the questionnaire and VLT, 5 volunteer students were chosen for the interviews based on a variety of criteria as stated in the interview participants section. Participants were interviewed using a semi-structured interview protocol (see Appendix C). The interviewees were contacted and interviewed through their mobile phones. Before starting, the researcher got participants' permission to record the interviews.

After the interviews, the recordings were transcribed verbatim. The interviews took approximately 10 minutes.

Data analysis. The quantitative data gathered through questionnaire and VLT were analyzed via Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Skewness and kurtosis analyses revealed that the data were not normally distributed; therefore, nonparametric tests were used.

Descriptive statistics were used to gather information on Turkish ELT students' perceptions of their English levels, ELT students' views about the importance of English in their daily lives, out-of-class activities of Turkish students and, vocabulary level of Turkish students.

Two of the aims of this study were to find out if there is a correlation (1) between out-of-class activities and perceived English competence and (2) between out-of-class activities and participants' beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives. For these aims, Spearman correlation analysis was implemented.

Another aim of this study was to find out if there are significant differences between learners with different vocabulary knowledge levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. To reach this aim, Mann-Whitney U test was performed. Similarly, to find out if there are significant differences between males and females in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities and if there are significant differences between first and fourth year students in the frequency of doing out-of class activities, Mann-Whitney U test was used.

Finally, to analyze the qualitative interview data, a deductive approach was used. Deductive data analysis is defined as a data analysis process in which the researcher establishes what theories to test and what data to search ahead of time (Butler, 2016). In the

present study, the researcher had goals that guided the interview and analysis process, so a deductive approach was preferable when analyzing the transcriptions of the interviews.

Summary

In this chapter, the study design was presented in depth. In doing so, the research methodology and the approaches that were followed were explained firstly. After that, the pilot study phase was described in detail. Finally, the main study was presented. Study setting and participants, data collection tools and data analysis methods were introduced.



Chapter Four

Findings and Discussions

Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the quantitative data collected through questionnaire and Vocabulary Levels Test and the qualitative data collected through interviews are presented. The results are analyzed under different headings for each research question. In each heading, after presenting the findings, interpretations are made based on the relevant literature.

Research Question 1: ELT students' perceptions of their English competence

In order to reveal ELT students' perceptions of their English competence, descriptive statistics of frequency were calculated. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

ELT Students' Perceptions of Their English Competence

	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
fairly good	60	24.5
very good but still room for improvement	163	66.5
native level	22	9
Total	245	100

As shown in Table 2, 163 participants (66.5%) stated that their English is very good but reported to have some room for improvement. 60 participants (24.5%) stated that their English is very good but there is still room for improvement. 22 participants (9%) stated that they speak English at a native level. There were no participants who reported that their English was weak. This indicates that the majority of ELT students in this study believe that their English is very good but they still reported a need for improvement. On the other hand, a small number of participants ($n = 22$) believe that they are at a native level.

The findings for this item of the questionnaire, which were adapted from Hyland's (2004) questionnaire, contradict with her findings. She revealed that ELT students in Hong Kong regarded their English as fairly good. However, the findings of this study are in line with a number of research studies. For example, Şener's (2014) study, which was conducted at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, found that ELT students had a moderate self-perceived competence. Similarly, Çetinkaya (2005) revealed that ELT students in Dokuz Eylül University felt more or less competent in speaking English. Öz, Demirezen and Pourfeiz (2015) found that the majority of ESL students at a major state university had moderate self-perceived communication competence, while a small number of the students had high self-perceived competence. Therefore, it is fair to say that generally ELT students in Turkey have a moderate self-perceived competence and few of them believe they have a native level English.

Research question 2: ELT students' views about the importance of English in their daily lives

Frequency distributions were calculated in order to investigate ELT students' views about the importance of English in their daily lives.

Table 3

ELT Students' Views about the Importance of English in Their Daily Lives

	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
very important	37	15.1
important	122	49.8
not very important	79	32.2
not important at all	7	2.9
Total	245	100

As can be seen in Table 3, 122 participants (49.8%) reported that English is important in their daily lives outside the classroom, 79 of them (32.2%) indicated English is not very important, 37 of them (15.1%) indicated it is very important and 7 participants (2.9%) indicated it is not important at all. These findings suggest that most of the ELT students in this study believe English is important in their daily lives. It is worth noting that only 15.1% of the participants reported English is very important in their daily lives. This could indicate that although English is important for many participants in this study, it is still not a very big part of a big majority of participants' lives.

The findings for this item of the questionnaire are parallel to the findings of Hyland (2004). In her study, the majority of ELT students in Hong Kong reported that English is important in their daily lives. In the Turkish context, Karahan (2007) found that Turkish ELT students have mildly positive attitudes towards English, although it is expected that they have a more positive attitude towards the language. This indicates that although ESL students study English language and therefore are expected to view English as highly important; many of these students do not believe English is as important in their lives. According to Gardner (1985), beliefs about the language are closely linked to motivation. When a language learner has a positive attitude towards the language, that learner is highly motivated to learn the language. In the same line of thought, as ELT students have moderately positive attitudes towards English, their motivation to learn English could only be moderately positive.

Research Question 3: Out-of-class activities ELT students do frequently and infrequently

To determine the activities that ELT students do frequently and infrequently outside the classroom, mean scores and standard deviations of each activity were calculated. The most frequent five activities are presented in Table 4 (see Appendix D for all data).

Table 4

Activities ELT Students Do Most Frequently

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. I listen to songs in English.	4.72	0.62
2. I watch TV series and movies in English.	4.57	0.73
3. I surf on English websites.	3.98	1.05
4. I watch vlogs in English.	3.82	1.22
5. I follow English forums and blogs	3.46	1.31

As displayed in Table 4, the out-of-class activity that Turkish ELT students report doing most is listening to songs in English ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 0.62$), followed by watching TV series and movies in English ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 0.73$), surfing on English websites ($M = 3.98$, $SD = 1.05$), watching vlogs in English ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.22$) and following English forums and blogs ($M = 3.46$, $SD = 1.31$). As evident from the findings, Turkish ELT students mostly report doing listening activities such as listening to songs in English, watching TV series and movies in English and watching vlogs in English. It could also be noted that all five of the most frequent activities are receptive activities, namely listening and reading. This suggests that Turkish ELT students usually report doing activities in which they remain more passive. They do not report actively using English frequently; they mostly report getting exposed to English in a more passive way.

When the findings of relevant research studies are compared, it could be seen that the most frequent activities show slight differences in each study. However, parallel to this study, it is agreed in the literature that students mostly conduct receptive activities out of the classroom, rather than productive activities (Hyland, 2004; İnözü, Şahinkarakaş, & Yumru, 2010, Lai, Zhu, & Gong, 2015; Pickard, 1995; 1996; Sundqvist, 2011). The present study

supports most of Sundqvist's (2011) findings, in which four of the activities students in Sweden do were listening to music, watching television, and surfing on the internet. The present study also mostly supports the findings of İnözü, Şahinkarakaş and Yumru (2010) who found that Turkish students mostly do Internet activities, listen to music and watch TV out of the classroom. This indicates that learners in different contexts do similar out-of-class activities and shows that ELT learners prefer to remain passive when they do out-of-class activities. They do not prefer doing activities that require speaking or writing. They mostly get exposed to English, in other words, they only listen to or read English. They do not seek opportunities to practise their productive skills.

The present study was also concerned with revealing out-of-class activities that ELT students do infrequently. The least five frequent out-of-class activities that participants reported doing are given in Table 5.

Table 5

Activities ELT students do least frequently

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
15. I play English video games.	2.94	1.53
16. I speak in English in my daily life.	2.91	1.10
17. I use my computer in English.	2.83	1.68
18. I play video games that require me to speak in English.	2.60	1.50
19. I read English newspapers.	2.39	1.13

As presented in Table 5, Turkish ELT students reported reading English newspaper least frequently ($M = 2.39$, $SD = 1.13$). Other activities that they reported doing least frequently were playing video games that require speaking English ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.50$),

using computer in English ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.68$), speaking in English in daily life ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 1.10$) and playing video games ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 1.53$). It could be suggested that all of these activities involve using English for communicative purposes or using English for a task. As such, participants in this study do not report using English for communicative purposes frequently. As discussed above in Table 5, the least frequent five activities involve using English for productive purposes, namely speaking. Thus, this indicates that Turkish ELT students do not report actively using English for such purposes.

These findings contradict with Sundqvist's (2009) findings which revealed that playing games was one of the five most frequent activities Swedish students do out of the classroom. This may be caused by the participant profile of this study. Generally, males are thought to play games more than females. However, the number of male participants in this study is very few. Therefore, female participants' answers might have affected the results more than male participants' answers. Another reason might be the fact that many participants of this study were last year students and they reported that not to have much time to play games outside the classroom because of their heavy examination schedules and internship. However, the findings of the present study are similar to the findings of İnözü, Şahinkarakaş, and Yumru (2010). In their study, few Turkish ELT students reported doing speaking activities outside the classroom, namely befriending a native speaker, chatting with natives outside the school and speaking in English at home.

Research Question 4: ELT students' vocabulary levels

The present study attempted to reveal the participants' vocabulary levels. According to the results of VLT test, the participants are divided into five knowledge levels. The frequencies are given in Table 6.

Table 6

Vocabulary Levels of Turkish ELT Students

	<i>N</i>	%
2000 level	29	11.8
3000 level	29	11.8
4000 level	43	17.6
5000 level	121	49.4
6000 level	23	9.4

As depicted in Table 6, the majority of the participants ($N = 121$) in this study were at 5000 level (49.4%). 43 students were at 4000 level (17.6%), 29 of them were at 2000 level (11.8%), 29 of them were at 3000 level (11.8%) and 23 of them were at 6000 level (9.4%). This indicates that most of the ELT students in this study have an adequate knowledge of vocabulary. It is worth emphasizing that only few of them have advanced (6000 level) vocabulary knowledge.

When the findings of similar studies are compared, it is seen that most ELT students' vocabulary levels in Cyprus were around 2000-3000 word level (Kalajahi & Pourshahian, 2012). In the Turkish context Tanyer and Öztürk (2014) revealed that ELT students in Anadolu University were at 2000-3000 words level and had a moderate size of academic vocabulary.

There are different views about vocabulary knowledge required for English language learners. Researchers have mentioned that 2000-3000 words are necessary for daily conversation and conversational listening (Adolphs & Schmitt, 2003; Van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2010). To comprehend an average reading text, the minimum amount of words needed is around 3000 words (Laufer, 1997). Webb and Rogers (2009) note that 3,000 word families are required to watch and understand television series and movies. However, considering the

fact that the participants of the present study are future teachers of English, it is not surprising that most of them are beyond that level.

When compared with other levels, 5000 word level could be regarded as the threshold for language use according to many researchers. Language learners above this level can conduct important higher order skills in an L2 task, such as using strategies for reading and listening (Albrechtsen, Haastrup, & Henriksen, 2008). Waring and Nation (2004) stress that knowing 5000 words is enough to comprehend 90 percent of all text types. This suggests that most ELT students in this study have sufficient vocabulary knowledge to comprehend most texts on various topics, follow TV series and movies easily, and implement strategies while reading and listening. They can easily cope with the situations where only English is spoken. They may not know specialized vocabulary but they know enough words to handle many situations and they can guess the words that they do not know from the context (Laufer, 1997).

Research Question 5: The relationship between out-of-class activities and perceived English competence

In order to measure the correlation between ELT students' out-of-class activities and perceived English competence, Spearman correlation analyses were conducted. In presenting out-of-class activities, they are grouped into 5 categories: a) out-of-class reading activities, b) out-of-class gaming activities, c) out-of-class listening activities,) out-of-class technology use and d) English use in daily life.

Table 7 shows the correlation between out-of-class reading activities and perceived English competence.

Table 7

Correlation Coefficients between Out-of-Class Reading Activities and Perceived English Competence

	Perceived English competence	Reading English books and texts	Reading English newspapers
Perceived English competence	1		
Reading English books and texts	.27**	1	
Reading English newspapers	.18**	.39**	1

Note. ** $p < .01$

As depicted in Table 7, there is a positive weak relationship between reading English books and texts and participants' perceived English competence ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), and between reading English newspapers and participants' perceived English competence ($r = .18$, $p < .01$). It should be noted that the relationship between reading English newspapers and perceived English competence is weaker. This might be because books and texts are more available compared to English newspapers.

Similar to this study, Sundqvist (2009) investigated Swedish students' self-efficacy; by including items about their beliefs about the importance of English, the amount of effort they place on their English lesson and how much they conducted their own learning. When she correlated these items with students' out-of-class activities, she found a positive significant correlation for many items. In line with the findings presented in Table 7, she found a positive significant correlation between self-efficacy and reading newspapers and magazines outside the classroom. According to these findings, it could be asserted that ELT students who read English texts outside the classroom tend to believe that they have a high level of English.

Table 8 presents the correlation between students' out-of-class game activities and perceived English competence.

Table 8

Correlation Coefficients between Out-of-Class Games and Perceived English Competence

	Perceived English competence	Playing video games	Playing games that require speaking	Playing games that require reading	Playing games that require listening
Perceived English competence	1				
Playing video games	.15*	1			
Playing games that require speaking	.17**	.75**	1		
Playing games that require reading	.18**	.83**	.79**	1	
Playing games that require listening	.18**	.80**	.77**	.9**	1

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 8, there is a weak positive relationship between playing games out of the class and perceived English competence ($r = .15$, $p < .05$). It was revealed that there is a significant positive correlation between perceived English competence and playing games that require speaking ($r = .17$, $p < .01$); playing games that require reading ($r = .18$, $p < .01$) and playing games that require listening ($r = .18$, $p < .01$). In the light of these results, it could be discussed that playing games is highly related to students' perceptions of their English levels. It is seen that these students tend to play games that might improve their English competence because they reported playing video games that require reading, listening, and speaking in English.

Table 9 depicts the correlation between out-of-class listening activities and perceived English competence.

Table 9

Correlation Coefficients between Out-of-Class Listening and Perceived English Competence

	English competence	TV series and movies	English channels	Vlogs	Songs	Podcast and Radio
English competence	1					
TV series and movies	.10	1				
English channels	.06	.40**	1			
Vlogs	.24**	.44**	.42**	1		
Songs	.13*	.45**	.31**	.31**	1	
Podcast and Radio	.23**	.21**	.34**	.38**	.26**	1

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

As it can be seen in Table 9, there is a positive correlation between perceived English competence and watching vlogs ($r = .24, p < .01$), listening to songs ($r = .13, p < .05$) and listening to podcast and radio shows ($r = .23, p < .01$). It is worth noting that there is no correlation between watching TV series and movies, and watching English channels. These findings indicate that students who believe that they have a high level of English report watching vlogs, listening to songs and listening to podcast and radio shows more frequently. The correlation is weak for songs, whereas it is slightly stronger for watching vlogs and listening to podcasts and radio shows. This indicates that watching vlogs and listening to podcasts and radio shows has a stronger relationship with the way participants in this study perceive their English level. It should be noted that vlogs and podcasts and radio shows require a more careful listening. Paying attention to lyrics is not very important when listening to songs, whereas it is of high importance to understand the context when listening to vlogs, podcasts and radio shows. Thus, it could be discussed that purposeful listening affects the way students perceive their English competence more compared to aimless listening activities.

In line with the present study, Sundqvist (2009) found that there was a significantly positive relationship between Swedish students' self-efficacy and listening to music, and watching TV. These findings also confirm the findings of Wu (2012) who found that there was a significantly positive relationship between watching TV series and movies and students' perceptions of their English proficiency and self-efficacy for ESL students in Hong Kong. This shows that students who conduct receptive listening activities outside the classroom are inclined to believe that they have a high level of English.

Table 10 depicts the correlation between out-of class technology use and perceived English competence.

Table 10

Correlation Coefficients between Out-of-Class Technology Use in English and Perceived English Competence

	English competence	English websites	English forums and blogs	Using phone in English	Using computer in English
English competence	1				
English websites	.24**	1			
English forums and blogs	.28**	.67**	1		
Using phone in English	.05	.17**	.23**	1	
Using computer in English	.20**	.24**	.25**	0.59**	1

Note. ** $p < .01$

The data in Table 10 indicates that there is a weak positive correlation between perceived English competence and surfing on English websites ($r = .24, p < .01$), visiting English forums and blogs ($r = .28, p < .01$), and using computer in English ($r = .20, p < .01$). However, there is no correlation between perceived English competence and using phone in English. Accordingly, students who report using computer and the Internet in English out of the classroom believe that they have a high level of English competence. This indicates that

using computer actively in English influence students' perceptions of their English levels more compared to using mobile phone in English.

The findings of Sundqvist (2009) confirm the findings of this study. She found that there was a significant correlation between surfing on the net and Swedish students' self-efficacy. Therefore, it could be concluded that students who use technology in English outside the classroom are inclined to believe that they have a high level of English.

Table 11 presents the correlation between English use in daily life and perceived English competence.

Table 11

Correlation Coefficients between English Use in Daily Life and Perceived English Competence

	English competence	Using English for many purposes	Seeking opportunities	Speaking in English in daily life
English competence	1			
Using English for many purposes	.24**	1		
Seeking opportunities	.20**	.34**	1	
Speaking in English in daily life	.24**	.50**	.47**	1

Note. ** $p < .01$

As presented in Table 11, there is a positive correlation between perceived English competence and using English for many purposes in daily life ($r = .24, p < .01$), seeking opportunities to use English ($r = .20, p < .01$) and speaking in English in daily life ($r = .24, p < .01$). As can be seen, the correlation is slightly stronger for using English for many purposes and speaking in English in daily life. This indicates that students who report speaking in English in daily life believe they have a high level of English more compared to students who

only look for opportunities to speak in English. Therefore, actively using English has a stronger relationship with perceived English competence.

In the relevant literature, Wu (2012) found that there is a positive relationship between implementing out-of-class activities in daily life and practicing English in daily life for ESL students in Hong Kong. This indicated that using English in daily life leads ELT students to believe that they have a high level of English.

Research Question 5a: Differences between students with different perceived English competence in the frequency of out-of-class activities. Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to reveal the differences between students with different perceived English competence in the frequency of out-of-class activities. There were no significant differences between “very good” level and “fairly good” - “native” levels. This suggests that students who believe they are very good at English, fairly good at English and have a native level of English do similar amount of out-of-class activities. However, there were significant differences between fairly good and native levels. The items in which significant findings are found between these levels are depicted in Table 12 below.

Table 12
Differences between Fairly Good and Native Levels in the Frequency of Out-of-Class Activities

		<i>n</i>	Mean rank	Mean Dif.	<i>p</i>
Reading English books and texts	Fairly good	60	36.44	N > F	.001
	Native level	22	55.30		
	Total	82			
Reading English newspapers	Fairly good	60	38.15	N > F	.027
	Native level	22	50.64		
	Total	82			
Playing video games	fairly good	60	38.45	N > F	.050
	native level	22	49.82		
	Total	82			
Playing video games that require reading	fairly good	60	38.17	N > F	.033
	native level	22	50.57		
	Total	82			
Playing video games that require listening	fairly good	60	37.45	N > F	.009
	native level	22	52.55		
	Total	82			
Vlog	fairly good	60	35.94	N > F	.000
	native level	22	56.66		
	Total	82			
Songs	fairly good	60	38.98	N > F	.028
	native level	22	48.36		
	Total	82			
Podcast and Radio	fairly good	60	37.04	N > F	.004
	native level	22	53.66		
	Total	82			
Speaking in English in daily life	fairly good	60	36.56	N > F	.001
	native level	22	54.98		
	Total	82			
English websites	fairly good	60	35.57	N > F	.010
	native level	22	52.23		
	Total	82			
English forums and blogs	fairly good	60	36.06	N > F	.000
	native level	22	56.34		
	Total	82			
Using computer in English	fairly good	60	37.75	N > F	.013
	native level	22	51.73		
	Total	82			

Note: N = native level, F= fairly good level

Out of 19 activities, significant differences were found in 13 items that are presented in Table 12. As can be seen in the table, native level students do significantly more out-of-class reading activities (e.g. reading books, texts and newspapers), play significantly more

games (e.g. games that require listening and games that require reading), do significantly more out-of-class listening (e.g. vlogs, songs, podcasts and radio shows) and integrate English (e.g. seeking opportunities to use English, speaking in English) significantly more in their daily lives compared to fairly good level students. This indicates that when students do various kinds of out-of-class activities, their perceptions about their English competence change in a positive way.

According to the findings, there were no significant differences for out-of-class gaming and watching TV series and movies outside the classroom. Therefore, it could be stated that watching TV shows and playing games outside the classroom are not related to students' perceptions of their English competence. These results could be interpreted in several ways. For TV series and movies, it could be put forth that students who watch them can rely on the subtitles. Even without knowing any English, a person can watch a whole movie in English with subtitles. This reliance on subtitles means that watching TV series may not be very effective in supporting language skills; or it may lead the language learners to think that way. Therefore, watching TV series and movies may not have an impact on students' perceptions of their English levels. For gaming, the findings might indicate that as gamers follow the rules automatically after a while, they might not feel that playing games directly affect their English level. It could also be because the words used in games are limited. Students might feel that these words may not be helpful in their daily speech.

Research question 6: Correlation between out-of-class activities and participants' beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives

Correlation coefficients analyses were conducted to reveal the correlation between out-of-class activities and participants' beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives. The results are presented below.

Table 13

Correlation between Participants' Beliefs about the Importance of English in Their Daily Lives and Out-of-Class Reading

	Importance of English in Daily Life	Books and texts	Newspaper
Importance of English in Daily Life	1		
Books and texts	.27**	1	
Newspaper	.13*	.39**	1

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 13 suggest that there is a weak positive correlation between reading books and texts ($r = .27, p < .01$) and participants beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives. The correlation is weaker for reading newspapers ($r = .13, p < .01$).

Table 14

Correlation between Participants' Beliefs about the Importance of English in Their Daily Lives and Out-of-Class Gaming Activities

	Importance of English	Playing video games	Games that require speaking	Games that require reading	Games that require listening
Importance of English	1				
Playing video games	.10	1			
Games that require speaking	.16*	.75**	1		
Games that require reading	.15*	.83**	.79**	1	
Games that require listening	.11	.80**	.77**	.91**	1

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

As can be seen in Table 14, weak correlations were found between playing games that require speaking ($r = .16, p < .05$) and reading ($r = .15, p < .05$) and participants' beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives. There was no correlation for playing games that

require listening and playing video games in general. The findings are intriguing. They may indicate that participants who speak in English in a game believe that English is important in their daily lives. The same could be proposed for games that require reading; where they have to read and understand instructions to complete the game. The lack of correlation between games that require listening and beliefs about the importance of English may mean that it is not vital for the participants in this study to understand the content of the listening text to follow the game that they play. Therefore, these kinds of listening activities may not have an impact on their beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives.

Table 15

Correlation between Participants' Beliefs about the Importance of English in Their Daily Lives and Out-of-Class Listening

	Importance of English in Daily Life	TV series and movies	English channels	Vlogs	Songs	Podcast and Radio
Importance of English in Daily Life	1					
TV series and movies	.23**	1				
English channels	.15*	.40**	1			
Vlogs	.25**	.44**	.42**	1		
Songs	.29**	.45**	.31**	.31**	1	
Podcast and Radio	.16**	.21**	.33**	.37**	.26**	1

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

As can be seen in Table 15, there is a weak positive correlation between participants' beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives and all out-of-class listening activities. The correlation is strongest for listening to English songs ($r = .29$, $p < .05$),

suggesting that participants who believe that English is very important listen to songs outside the classroom. There is also a weak correlation for watching vlogs ($r = .25, p < .05$) and watching TV series and movies ($r = .23, p < .05$), suggesting that participants in this study who believe English is important report watching vlogs and TV series and movies more. The correlation is weaker for watching English channels ($r = .15, q < .05$) and listening to podcasts and radio shows ($r = .16, p < .05$). This finding could be attributed to the fact that Turkish students do not report watching English channels and listening to podcasts and radio shows frequently. The items that are mostly correlated with participants' beliefs are all activities that they report conducting very frequently.

Table 16

Correlation between Participants' Beliefs about the Importance of English in Their Daily Lives and English Use in Daily Life

	Importance of English in Daily Life	Using English for many purposes in daily life	Seeking opportunities to use English	Speaking in English in daily life
Importance of English in Daily Life	1			
Using English for many purposes in daily life	.44**	1		
Seeking opportunities to use English	.41**	.34**	1	
Speaking in English in daily life	.42**	.50**	.47**	1

Note. ** $p < .01$

As presented in Table 16, there is a moderate correlation between participants' beliefs about the importance of English and their English use in daily life for all of the items. The correlation is the strongest for using English for many purposes in daily life ($r = .44, q < .05$), followed by speaking in English in their daily lives ($r = .42, q < .05$) and seeking

opportunities to use English ($r = .41, q < .05$). It should be pointed out that the correlation between participants' English use in daily life and their beliefs about the importance of English is higher than the correlation between all the other types of out-of-class activities and participants' beliefs about the importance of English. This finding suggests that although the majority of out-of-class activities have a correlation with participants' beliefs about the importance of English; English use in daily life has the strongest relationship with their beliefs. This could be because although many students in Turkey conduct various out-of-class activities, the activities are mostly receptive activities. The activities presented in Table 16, however, mostly address their productive activities. As such, it could be interpreted that these activities are more related to their views on English. Participants who believe English is important in their daily lives do not just get exposed to English. They also report using it actively more compared to participants who believe that English is not very important in their daily lives.

All of these findings regarding the correlation between out-of-class activities and participants' beliefs about the importance of English in daily life confirm the findings of Wu (2012) who found that ELT students in Hong Kong who did English activities outside the classroom believed that English is important more than students who did not do English activities frequently in their daily life. They indicated that English helps them get a prestigious job and meet foreigners from different countries.

Research Question 6a: Differences between students with different beliefs about the importance of English in daily life in the frequency of out-of-class activities. To determine the differences between students with different beliefs in the frequency of out-of-class activities, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The differences that are found are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Differences between Students with Different Beliefs in the Frequency of Out-of-Class Activities

		<i>n</i>	Mean rank	Mean Dif.	<i>P</i>
Playing English games	Important	122	66.55		
	Not important at all	7	38.07	I > NI	.045
	Total	129			
Using English for many purposes in daily life	Important	122	67.25		
	Not important at all	7	25.71	I > NI	.003
	Total	129			
TV series and movies	Important	122	66.34		
	Not important at all	7	41.71	I > NI	.036
	Total	129			
Seeking opportunities to use English	Important	122	66.86		
	Not important at all	7	32.50	I > NI	.012
	Total	129			
Speaking English in Daily Life	Important	122	67.20		
	Not important at all	7	26.64	I > NI	.004
	Total	129			

Note: I = important, NI = Not important

As can be seen in Table 17, participants who believe that English is important in their daily life report playing English games, using English for many purposes in daily life, watching TV series and movies, seeking opportunities to use English and speaking English in daily life more compared to participants who believe English is not important at all in their daily life. It should be noted that 4 of the items presented in Table 17 are productive activities. Based on these findings, it is evident that participants who believe that English is important in their daily lives report conducting more productive activities than students who report it is not important at all.

Research Question 7: Differences between learners with different vocabulary knowledge levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities

Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to determine the differences between learners with different vocabulary knowledge levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities.

There were some intriguing findings regarding the differences between different vocabulary levels. 2000 level students were not found to be significantly different in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities compared to other levels (see Appendix E). This finding indicates that out-of-class activities do not significantly influence students' vocabulary levels as it was found that students who do out-of-class activities frequently do not have a significantly larger vocabulary size compared to students who do not implement out-of-class activities frequently in their daily lives. In the light of these findings, to gain more insight as to why there were not significant differences between different levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities, follow-up interviews were conducted.

Interviewees proposed various reasons as to why 2000 level students were not found to be significantly different than other levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. One of the reasons was that English used in many out-of-class learning contexts tends to be colloquial English. In TV series and movies, people talk in daily English, which does not encompass a large vocabulary. Similarly, English used on the Internet and vlogs do not include high-frequency vocabulary. Participant 4 (P4), a first year female student emphasized this feature of daily language:

The words we use in our daily speech are limited. We use slang, or just daily words. Even in Turkish, we do not use a variety of words in our daily life.

Another reason might be the fact that acquiring vocabulary through out-of-class activities might take a long time. If participants in this study did not implement out-of-class activities in their life before they started university, this might mean that they did not get exposed to the language rich enough to acquire new words significantly more than students who do not conduct out-of-class activities. Participant 3 (P3), a first year male student, pointed out the importance of doing out-of-class activities for a long time:

For vocabulary development, I think you need to watch TV series or movies for months or years to learn new words.

Therefore, in the short term, out-of-class activities might be more effective in other aspects:

Watching TV series for example, is beneficial for pronunciation. I developed my pronunciation in a short time through watching TV series. (P3)

These results contradict with Sundqvist's (2009) findings. She found that Swedish students who do a lot of out-of-class activities also have a higher level of vocabulary. The difference in the findings may result from several reasons. The difference may be because of the similarities between Swedish and English languages. As Swedish is in the same language family as English, they have many common words. Therefore, it may be easier for Swedish learners to acquire the new vocabulary they get exposed to outside the classroom; whereas for a Turkish student, it may be more difficult or take a longer time.

Research Question 8: Differences between female and male learners in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities

To examine the differences between female and male learners in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities, Mann-Whitney U analyses were conducted.

Table 18

Differences between Female and Male Students in the Frequency of Out-of-Class Activities

		<i>n</i>	Mean rank	Mean Dif.	<i>p</i>
newspaper	Female	177	117,08	M > F	.029
	Male	68	138,41		
	Total	245			
video games	Female	177	100,74	M > F	.000
	Male	68	180,93		
	Total	245			
games that require speaking	Female	177	103,45	M > F	.000
	Male	68	173,90		
	Total	245			
games that require reading	Female	177	102,81	M > F	.000
	Male	68	175,55		
	Total	245			
games that require listening	Female	177	101,52	M > F	.000
	Male	68	178,91		
	Total	245			
vlogs	Female	177	128,31	F > M	.048
	Male	68	109,19		
	Total	245			

As evident in Table 18, males report reading newspapers and playing video games of all types significantly more compared to females; while females report watching vlogs significantly more compared to males. It is worth emphasizing that overall, males report conducting more out-of-class activities than females.

Research question 8a: ELT students' views about the possible relationship between gender and doing out-of-class activities. All of the interviewees who were asked about the differences between males and females were of the opinion that males report conducting more activities out of the classroom as a result of their hobbies and gaming habits.

The interview results revealed that males get exposed to various types of out-of-class activities as a result of their diverse hobbies. They play games, watch videos on different topics and tend to read about politics more compared to females:

Males have more diverse hobbies compared to females. I have many male friends who watch basketball videos in English or play games online. (P2, a fourth year female student)

Especially playing games is a major reason why males do more out-of-class activities compared to females. Males play a lot of games where they have to follow a story in English, games where they have to talk to people in English, and games that offer instructions in English. They read, write, listen to and speak in English. Many interview participants attributed the results to the fact that males tend to play a lot of games:

Males characteristically play games. When they play games, they have to speak or write in English and so, they use English more. (P2)

Finally, males do not like studying as much as females do. Females do much more planned studying, goal-setting and self-monitoring (Bidjerano, 2005). Compared to these planned studying methods, males prefer learning through different environments:

For males, I believe they are not as into studying in a traditional way as females. Because of this, they are more inclined to learn English through games that they play online, than studying like females. (P1)

An interesting finding of this study was that the only out-of-class activity that girls report conducting significantly more compared to males is watching vlogs. Most of the interviewees agreed that it is because watching vlogs is a common activity among many young girls in Turkey:

I watch vlogs, as well. For example, I watch vlogs of famous Youtubers. I think many girls watch vlogs to learn how to do make up or to follow fashion like me. (P1, a fourth year female student)

Girls watch a lot of vlogs these days. It started with Turkish vloggers. After that, foreign vloggers became popular, too. (P4)

It is apparent that this is a trend that started with Turkish people who became popular on Youtube. Girls started watching these Youtubers who post videos on fashion, make-up and record their daily lifestyle (vlogs). With this trend, girls started watching foreign Youtube celebrities. There are many reasons why females watch vlogs of Youtube celebrities:

I watch vlogs of famous Youtubers. They talk about make-up and fashion and they also give fashion tips and teach females how to apply make-up. (P1)

As can be understood, girls watch vlogs to follow celebrities' fashion and make-up tips. Lastly, they also report watching vlogs to follow famous people's videos about their daily lives:

I watch a famous celebrity's vlogs (...) It is a very different lifestyle. She is rich, her house and lifestyle is so different from ours. It is really fun to watch her. (P4)

The findings of this study regarding genders are in line with Sundqvist's (2009) findings. She also found that males in Sweden do more activities outside the classroom compared to females. This indicates that generally, boys spend more time on out-of-class activities compared to girls. This results from males' diverse hobbies. The activities that males and females do out of the classroom are not similar (Sylvén, 2004). This difference leads them to spend their time doing different activities. The activities that males like doing (such as playing games) enable them to get exposed to English more than females.

Research Question 9: Differences between first and fourth year students in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities

To examine the differences between first and fourth year students in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The differences are presented in Table 19 and Table 20 below.

Table 19

Differences between First and Fourth Year Students in the Frequency of Out-of-Class Activities

		<i>n</i>	Mean rank	Mean Dif.	<i>p</i>
Books and texts	1	130	134,62	1 > 4	.004
	4	115	109,86		
	Total	245			
Video games	1	130	136,94	1 > 4	.001
	4	115	107,24		
	Total	245			
Games that require speaking	1	130	134,05	1 > 4	.007
	4	115	110,51		
	Total	245			
Games that require reading	1	130	137,38	1 > 4	.001
	4	115	106,74		
	Total	245			
Games that require listening	1	130	139,76	1 > 4	.000
	4	115	104,05		
	Total	245			
English TV series and movies	1	130	130,18	1 > 4	.039
	4	115	114,88		
	Total	245			
Vlogs	1	130	133,11	1 > 4	.013
	4	115	111,57		
	Total	245			
Songs	1	130	129,40	1 > 4	.035
	4	115	115,77		
	Total	245			

As evident in Table 19, first year students report reading books and texts, playing games of all types, watching TV series and movies, watching vlogs and listening to songs significantly more than fourth year students.

Table 20

Differences between First and Fourth Year Students in the Frequency of English and Technology Use in Daily Life

		<i>n</i>	Mean rank	Mean Dif.	<i>p</i>
Seeking opportunities	1	130	137,15		
	4	115	107,01	1 > 4	.000
	Total	245			
Using phone in English	1	130	130,90		
	4	115	114,07	1 > 4	.050
	Total	245			
Using computer in English	1	130	131,28		
	4	115	113,64	1 > 4	.043
	Total	245			

As can be seen, first year students report using English significantly more overall in their life compared to fourth year students. They scored higher for all the items concerning English use in daily life (seeking opportunities to use English, using phone in English and using computer in English).

Research question 9a: ELT students' views about the possible relationship between year of study and doing out-of-class activities. When the interviewees were asked about why first year students might report doing more out-of-class activities, there were several reasons that were proposed by them. Firstly, fourth year participants indicated that they are all very busy because of their studies, especially since many of them are taking different exams to find a job:

Personally, as I am usually preparing for the public servant selection exam in my free time, I cannot focus on any other thing. I cannot work on my vocabulary skills. When we were first year students, we had plenty of time for things like this but now, we have a lot going on. (P1)

Especially in the Turkish context, the exams that these students are taking are of high importance for their future. It is common for these students to only focus on studying and forget about their hobbies in this process. Therefore, even if they want to do more out-of-class

activities, they may not have time for such activities. Apart from exams, they have many other tasks that keep them busy:

We have exams and we are also doing our internship at the same time. (P1)

Another reason why first year students do more out-of-class activities is because they are more excited about English and their department in general, compared to fourth year students:

As I just started my department, I am more eager to learn about everything, English is in every part of my life. As first years, it is easier for us to allocate time for our hobbies, and we try to integrate English in our free time as much as possible. (P2)

It might also be argued that fourth year students feel more competent in English so they are not as inclined to do out-of-class activities as first year students:

Fourth year students may feel more competent in English, so, they are probably not as eager as us. (P2)

As can be seen, these reasons are actually interrelated. As fourth year students feel more competent in English, they do not feel as eager as first year students to do out-of-class activities, so they do these activities less compared to first year students.

Lastly, being younger may be one of the factors that lead first year students to do more activities outside the classroom. As they are younger, first year students feel more competent in technology, and they may integrate technology into their life more compared to last year students:

We are more inclined to do out-of-class activities as we use technology more. We are younger; we were born right into technology. We use computers more; we play more games on the computer, we, as a generation, are better at technology. (P3)

The interview results also reveal a limitation of the questionnaire. As the questionnaire has too many items concerning technology, participants who are not interested in technology

accordingly appear to do less out-of-class activities, even if they may actually be doing more activities that do not concern technology use. Furthermore, items regarding gaming appear to affect the results heavily. As there were four questions regarding games (video games, games that require reading, games that require listening, games that require speaking), if a student did not play any games, they reported to never doing any of these items, which meant a lower score for them. As first year students have more time; are younger; and thus, play more games.

Summary

This chapter introduced the findings and discussions of the 9 main research questions of this study. The quantitative and qualitative results were analyzed under different headings for each research question. After that, the discussion of the results was presented with reference to the literature.

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Implications

Introduction

This chapter offers a brief summary of the study. Firstly, aim, methodology and main findings of the study are summarized. Afterwards, conclusions are drawn in relation to findings. Finally, implications are discussed and some suggestions for further research are provided.

Summary of the study

Aim. This study was designed to investigate the out-of-class activities that ELT students prefer doing. It aimed to investigate the extent to which students do different out-of-class activities (such as reading books, playing games and watching TV series). It also aimed to explore possible relationship between out-of-class activities and students' perceptions of their English competence and their beliefs regarding the importance of English in daily life. The study also attempted to reveal whether there are relationships between out-of-class activities and vocabulary knowledge, gender and year of study.

In relation to these aims, this study focused on the following research questions:

- RQ1: What are ELT students' perceptions of their English competence?
- RQ2: What are ELT students' views about the importance of English in their daily lives?
- RQ3: What out-of-class activities do ELT students report doing frequently and infrequently?
- RQ4: What are ELT students' vocabulary levels?
- RQ5: What out-of-class activities significantly correlate with perceived English competence?

- RQ5a: Do students with different perceived English competence significantly differ in the frequency of out-of-class activities?
- RQ6: What out-of-class activities significantly correlate with participants' beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives?
 - RQ6a: Do students with different beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives significantly differ in the frequency of out-of-class activities?
- RQ7: Are there significant differences between learners with different vocabulary knowledge levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities?
- RQ8: Are there significant differences between female and male learners in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities?
 - RQ8a: What are ELT students' views about the possible relationship between gender and doing out-of-class activities?
- RQ9: Are there significant differences between first and fourth year students in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities?
 - RQ9a: What are ELT students' views about the possible relationship between year of study and doing out-of-class activities?

Summary of methodology. The present study implemented survey methodology through which qualitative and quantitative data were collected. The sample consisted of 130 first year and 115 fourth year ELT students. The students were from two different state universities in Turkey. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 34. The average age of the students was 21 ($SD = 2.26$). The quantitative data were gathered by a questionnaire and Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT). The questionnaire included questions about students' age, gender, year of study and questions that asked them to rate how often they do each out-of-class activity out of 5. After the implementation of the questionnaire, follow-up interviews were conducted to gain more insight into the quantitative results. For the interviews, 5 volunteer students were selected

based on their vocabulary levels, gender, year of study; and their out-of-class activity frequency.

Summary of the main findings. The present study sought to answer 9 main research questions. The questions with similar focuses are categorized and the main findings of the study are presented below under 6 main headings.

Students' perceived English competence and perceived importance of English in their daily lives. The aim of the first research question was to explore how ELT students perceive their own English competence and the second research question aimed to explore ELT students' views about the importance of English in their daily lives. The results regarding their perceptions of their English competence showed that the majority of Turkish ELT students believed that their English was very good but there was still room for improvement, while the number of students who believed that their English was fairly good and at a native level were fewer. With respect to their attitudes towards English, most of them reported that English is important in their daily lives, whereas few students reported English was very important in their daily life.

Out-of-class activities that are done frequently and infrequently. The third research question aimed to investigate the out-of-class activities that Turkish students report doing frequently and infrequently. The results showed that the activities Turkish students reported doing frequently were listening to songs and watching TV series and movies. These were followed by surfing on English websites, watching vlogs in English and following English forums and blogs. The activities that they reported doing infrequently were playing video games that require speaking, using computer in English and reading English newspapers. It is important to emphasize that the most frequent activities that participants report doing are all receptive activities, in which they remain passive. In the same line with this finding, the

activities that they reported doing the least frequently were mostly productive activities that required the participants to speak or write.

Vocabulary levels of the participants. The fourth research question aimed to explore vocabulary levels of Turkish ELT students. Of the 5 word frequency levels in VLT (i.e. 2000, 3000, 4000, 5000 and 6000), the results revealed that the majority of the participants ($N = 121$) were at 5000 word level. A small number of students ($N = 43$) were at 4000 word level, and very few students were at 2000 ($N = 29$), 3000 ($N = 29$) and 6000 ($N = 23$) levels.

The relationship between out-of-class English activities and perceived competence. The fifth research question aimed to measure the relationship between out-of-class activities and perceived English competence. Out of 19 items, a weak positive correlation was found between perceived competence and 16 activities.

To further understand the relationship between out-of-class activities and perceived English competence, the differences between students with different perceived English competence in the frequency of out-of-class activities were measured. The results revealed that there were no significant differences between students who believe that their English was very good and the other two levels (fairly good and native level). However, significant differences were found between students who reported to be at fairly good and native levels. It was revealed that students who believed that they are at a native level do the majority of the activities significantly more compared to students who believe their English is fairly good. No significant differences were detected in 6 items: out-of-class gaming of all types and watching TV series and movies outside the classroom.

Out-of-class English and the importance of English in students' daily lives. The sixth research question investigated the correlation between out-of-class activities and students' beliefs about the importance of English in daily life. The results showed that there

was a weak correlation between students' beliefs about the importance of English in their daily lives and all the out-of-class activities except for playing games in general and playing games that require listening.

The sub-question for the sixth research question (RQ6a) aimed to find the differences between students with different beliefs about the importance of English in daily life in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. Significant differences were detected between students who believe English is important in their daily lives and students who believe English is not important in their daily lives. Participants who believe English is important in daily life reported playing more games, watching more TV series and movies and speaking in English in daily life more compared to participants who believe English is not important.

Differences between vocabulary levels, gender and year of study. The seventh research question aimed to reveal the differences between learners with different vocabulary knowledge levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. Students who were at 2000 level did not statistically differ from students at other levels. The interview results showed that there might be two main reasons for this. Firstly, the English used in out-of-class environments is generally colloquial, and therefore, might not include high-frequency vocabulary. Secondly, learning new words through out-of-class activities might take a long time. Therefore, the participants in this study might not have been doing these activities long enough to learn significantly more words than students who do not do out-of-class activities.

The eighth research question aimed to investigate the differences between male and female learners in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. The results showed that newspapers and playing video games that require reading, listening and speaking significantly more compared to females whereas females reported watching vlogs significantly more compared to male participants. Overall, males reported doing more out-of-class activities

compared to females. Interview results revealed that the first reason why males reported doing more out-of-class activities is that males have more diverse hobbies compared to females, which might lead them to do more activities outside the classroom. Especially playing games was a major reason why males were found to do significantly more out-of-class activities. Lastly, according to the interviewees, males generally do not like traditional planned studying methods. Unlike females, they prefer learning through different environments, such as using games, computers and mobile phones to learn English. Interestingly, females reported watching significantly more vlogs compared to males. Several reasons were proposed to explain this finding during the interviews. Firstly, interviewees reported that watching vlogs is a common activity among young girls in Turkey which became a trend with the influence of some popular Turkish public figures, such as vloggers or Youtubers. Another point that was brought up was that females watch vlogs to learn about famous peoples' tips on fashion and make up, and to follow celebrities' daily lives.

Lastly, ninth research question was concerned with the differences between first and fourth year students in the frequency of out-of-class activities. It was revealed that, compared to fourth year students, first year students reported doing 7 activities significantly more: reading books and texts, playing games of all types, watching TV series and movies, watching vlogs and listening to songs. Interviews revealed that there are various reasons for this. First, fourth year students reported that they have a great deal to do as a result of their exams, internship and busy schedule. They cannot allocate time for their hobbies or out-of-class activities. Another point was that first year students are new and excited about their department, so they might conduct a lot of out-of-class activities whereas fourth year students might be feeling more competent in English so they might not tend to do out-of-class activities very often. Another reason was that first year students are more competent in

technology, so they might be using it more and therefore conduct more out-of-class activities compared to fourth year students.

Conclusions and Implications

In this section, conclusions will be drawn in relation to findings. These conclusions will be presented under the same headings presented in the section above. After the presentation of the conclusion, implications will be discussed.

Students' Perceived English Competence and Perceived Importance of English in their daily lives. The findings of this study revealed that ELT students do not have a very high perception of their English competence. The majority of the participants in this study stated that their English is good but they still have room for improvement. The major issue regarding this finding is that these students are future teachers of English. They are trained to teach English to different learner groups. Such a task demands a high level of self-perceived competence and self-efficacy. When teachers do not have high self-perceived competence, they might experience some relevant problems when they start teaching English. Another point to discuss is that language competence is interrelated with self-efficacy. When learners have high self-efficacy, their English competence is likely to improve (Mahyuddin et al., 2006). For these reasons, it is apparent that the perceptions of these students regarding their English competence need to be increased. Their negative perceived language competence could be attributed to various reasons. As Uztosun (2017) revealed, ELT students in Turkey feel dissatisfied with their English competence, especially with speaking, regardless of their university entrance exam results and the universities that they were placed into. He reasoned that this is caused by their high school education. As there is a heavy focus on grammar instruction, students feel a deficiency in other language skills, therefore they do not feel competent enough in the language. Therefore, program developers and policy makers should take this into account and revise the English education program in middle school and high

school levels to teach and test all four skills, instead of focusing solely on grammar. As Uztosun (2017) suggested, ELT program also needs to be revised to include lessons that focus on enhancing students' competences in all areas.

Regarding the importance of English in daily life, it was found that the majority of ELT students in this study believe that it is important in their lives. What is interesting is that most participants preferred to state that it is only "important" instead of saying it is "very important". This finding might indicate that they do not give sufficient importance to English. In the same line as the findings regarding their self-perceived competence, this finding has important implications about the attitudes of Turkish ELT students towards English. Having positive attitudes towards the language is important in increasing learning success, whereas negative attitudes may impede language learning (Brown, 2007). Therefore, changing their beliefs about the importance of English is important. To do that, it is essential to understand the reasons why they do not regard English as highly important in their daily life. One reason might be the Turkish education system, as mentioned in the previous section, which focuses too much on grammar and ignores other aspects of English. Students do not have enough chances to use English for different purposes in their daily lives; therefore they do not realize its importance. To overcome this issue, program developers may revise the English programs in primary and high schools to shift its focus from the grammatical features of English to its functional use in daily life. This way, students may learn to use English more effectively in their daily lives and have more positive beliefs regarding its importance. Another implication that can be drawn is about the importance placed on English in Turkey. As mentioned, functional use of English is not integrated enough into daily life in Turkey. TV series and movies, TV programs and many other English platforms presented in the media are dubbed instead of being subtitled. In such a case, Turkish people do not get exposed to the language enough and therefore do not develop positive attitudes towards the language. As such, these

facts should be taken into consideration. It could be also useful to encourage students to use English in their daily lives as this could lead to increased importance given to English.

Out-of-class activities. The present study demonstrated that Turkish students mostly reported doing receptive out-of-class activities; such as listening to music, watching television, visiting English websites on the internet, watching vlogs and following English blogs and forums; whereas they do not do productive out-of-class activities such as speaking in English in daily life and playing games that require speaking in English very often.

An analysis of these result led to several important implications. Firstly, it is apparent that doing productive activities is a need for Turkish ELT students in and out of the classroom. English lessons in middle school and high schools do not present enough chances for them to speak in English, and they report feeling anxious whenever they need to speak in English (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Paker & Höl, 2012). The same could also be proposed for writing. As they do not have the chance to practice their productive skills, they might feel anxious and may be unsuccessful whenever they are faced with an activity that requires them to speak or write. Moreover, as the findings of the present study show, they do not compensate for this need out of the classroom as well. There are several implications to be made regarding this finding. Firstly, in the same vein as the sections above, a revision of the English education program in Turkey on primary and high school levels to include more productive activities may help to get them feel more comfortable in their language skills. Therefore, they may feel more reluctant to integrate these skills in their daily lives. Secondly, new courses may be designed in the ELT program in Turkey to develop pre-service students' productive skills. These courses may only focus on speaking and developing students' fluency, and may be tested based solely on students' productive skills. Teachers', policy makers', program developers' and different stakeholders' cooperation to design such a course is important in

that respect. To ensure all of these issues, it is important that students are encouraged to do out-of-class activities that require using productive skills.

Vocabulary levels of the participants. The present study revealed that the majority of ELT students are at 5000 word level. Although 5000 level is high, for a pre-service English teacher, this level should be increased. As Nation (2006) points out, ELT students need to know 6,000-7,000 words for listening and 8,000-9,000 words for reading.

These findings emphasize the need for a better vocabulary education in English education programs in Turkey. Especially for ELT students, it is clear that there is a need for special vocabulary teaching. In that respect, vocabulary instruction should not be disregarded in the ELT program. Vocabulary related to different areas should be taught within the ELT program to foster students' vocabulary knowledge. In doing that, out-of-class activities should be incorporated into the lessons as well so that students may have a chance to get exposed to different words used in different contexts, and so that their learning is more lasting. Lastly, it is worth noting that the "Lexicology" course offered within the ELT program in Turkey has been removed in the latest revision of the program in 2018 (Yaman, 2018). It is apparent with the findings of this study that this may not be a good revision. Policy makers should take into account the fact that ELT students need to improve their vocabulary knowledge and consider adding a relevant course into the program.

Out-of-class English activities and perceived competence. The present study revealed that there is a positive correlation between students' perceived self-competence and the majority of out-of-class activities, except for watching TV series and movies, watching English TV channels and using phone in English. It was also revealed that students who believe that they are at a native level do the most of out-of-class activities significantly more compared to students who believe their English is fairly good.

These findings underline the importance of out-of-class activities on raising students' self-perceived competence. Accordingly, ELT students may be encouraged to do more out-of-class activities so that they have more positive perceptions towards their English competence.

Out-of-class English and the importance of English in students' daily lives. This study showed that there was positive weak a correlation between students' beliefs about the importance of English and a majority of out-of-class activities. Moreover, participants who believe English is important in daily life reported playing more games, watching more TV series and movies and speaking in English in daily life more compared to participants who believe English is not important.

These findings reveal that doing out-of-class activities is related to importance attached to English outside the class. It could be discussed that doing out-of-class activities help students develop positive attitudes towards English, and vice versa. Therefore, increasing students' perceived importance of English might result in doing more out-of-class activities or encouraging them to do out-of-class activities might allow for increasing their perceptions of the importance of English in their daily lives.

Differences between vocabulary levels, gender and year. This study showed that students on 2000 word-frequency level were not found to be significantly different from students on other word-frequency levels in doing out-of-class activities. It was also revealed that males generally report doing more out-of-class activities compared to girls. Finally, first year students reported doing more out-of-class activities compared to fourth year students.

Several implications can be drawn from these findings when the reasons behind the differences between different vocabulary levels, genders and grades are considered. Firstly, to acquire vocabulary, as the participants in this study revealed, learners may need to do out-of-class activities for a long time. Therefore, learners need to be encouraged to integrate out-of-

class activities into their daily lives as frequently as possible instead of doing such activities from time to time. Teachers may motivate their students to do their daily hobbies in English, such as following the news in English daily, watching sports in English or setting the language of the games that they play to English. It is important to note that the important point is not the out-of-class activity but the extent to which these activities activate students' language competence. Consequently, students' inner factors may play a role in how effective an out-of-class activity is. In this respect, doing an out-of-class activity purposefully might be more helpful. These activities may become more useful if students are given a task as part of a course or as an assignment. For example, they might be asked to watch a movie and discuss about the characters the next day in the classroom or they might write a paper about the movie. As such, ELT program in Turkey should integrate out-of-class activities into its program so that students do these activities with a clear purpose and benefit more from them.

Secondly, there is a clear distinction between two genders in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. Males have diverse hobbies that entail getting exposed to or using English. Therefore, it is clear that gender is an important factor that determines the frequency of doing out-of-class activities. Consequently, females should be informed about the different type of activities that they can do out of the language classroom to increase their English competence.

Finally, the difference between first year students and fourth year students in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities highlights an important implication. It is apparent that fourth year students do not have time for hobbies as they are exceptionally busy. Their busyness stems from all of the exams that they have to take to secure a job, their practicum and their ongoing lessons. For this reason, they report spending almost all of their free time studying. This shows that other than students' own will, the frequency of doing out-of-class activities also depends on some external factors. In view of this, it could be said that Turkish

education system has adverse effects on students. Instead of spending their time on activities that can develop their language skills, students spend almost all of their spare time studying for a single exam. However, studying for these kinds of exams is generally thought not to influence students' four skills. Such a system encourages students to learn English in an isolated and mechanical way, far from the way it is used in real life. In contrast, out-of-class activities provide environments in which students can get exposed to and use English as it is used in real life. In this respect, there is a clear need for a revision in the Turkish education system. Fourth year students' tasks may be decreased and their exam system may be revised so that they have time to develop hobbies in English. This way, they can have a chance to learn English in more communicative environments.

Methodological implications. This study focused on the out-of-class activities and the relationship between the frequency of doing these activities and some factors such as vocabulary, perceived English competence, perceived importance given to English, gender, and year of study in the Turkish context. To better understand the relationship between these variables, more studies need to be conducted in different contexts. This study included ELT students from two medium-ranked state universities in Turkey. To further confirm these results, studies should be conducted in different universities with different rankings and to students other than ELT department students.

The findings of this study revealed that there were no significant differences in vocabulary knowledge between students who do out-of-class activities frequently and students who do not do these activities frequently. However, this finding contradicts with the results of some studies in the literature (e.g. Guo, 2011; Sundqvist, 2009). Therefore, further studies need to be conducted to gain more insight into the relationship between these two variables. An important point to note here is that this study focused only on the vocabulary knowledge of learners. Alternative studies that focus on different aspects of vocabulary (e.g.

vocabulary breadth and depth) could reveal more information about the relationship between these variables.

The present study only focused on the relationship between out-of-class activities and vocabulary, perceived English competence, perceived importance given to English, gender, and year of study. It did not deal with many other language skills such as speaking, listening, pronunciation and grammar competence, and other demographic factors. Therefore, further studies focused on these factors could provide valuable insight about the features of out-of-class activities.

There might be different out-of-class activities that were not included in the scope of this study. Therefore, alternative studies that focus on different activities might be conducted in further research.

Finally, studies that implement data collection tools other than questionnaire and interviews (such as diary and narrative inquiry) are needed to be conducted. Furthermore, there is no scale developed to measure out-of-class activities that are done by learners of English. Scales should be developed to measure this concept in a valid and reliable way.

To conclude, further studies that focus on different aspects of different out-of-class activities in different contexts are needed to better understand the issue of out-of-class learning and its characteristics.

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Appendices



Appendix A: Questionnaire

Sınıf Dışı Yürütülen İngilizce Aktivite Sıklığı ve Kelime Bilgisi Üzerine bir Araştırma

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu pilot anket çalışması öğrencilerin sınıf dışı dil gelişimlerini inceleyen bir yüksek lisans tez çalışması için hazırlanmıştır. Anket 25 sorudan oluşmaktadır. Anket bitiminde 50 soruluk bir kelime testi bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışma gönüllülük esasına göredir. Kabul edip devam etmeniz halinde elde edilen bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçlar için kullanılacak ve üçüncü kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Ankete vereceğiniz cevaplar çalışmanın doğruluğunu etkileyeceğinden içtenlikle cevap vermeniz önemlidir. Lütfen çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katıldığınızı belirtmek için aşağıdaki kutucuğu işaretleyiniz.

Çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

Merve Cengizhan

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A. Kişisel Bilgiler

1. Yaş: _____

2. Cinsiyet:

- Kız
 Erkek

3. Üniversite: _____

4. Sınıf: _____

5. Şu anki İngilizce seviyenizi en iyi tanımlayan cümleyi seçiniz.

- İngilizcem oldukça zayıf ve büyük ölçüde ilerletmem gerekiyor.
 İngilizcem orta seviyede ve hala öğrenmem gereken çok şey var.
 İngilizcem iyi ama hala eksikliklerim var.
 İngilizcem anadil seviyesinde veya bu seviyeye yakın.

6. Sınıf dışında, günlük hayatınızda İngilizce ne derecede önemli?

- Çok önemli: Her gün bir sürü farklı ortamda İngilizce kullanıyorum.
 Önemli: Sık sık farklı durumlarda İngilizce kullanıyorum.
 Çok önemli değil: Sadece ara sıra İngilizce kullanıyorum.
 Hiç önemli değil: Sınıf dışında hiç İngilizce kullanmıyorum.

B. Sınıf dışı genel İngilizce kullanımı

Lütfen aşağıdaki aktiviteleri hangi sıklıkla İngilizce dilinde yürüttüğünüzü belirtiniz.

B	Sınıf dışı aktivite	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Her zaman
1	İngilizce kitap veya yazılar okuyorum (hikaye, roman, akademik kitap, makale vb.).					
2	İngilizce gazete okuyorum (bilgisayar üzerinden ya da basılmış)					
3	İngilizce video oyunları oynuyorum.					
4	İngilizce konuşmamı gerektiren oyunlar oynuyorum.					
5	İngilizce okumamı gerektiren oyunlar oynuyorum.					
6	İngilizce dinlememi gerektiren oyunlar oynuyorum.					
7	Sosyal, iş veya akademik çeşitli amaçlarla İngilizce kullanıyorum.					
8	İngilizce dizi ve filmler izliyorum.					
9	İngilizce televizyon izliyorum.					
10	Günlük hayatta İngilizce kullanmak ve geliştirebilmek için fırsat arıyorum.					
11	İngilizce vlog (video blog) izliyorum.					
12	İngilizce şarkı dinliyorum.					
13	İngilizce podcast (yayımlar) veya radyo programları dinliyorum.					
14	Günlük hayatımda İngilizce konuşuyorum (yabancı arkadaşlarımla, sınıf arkadaşlarımla vb.)					
15	İnternette İngilizce web sitelerinde geziniyorum.					
16	İnternette İngilizce forum ve blog sitelerini takip ediyorum.					
17	Cep telefonumu İngilizce kullanıyorum.					
18	Bilgisayarımı İngilizce kullanıyorum.					
19	Çok gerekli olmadıkça İngilizce kullanmaktan kaçınıyorum.					

Appendix B: Vocabulary Levels Test

Kelime Seviyesi Testi

Bu bir kelime testidir. Kelimelerle doğru tanımları eşleştiriniz. Doğru kelimenin numarasını tanımın yanına yazınız. Aşağıda bir örnek gösterilmiştir.

1 business		1 business	
2 clock	___ part of a house	2 clock	<u>6</u> part of a house
3 horse	___ animal with four legs	3 horse	<u>3</u> animal with four legs
4 pencil	___ something used for writing	4 pencil	<u>4</u> something used for writing
5 shoe		5 shoe	
6 wall		6 wall	

Bazı kelimeler zorluğu arttırmak için verilmiştir. Bu kelimeleri eşleştirebileceğiniz bir tanım bulunmamaktadır. Yukarıdaki örnekte bu kelimeler business, clock ve shoe olarak verilmiştir.

Eğer kelimelerin anlamları hakkında hiçbir fikriniz yoksa tahmin etmeye çalışmayınız. Eğer kelimenin anlamını üstünkörü bilebileceğinizi düşünüyorsanız, cevabı bulmaya çalışabilirsiniz.

The 2000 Word Level

1	1 copy 2 event ___ end or highest 3 motor ___ this moves a car 4 pity ___ thing made to be like another 5 profit 6 tip	2	1 accident 2 debt ___ loud deep sound 3 fortune ___ something you must pay 4 pride ___ having a high opinion of yourself 5 roar 6 thread
3	1 coffee 2 disease ___ money for work 3 justice ___ a piece of clothing 4 stage ___ using the law in the right way 5 skirt 6 wage	4	1 arrange 2 develop ___ grow 3 lean ___ put in order 4 owe ___ like more than something else 5 prefer 6 seize
5	1 clerk 2 frame ___ a drink 3 noise ___ office worker 4 respect ___ unwanted sound 5 theater 6 wine	6	1 blame 2 elect ___ make 3 jump ___ choose by voting 4 threaten ___ become like water 5 melt 6 manufacture
7	1 dozen 2 empire ___ chance 3 gift ___ twelve 4 tax ___ money paid to the	8	1 ancient 2 curious ___ very old 3 difficult ___ not easy 4 entire ___ related to God

	5 relief 6 opportunity	government		5 holy 6 social
9	1 admire 2 complain 3 fix 4 hire 5 introduce 6 stretch	___ make wider or longer ___ bring in for the first time ___ have a high opinion of someone		10 1 slight 2 bitter 3 lovely 4 merry 5 popular 6 independent

The 3000 Word Level

11	1 bull 2 champion 3 dignity 4 hell 5 museum 6 solution	___ formal and serious manner ___ winner of a sporting event ___ building where valuable objects are shown		12 1 muscle 2 counsel 3 factor 4 hen 5 lawn 6 atmosphere
13	1 blanket 2 contest 3 generation 4 merit 5 plot 6 vacation	___ holiday ___ good quality ___ wool covering used on beds		14 1 abandon 2 dwell 3 oblige 4 pursue 5 quote 6 resolve
15	1 comment 2 gown 3 import 4 nerve 5 pasture 6 tradition	___ long formal dress ___ goods from a foreign country ___ part of the body which carries feeling		16 1 assemble 2 attach 3 peer 4 quit 5 scream 6 toss
17	1 pond 2 angel 3 frost 4 herd 5 fort 6 administration	___ group of animals ___ spirit who serves God ___ managing business and affairs		18 1 drift 2 endure 3 grasp 4 knit 5 register 6 tumble
19	1 brilliant 2 distinct 3 magic 4 naked 5 slender 6 stable	___ thin ___ steady ___ without clothes		20 1 aware 2 blank 3 desperate 4 normal 5 striking 6 supreme

Academic Vocabulary

21	1 area 2 contract 3 definition 4 evidence	___ written agreement ___ way of doing something ___ reason for believing		22 1 adult 2 vehicle 3 exploitation 4 infrastructure
				___ machine used to move people or goods ___ end

	5 method 6 role	something is true or not true		5 termination ___list of things to do at certain times 6 schedule
23	1 debate 2 exposure ___ plan 3 integration ___ choice 4 option ___ joining something into a 5 scheme whole 6 stability		24	1 alter 2 coincide ___ change 3 deny ___ say something is not true 4 devote ___ describe clearly and exactly 5 release 6 specify
25	1 access 2 gender ___ male or female 3 psychology ___ study of the mind 4 licence ___ entrance or way in 5 orientation 6 implementation		26	1 correspond 2 diminish ___ keep 3 emerge ___ match or be in agreement with 4 highlight ___ give special attention to 5 invoke something 6 retain
27	1 edition 2 accumulation ___ collecting things over time 3 guarantee ___ promise to repair a broken 4 media product 5 motivation ___ feeling a strong reason or 6 phenomenon need to do something		28	1 bond 2 channel ___ make smaller 3 estimate ___ guess the number or size of 4 identify something 5 mediate ___ recognizing and naming a 6 minimize person or a thing
29	1 explicit 2 final ___ last 3 negative ___ stiff 4 professional ___ meaning "no" or "not" 5 rigid 6 sole		30	1 abstract 2 adjacent ___ next to 3 neutral ___ concerning the whole world 4 global ___ added to 5 controversial 6 supplementary
The 5000 Word Level				
31	1 analysis 2 curb ___ eagerness 3 gravel ___ loan to buy a house 4 mortgage ___ small stones mixed with sand 5 scar 6 zeal		32	1 artillery 2 creed ___ a kind of tree 3 hydrogen 4 maple ___ a system of belief 5 pork ___ large gun on wheels 6 streak
33	1 cavalry 2 eve ___ small hill 3 ham ___ day or night before a holiday 4 mound ___ soldiers who fight from 5 steak horse 6 switch		34	1 chart 2 forge ___ map 3 mansion ___ large beautiful house 4 outfit ___ place where metals are made 5 sample and shaped 6 volunteer
35	1 circus 2 jungle ___ musical instrument 3 trumpet ___ seat without a back or arms 4 sermon ___ speech given by a priest in a 5 stool church 6 nomination		36	1 revive 2 extract ___ think about deeply 3 gamble ___ bring back to health 4 launch ___ make someone angry 5 provoke 6 contemplate

<p>37</p> <p>1 shatter 2 embarrass ___ have a rest 3 heave ___ break suddenly into small piece 4 obscure ___ 5 demonstrate ___ make someone feel shy or nervous 6 relax</p>	<p>38</p> <p>1 decent 2 frail ___ weak 3 harsh ___ concerning a city 4 incredible ___ difficult to believe 5 municipal 6 specific</p>
<p>39</p> <p>1 correspond 2 embroider ___ exchange letters 3 lurk ___ hide and wait for someone 4 penetrate ___ feel angry about something 5 prescribe 6 resent</p>	<p>40</p> <p>1 adequate 2 internal ___ enough 3 mature ___ fully grown 4 profound ___ alone away from other things 5 solitary 6 tragic</p>

The 10000 Word Level

<p>41</p> <p>1 alabaster 2 tentacle ___ small barrel 3 dogma ___ soft white stone 4 keg ___ tool for shaping wood 5 rasp 6 chandelier</p>	<p>42</p> <p>1 throttle 2 convoy ___ kindness 3 lien ___ set of musical notes 4 octave ___ speed control for an engine 5 stint 6 benevolence</p>
<p>43</p> <p>1 bourgeois 2 brocade ___ middle class people 3 consonant ___ row or level of something 4 prelude ___ cloth with a pattern or gold or silver threads 5 stupor 6 tier</p>	<p>44</p> <p>1 scrawl 2 cringe ___ write carelessly 3 immerse ___ move back because of fear 4 peek ___ put something under water 5 contaminate 6 relay</p>
<p>45</p> <p>1 alcove 2 impetus ___ priest 3 maggot ___ release from prison early 4 parole ___ medicine to put on wounds 5 salve 6 vicar</p>	<p>46</p> <p>1 blurt 2 dabble ___ walk in a proud way 3 dent ___ kill by squeezing someone's throat 4 pacify 5 strangle ___ say suddenly without thinking 6 swagger</p>
<p>47</p> <p>1 alkali 2 banter ___ light joking talk 3 coop ___ a rank of British nobility 4 mosaic ___ picture made of small pieces of glass or stone 5 stealth 6 viscount</p>	<p>48</p> <p>1 illicit 2 lewd ___ immense 3 mammoth ___ against the law 4 slick ___ wanting revenge 5 temporal 6 vindictive</p>
<p>49</p> <p>1 dissipate 2 flaunt ___ steal 3 impede ___ scatter or vanish 4 loot ___ twist the body about uncomfortably 5 squirm 6 vie</p>	<p>50</p> <p>1 indolent 2 nocturnal ___ lazy 3 obsolete ___ no longer used 4 torrid ___ clever and tricky 5 translucent 6 wily</p>

Bu anket ile ilgili gönüllü katılımcılarla görüşmeler yapılacaktır. Görüşmeler isteğe göre yüz yüze veya telefon üzerinden yapılacaktır. Görüşmelerde konu ile ilgili genel sorular sorulacaktır ve uzunluğu 10-15 dakika arasında değişecektir. Görüşmelere katılmak isterseniz lütfen aşağıdaki kısmı doldurunuz.

İsim soyisim: _____

E-mail: _____

Cep telefonu: _____

Anket bitmiştir. Katılımlarınız için teşekkür ederim.



Appendix C: Interview Protocol

- I am doing a research study on learning English outside the classroom. This includes any activity in English, such as singing songs, reading books or even using your phone in English.
- Do you think activities like these play a role in improving your English?
 - If so, how and in what ways?
- I focus on vocabulary knowledge in my study.
 - Do you think these activities play a role in increasing vocabulary?
 - If so, how and in what ways?
- For participants at 2000 level:
 - You were found to be at 2000 word level and in my study I found out that students at 2000 report doing out-of-class activities frequently. What might be the reasons behind this?
- For participants at 6000 level:
 - You were found to be at 6000 word level and in my study I found out that students at 6000 do out-of-class activities less compared to other levels. What might be the reasons behind this?
- For male and female participants:
 - You are a male/female and I see that you do out-of-class activities frequently/you do not do out-of-class activities frequently. In my study, I found out that females report doing out-of-class activities less compared to males. What might be the reasons behind this?
- For first and fourth year students:
 - You are a first/fourth year student and I see that you do / you do not do out-of-class activities frequently. The results of my study indicate that first year students do out-of-class activities more. What might be the reasons behind this?

Appendix D: Out-of-Class Activities Participants Reported Doing Frequently and Infrequently

Table 21

Out-of-Class Activities Participants Do Frequently and Infrequently

	M	SD
1 I listen to songs in English.	4.72	.62
2 I watch TV series and movies in English.	4.57	.73
3 I surf on English websites.	3.98	1.05
4 I watch vlogs in English.	3.82	1.22
5 I follow English forums and blogs	3.47	1.14
6 I follow English forums and blogs	3.46	1.31
7 I use my mobile phone in English	3.45	1.63
8 I read books and texts in English	3.41	.97
9 I watch TV channels in English	3.30	1.38
10 I play games that require reading in English	3.09	1.46
11 I listen to English podcasts and radio shows	3.07	1.29
12 I play games that require listening to English	3.04	1.48
13 I play video games in English	2.94	1.52
14 I speak in English in my daily life	2.91	1.10
15 I use my computer in English	2.83	1.67
16 I play games that require speaking in English	2.60	1.49
17 I read English newspapers	2.39	1.13

**Appendix E: Differences between different vocabulary levels in the frequency of doing
out-of-class activities**

Table 22
Differences between 3000 and 6000 levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities

		<i>n</i>	Mean Rank	Mean Dif.	<i>p</i>
Listening to songs	3000 level	29	23.83		
	6000 level	23	29.87	6 > 3	.045
	Total	52			
Listening to podcast and radio	3000 level	29	22.24		
	6000 level	23	31.87	6 > 3	.020
	Total	52			
Reading English newspaper	3000 level	29	21.40		
	6000 level	23	32.93	6 > 3	.005
	Total	52			

Note: 6 = 6000 level, 3 = 3000 level

Table 23
Differences between 4000 and 6000 levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities

		<i>n</i>	Mean Rank	Mean Dif.	<i>p</i>
Reading books and texts	4000 level	43	28.94		
	6000 level	23	42.02	6 > 4	.006
	Total	66			
Playing video games	4000 level	43	30.22		
	6000 level	23	39.63	6 > 4	.050
	Total	66			
Playing games that require speaking	4000 level	43	29.87		
	6000 level	23	40.28	6 > 4	.029
	Total	66			
Playing games that require reading	4000 level	43	29.69		
	6000 level	23	40.63	6 > 4	.024
	Total	66			
Watching vlogs	4000 level	43	30.14		
	6000 level	23	39.78	6 > 4	.044
	Total	66			
Listening to podcasts and radio	4000 level	43	28.83		
	6000 level	23	42.24	6 > 4	.006
	Total	66			
Surfing on English websites	4000 level	43	28.58		
	6000 level	23	42.70	6 > 4	.003
	Total	66			

Note: 6 = 6000 level, 4 = 4000 level

Table 24
Differences between 3000 and 5000 levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities

		<i>n</i>	Mean Rank	Mean. Dif.	<i>p</i>
Reading newspapers	3000 level	29	60.38		
	5000 level	121	79.12	5 > 3	.030
	Total	150			
Seeking opportunities to use English in daily life	3000 level	29	61.09		
	5000 level	121	78.95	5 > 3	.036
	Total	150			

Note: 5 = 5000 level, 3 = 3000 level


Table 25
Differences between 4000 and 5000 levels in the frequency of doing out-of-class activities

		<i>n</i>	Mean Rank	Mean Dif.	<i>p</i>
Reading books and texts	4000 level	43	67.81		
	5000 level	121	87.72	5 > 4	.014
	Total	164			
Seeking opportunities to use English in daily life	4000 level	43	67.08		
	5000 level	121	87.98	5 > 4	.009
	Total	164			
Watching vlogs	4000 level	43	66.70		
	5000 level	121	88.12	5 > 4	.008
	Total	164			
Surfing on English websites	4000 level	43	70.73		
	5000 level	121	86.68	5 > 4	.046
	Total	164			


Note: 5 = 5000 level, 4 = 4000 level

Appendix F:

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T.C.
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığı



12/03/2019

Sayı : 68203582-044-E.1900040529
Konu : Anket izni (Merve CENGİZHAN)

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Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Merve CENGİZHAN'ın, "Sınıf Dışı Aktivitelerin İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Türk Öğrencilerin Kelime Genişliğinin Geliştirilmesi Üzerindeki Rolü" başlıklı araştırması kapsamında Fakültemiz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında öğrenim gören öğrencilere 25-29 Mart 2019 tarihleri arasında anket uygulama istemi Fakültemiz Bilimsel Araştırmaları Değerlendirme Kurulu tarafından incelenmiş ve uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Salih Zeki GENÇ
Dekan

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Appendix G:

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T.C.
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Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığı

Sayı : 14108762-300 -E.140916
Konu : Öğrenci İşleri (Genel)

14/03 2019

Sayın MERVE CENGİZHAN
Şükrüpaşa Mah. Yeni Saray Sok. Elit Yaşam Apt. 13/5
EDİRNE

İlgi : a) 11/03/2019 tarihli ve 504 sayılı yazı,
b) 14/03/2019 tarihli ve 314296 sayılı yazı,

İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı birinci ve son sınıf öğrencilerine anket uygulama isteğiniz uygun görülmüştür.
Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Sevinç SAKARYA MADEN
Dekan

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Telefon: 2842120808 Faks: 2842146279

Bilgi için: Aynur CEYLAN
Unvanı: Şef



bu belge, 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununa göre Güvenli Elektronik İmza ile imzalanmıştır.