EXTRACURRICULAR L2 INPUT IN A JAPANESE EFL CONTEXT: EXPOSURE, ATTITUDES, AND MOTIVATION

MATTHEW BARBEE

University of Hawai'i at Mānoa

ABSTRACT

This study presents empirical data collected from a survey of high-level and low-level, Japanese high school EFL students with a focus on L2 exposure, attitudes, and motivation. Specifically, the purpose of the survey was to determine which sources of L2 input—verbal, written, or mixed (verbal and written)—the students are exposed to outside of the English classroom, how much exposure they had to each source of input, their attitudes and beliefs toward those sources of input, and, in general, how motivated they are toward learning English. Qualitative data were also gathered from English teachers of surveyed participants as well as a focus group of Japanese ESL students used to inform the creation of the survey. The results show that Japanese high school EFL students have much more exposure to some extracurricular sources of English input than to others, including some sources of verbal and mixed (verbal and written) input, with relatively little exposure to extracurricular written English input. It is also shown that the amount of exposure is highly correlated with how enjoyable the students find each source of input. That students are motivated to seek out those sources of English media that they enjoy rather than those they believe would improve their English supports the English media orientation to learning English (Clement et al., 1994). This study extends previous findings to include a Japanese EFL context, provides implications for L2 pedagogy within that context, and calls for further research into the realities of incidental learning in SLA.

INTRODUCTION

Rural Japan, a two-hour flight south of Tokyo, bookended by rice fields and a range of small, hazy mountains, where students shake off their bicycles and a little morning dew as they pour

into their classrooms, provides the backdrop for my study. Today, these students will have classes in math, science, Japanese literature, history, a fine art such as chorus or calligraphy, and English. At this school, English is treated like any other subject, most English teachers use Japanese as the language of instruction, and few foreigners are roaming the countryside. For students, English is not necessary outside the classroom, and most will never travel abroad. Yet, this school and many others like it in Japan are home to students who, according to Japanese standards and anecdotal evidence (Crookes & Schmidt, 2001), excel at English. Perhaps these students are the minority in a country where "the English-speaking abilities of a large percentage of the population are inadequate" (Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology [MEXT], 2002), and yet, we have to ask, in a world that seems almost hostile to English learning, what accounts for the attachment that some learners have to English?

With this paper, I seek to explore the answer to that question as well as present empirical data collected from a survey study of Japanese high school EFL students on which sources of L2 input they are exposed to outside of the English classroom, their attitudes and beliefs toward those sources of input, and, in general, how motivated they are toward learning English. Qualitative data were also gathered from the English teachers of surveyed participants as well as a separate group of Japanese students who were used to inform the creation of the survey. The study shows that Japanese high school EFL students, regardless of language proficiency, have much more exposure to some extracurricular sources of English input than to others, including some sources of verbal and mixed (verbal and written) input, with relatively little exposure to extracurricular written English input. The amount of exposure is also shown to highly correlate with how enjoyable the students rate each source of input. The implication that students are motivated to seek out those sources of English media which they enjoy coupled with the students' reporting that they want to learn English because of their affinity for that media supports Clement, Dornyei, and Noels' (1994) model of English media as an orientation to L2 learning. This study also extends their findings by focusing on a Japanese EFL context, presents further pedagogical implications within that context, and calls for further research into the realities of incidental learning in second language acquisition (SLA).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teachers and researchers trying to answer the question of why one language learner may acquire an L2 at a faster rate and to a better degree than another learner have studied the nature and effects of many factors on SLA, including but not limited to age of acquisition (Ellis & Collins, 2009; Lightbrown & Spada, 1999; Ortega, 2009; Singleton, 2003), learner motivation (Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Csizer & Dornyei, 2005a; Csizer & Dornyei, 2005b; Gardner, 1985, 2001), and exposure to appropriate input (Ellis & Collins, 2009; Krashen, 1985, 2009; Lightbrown & Spada, 1999; Long, 1985, 1996; Moyer, 2009; Piske & Young-Scholten, 2009; Verspoor, Lowie, & de Bot, 2009). While research in each area of SLA have often led to inconclusive and even conflicting results, most L2 learners would argue that the evidence is clear—to learn a second language, one should start learning the language when young, interact with native-speakers within the L2 culture, and be highly motivated to do so. Yet, what is the recourse for language learners who do not fit this profile, namely, most EFL learners? Is language learning for them impossible or, at the very least, will it be slow, arduous, and, in the end, lead only to minute changes in L2 fluency and proficiency? As teachers and researchers, we hope not. Ultimately, for all language learners, questions persist: What age is optimal to learn a second language? What is the best orientation or type of motivation for learning a second language? What type of L2 input is the most effective? For the purposes of this paper, the answers to these questions will focus on research conducted in an EFL context. In looking at each area of interest, age, motivation, and input, from an EFL perspective, research ultimately returns to questions of learners' individual differences, and, regarding differences in ESL and EFL learners, total amount of exposure is often the reasoning behind those differences.

Age

Looking briefly at the effects of age of acquisition on second language learning, Ortega (2009) writes that "although the topic of age has been investigated profusely in SLA, clear or simple answers to vital questions about the relationship between age and L2 learning have not been easy to produce" (p. 12) and "many questions to understand universal age effects on L2 acquisition remain open" (p.12). In early studies in the late-1970s, it was shown that while *older* is better initially, younger learners, during the critical period somewhere between birth and

puberty, retain language skills better in the long run (Ellis & Collins, 2009; Lightbrown & Spada, 1999; Ortega, 2009). This trend in the research is still maintained by some researchers today, and yet, "findings gleaned in foreign language contexts in the last few years have complicated this picture" (Ortega, 2009, p. 17). This can best be illustrated by the work of Singleton (2003, 2005) and Munoz (2006). Singleton (2003) warns researchers to be careful when studying the L2 acquisition of late-learners, saying that these learners should not be compared to nativespeakers' L1 acquisition but rather to other L2 learners who begin in childhood. Following this advice, Munoz (2006), working in an EFL context, reported that older learners had an advantage over the younger learners of English in both speed of acquisition and retention after many years. This difference, found when working in the different contexts, ESL vs. EFL, in regards to age, is that "the same time length of five years entails an intensity and quality of exposure to the L2 that can be radically different in foreign versus second language learning contexts" (Ortega, 2009, p. 17). Ortega's assumption is based on her estimate that over a course of five years ESL learners studying in their L2 environment may have up to 7,000 hours of exposure to English, as opposed to EFL learners, who, studying in their L1 environment, may have only 540 hours of exposure to English in those same five years. Here, it should be noted that Ortega bases this evaluation on the estimated time that ESL/EFL learners would spend in the classroom. The fact that nothing is reported concerning the possibility of exposure to English outside the classroom is one demonstration that further research in the area of extracurricular L2 input is needed. Further, exceptions to both sides of the age coin revolve around learners who have unusually high motivation for learning a language (Lightbrown & Spada, 1999; Ortega, 2009). In most of these cases, students are found in ESL contexts where English is necessary for their livelihood or to maintain their place in society (Lightbrown & Spada, 2009), which is not the case for all EFL students. Overall, critical period research remains contradictory (Munoz, 2005; Ortega, 2009) and more research should be done to understand the relationship between age and L2 exposure in and out of the EFL classroom, as well as individual differences in learner motivation.

Motivation

In discussing motivation, I think it first necessary to wrestle with the question of what is motivation. According to Dornyei (2001), "...there is no such thing as motivation" (p. 1)—rather surprising coming from a man who has spent most of his professional life researching and

writing about motivation. Yet, this problematizing of motivation as a construct is not uncommon. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) precede Dornyei's notion that the concept of motivation is nothing more than an umbrella term used to label an indefinable abstraction. Quoting Crooke's former professor, Crookes and Schmidt write, "the term motivation has been used as 'a general cover term – a dustbin – to include a number of possible distinct concepts, each of which may have different origins and different effects and require different classroom treatment' (MacDonough, 1981)" (p. 471). What is made clear by Dornyei and Crookes is that motivation varies greatly from person to person, in different contexts, and while one is engaged in different activities (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 2001). Yet, regardless of researchers' inability to concretize the construct of motivation, it is clear that most agree that motivation is important to SLA because it is motivation that determines to what extant learners will actively involve themselves in learning a language (Clement et al., 1994; Csizer & Dornyei, 2005a; Csizer & Dornyei, 2005b; Gardner, 1985, 2001) and perhaps "seek out opportunities to learn the language" (Gardner, 1985, p. 56). While some disagree or are unclear on the best type of motivation for facilitating language acquisition (Lightbrown & Spada, 1999; Ortega 2009), most researchers have held that *integrative motivation* "has played the most central role in the development of a theory of foreign language motivation" (Ortega, 2009, p. 170). Defined by Gardner in 1985, "integrative motivation refers to that class of reasons that suggest that the individual is learning a second language in order to learn about, interact with, or become closer to the second language community" (p. 54). Gardner (1985, 2001) even put forth that integrative motivation is the highest form of motivation for learners to acquire an L2, and that attitudes towards learning an L2 are highly correlated with language proficiency, and integrative motivation facilitates second language achievement—in short, integrative motivation leads to success in SLA. However, this supposition may not account for all EFL learners. Indeed, what happens when EFL learners have no L2 language or cultural exposure—when they do not travel abroad, have little personal contact with foreigners, and have no need for an L2 in their L1 culture? Referring to Dornyei's work in 1988, Ortega (2009) suggests that,

integrativeness might have less explanatory power for learners in foreign language contexts ... because they rarely come into personal contact with L2 members. Without contact, they cannot form strong attitudes towards L2 speakers or harbour intense desires of integrating or being 'like them.' (p. 178).

Instead, outside the L2 culture EFL learners may turn to indirect sources of the L2 culture if their motivation to learn the L2 is high (Csizer and Dornyei, 2005b). This idea was first presented by Clement et al. (1994), introducing it as a new orientation for learning a second language. Clement and his associates termed this new orientation the English media orientation, or cultural interest orientation (Csizer and Dornyei, 2005a) because it broadly "reflects the appreciation of cultural products associated with the particular L2 and conveyed by the media" (Csizer and Dornyei, 2005a, p. 21). Csizer and Dornyei give examples of the "cultural products and artifacts" (p. 21) that they include under the umbrella 'media: films, videos, TV programs, pop music, magazines, and books. Further, in a study that Lamb (2004) conducted on the investigation of whether Gardner's integrative motivation has changed in a globalizing world, she asked students in Indonesia (N=219) whether they ever use or are exposed to English at home. Through her interviews, she created a list of extracurricular activities in which students were exposed to English within an Indonesian EFL context. She lists watching TV or video, listening to the radio, listening to songs, reading books or magazines, conversation, studying the language, and using a computer. My study extends this list to include a total of five verbal, five written, and two mixed (verbal and written) sources of L2 media.

Input

Motivation and attention to input are closely linked (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). Input, as defined by Lightbrown and Spada (2006), is "the language that the learner is exposed to in the environment" (p. 201). As Gass (1997) describes, "it is an incontrovertible fact that some sort of input is essential for language learning; clearly, languages cannot be learned in a vacuum. What is controversial is the type and amount of input necessary for second language development" (p. 86), i.e., the *quality* and *quantity*. Because of this dispute, along with the advancement of research into the numerous cases of incidental learning, learning which occurs naturally or without direct instruction (including work by Day & Omura, 1991, d'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999, and Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999), the issue of *total quantity* of input is hardly irrelevant. Of course, while it is admitted that the *quality* (e.g., comprehensible, interesting/relevant, and authentic after Krashen, 1982) of L2 exposure is a separate and critical factor in SLA, investigating quality of input is beyond the scope of this study.

As already mentioned, when looking at learners in an EFL context, researchers have often focused on lack of L2 exposure as a factor behind lower learning speed and achievement in SLA. Amount of exposure to L2 input is certainly an important factor in learners' SLA success (Krashen, 1982; Long, 1985, 1996). That said, while still little research has been conducted on the amount of exposure language learners have to their L2 in the classroom (Duff & Polio, 1990; Kim & Margolis, 2000; Ellis, 2009; MacLeod & Larsson, 2011), even less research has been conducted on the amount of exposure L2 learners have to their L2 in extracurricular environments (MacLeod & Larsson, 2011): "Few of us have a deep or detailed understanding of what providing 'good', 'rich', or 'varied' input entails, and we lack awareness regarding the amount and nature of the input to which learners are exposed outside the classroom" (Piske & Young-Scholten, 2009, p. 16). This 'lack of awareness' is most likely due to the assumption that EFL learners only receive L2 exposure in the classroom. This assumption can be seen throughout the literature. Duff and Polio in 1990 stated that, "In FL learning contexts, because little opportunity exists for exposure to the L2 outside the classroom, the quantity of L2 input is especially important" (p. 158). In 2010, Wang claimed in his online article, "The only place most L2 learners are exposed to the L2 is in the classroom"; Ortega's (2009) similar assumption is mentioned above. While fitting the nature of what is known about EFL environments, this assumption is dangerous, however, because it has led to a lack of research in EFL settings once the learners exit the classroom—data that could potentially lead to a better understanding of input and preference. That is, while learners may not be able to choose the material they are exposed to in the classroom, once they shed those cinderblock restraints, they are free to listen to, read, and surf the sources of L2 input that they prefer. This idea of input and choice and its connection to motivation is well illustrated by Crookes and Schmidt (2001). In their article, they also dispute somewhat the above view that extracurricular L2 input is non-existent in EFL contexts. They write that, "The possibility often exists for [second language] learning to continue beyond the classroom. This applies most obviously to ESL countries, but in many [EFL] countries the target language is available in some way to the learner outside the classroom. Even in those in which there are no speakers of English or other media, learners do have each other" (p. 494). Crookes and Schmidt go on to discuss reported anecdotal evidence of learners in EFL contexts that have somehow acquired English where there is little or no exposure to the contact language outside of the formal setting of the classroom. This informal language

acquisition seems to be tied to a learner's individual motivation (Krashen, 1985; Gardner, 1985). And, according to Crookes and Schmidt, "the link between motivation and learning in informal contexts is due to the importance of opting in or out of opportunities for learning, which is greater than in formal instruction, in which attendance may be forced" (2001, p. 494). In short, choice—when learners have a choice as to what types of input they are exposed to, this exposure will be more directly related to their personal motivations. For this reason, I am especially interested in the connection between exposure to input and motivation, and have made it a central concern of this study.

Even in formal learning settings, however, opportunities for guided exposure to L2 input, that still allow students choice, also exist outside the classroom. One example of this guided learning is extensive reading, which has recently become popular in EFL settings (Stephens, 2011). Citing the advantages of extensive reading in such contexts, Day and Bamford (1998) reveal that extensive reading provides gains in affect, linguistic competence, and writing, with possible improvement in vocabulary and spelling as well. Like extensive reading, extensive listening when done outside of the classroom and purposeful, also leads to benefits for language learners (Gilliland, 2013; Stephens, 2011). In a graduate level course on Teaching Listening and Speaking, Gilliland uses Extensive Listening Logs as one activity to make future teachers aware of extracurricular opportunities for language learning. In a presentation made at the 2013 Annual Hawaii TESOL Conference, she reported that extensive listening activities can lead to improvement in students' metacognitive awareness, development of listening strategies, increased confidence, and advances in L2 pragmatics among other improvements. When conducted outside the classroom, students have freedom over which sources and types of input they are exposed to, and, according to Gilliland (2013), are able to "find the fun in language learning," which happens to be another point of interest for this study, i.e., how enjoyable Japanese EFL students find certain sources of L2 input.

Further, the fact that there is a lack of research in extracurricular L2 input does not mean however that there is no research. MacLeod and Larsson (2011), for example, studied the amount of exposure to English that Swedish students between the ages of 14 and 16 experience outside the classroom. The aim of their survey was to get a better understanding of L2 exposure outside the classroom. They examined whether this naturally occurring acquisition of knowledge was utilized in the more formal language-learning environment of the classroom.

While their results showed that EFL students have little exposure to extracurricular input, they did not draw comparisons between the different sources of input, nor did they include sample size or the actual survey in their paper. A couple years prior, Moyer (2009) stated that the research on the nature and importance of input on SLA should focus more on sources of input, frequency, and attitudes toward those sources of input. She also addressed the question: how much input is needed? She looked at L2 learners of German to explore new understandings of the significance of input for long-term attainment and was interested in how they go about obtaining input. Moyer, concerned mostly with phonological acquisition, was only interested in verbal sources of input and in the end, does not make any correlation between her participants' attitudes and their L2 acquisition. In another relevant study, Kim and Margolis (2000) surveyed 359 Korean English language learners for, among other things, how much exposure EFL students have to multimedia. By multimedia, they specifically referred to physical sources of multimedia: television, radio, cassette tapes, and videotapes. Not only is this definition of media outdated, it is also limited. While they showed that EFL students were most exposed to radio, the amount of exposure was low across all types of media in their study. One limitation of their research was that no distinction was made between input received in the classroom and out. Leppink (2010), working in a Dutch EFL context, hypothesized that exposure to L2 input would positively correlate to L2 proficiency. Through both a survey and having students keep logs of their exposure to sources of verbal English input in their environments, it was concluded that indeed such a correlation does exist. However, limitations to that study revolve around the low number of participants and not having investigated written and mixed sources of input in addition to verbal.

To sum up, various researchers stress the importance of a maximal amount of exposure to L2 sources of input in EFL contexts, claiming that EFL learners have less contact with the L2 than do ESL learners. Nevertheless, few data exist indicating how much exposure and to which sources of input EFL learners encounter outside the classroom. Of the examples of studies that do exist, inconsistencies with data collection, limitations to the number of sources of L2 input, and the low number of participants coupled with a lack of generalizability prove problematic when considering their conclusions. For these reasons, the survey undertaken in this study, interested in various sources of written, verbal, and mixed sources of L2 exposure outside the EFL classroom, is a logical point of departure.

Purpose of the Current Study

There are four primary objectives for this study: (a) to provide empirical data concerning the amount of exposure to various extra-curricular sources of written, verbal, and mixed (verbal and written) English input in high-achieving and low-achieving, EFL learners in a Japanese context, (b) to examine the attitudes and beliefs of those same high-level and low-level, Japanese EFL learners regarding enjoyabilty, beliefs in each source's effectiveness in learning English, and attitudes toward each source's motivational effect on wanting to learn English, (c) to determine the self-reported level of motivation those Japanese high school students have toward learning English, and (d) to determine if any relationships exist between motivation and the different types and amounts of English input that the students have exposure to outside regular classroom instruction. Just as Gardner (2001) suggested that affinity for an L2 and its culture can be the main indicative factor in predicting one's motivation for learning an L2, I hypothesize that absent direct L2 culture (i.e., living or studying abroad or having contact with foreigners), EFL learners' desire to surround themselves with indirect L2 culture, i.e., exposure to extracurricular sources of L2 verbal and written media, may signal one's motivation to learn an L2 and lead to greater achievement in the L2. In addition to the research questions, this study also seeks to explore the pedagogical implications of the findings in light of some of the current language learning theories regarding incidental learning.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

For this study, a focus group and a survey were conducted on two separate groups of participants. The focus group was used to elicit data to better inform the creation of the survey to be used with the latter group. For the focus group, 14 Japanese ESL university students were chosen. All were part of an eight-week English study abroad program conducted between their university in Japan and an American university in Hawai'i. Participants for the focus group were all native-Japanese speakers, first year university students, and represented a wide range of self-reported English proficiency levels.

For the purpose of conducting the survey, a separate, larger population of participants was chosen. A total of 151 Japanese EFL students were selected from two public, academic high schools in Miyazaki prefecture, Japan. Two classes, both second-year high school classes (Japanese equivalent to eleventh grade in the U.S., all students were 16 and 17 years old at the time the survey was administered), from each of the two schools were chosen. Of the two selected classes in each high school, one class of students represented high-level English learners, while the other was made up of low-level English learners. The determination of which students were high-achieving versus low-achieving was made using entrance and placement exams conducted by each of the high schools independent of this study. Because both high schools are academic high schools in the same prefecture, students must take the same prefecture-wide entrance exam and score above the same level to be admitted to the two schools. Once admitted, the students are placed according to their overall scores across the English and math subtests of the entrance exam. For high-level placement (Risuka), the students must score from 80% - 100%; for low-level placement (Futsuka), scores are between 65% and 80%. Students who score below 65% are generally not admitted to public, academic high schools in Miyazaki prefecture. While these testing and placement standards do fluctuate throughout Japan and even Miyazaki prefecture, the two schools involved in this study were chosen because they have the same policies regarding such issues. It was not known until the survey was returned which students, if any, had had any experience living or studying abroad or how many years they had studied English. Table 1 summarizes the biographical data collected from the participants of the present study.

Table 1

Biographical Data of Survey Participants

			School A			School B			
		School							
	Total	A	Class	Class	School	Class	Class	Total	Total
	Students	Total	A1 (high)	A2 (low)	B Total	B1 (high)	B2 (low)	High	Low
Number of students	151	76	40	36	75	37	38	77	74
								51.0%	49.0%
Male	73	43	26	17	30	18	12	44	29
	48.3%	56.6%	65.0%	47.2%	40.0%	48.6%	51.4%	57.1%	39.2%
Female	78	33	14	19	45	19	26	33	45
	51.7%	43.4%	35.0%	52.8%	60.0%	51.4%	68.4%	42.9%	60.8%
Age range	16-17	16-17	16-17	16-17	16-17	16-17	16-17	16-17	16-17
Years studied English	6.1	5.9	5.6	6.1	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.0	6.1
Number of students	5	2	1	1	3	2	1	3	2
lived or studied abroad	3.3%	2.6%	2.5%	2.8%	4.0%	5.4%	2.6%	3.9%	2.7%

As seen in Table 1, the number of students with high placement (n=77) and low placement (n=74) are almost even at 51 and 49 percent, the age range for both levels is the same, and the number of years spent studying English averages very near six years (6.0 years for high-level students, 6.1 years for low-level students) for both groups of students. Because the percentage of students who had studied or lived abroad from both groups is quite low (3.3% overall) and practically balanced, I decided not to disregard those students' surveys. This left the total number of students surveyed at 151.

Instruments

An original survey (see Appendix A for the English version, Appendix B for the Japanese) was developed to examine the amount of exposure high-achieving and low-achieving, Japanese EFL learners have to 14 different sources of extracurricular English input, verbal, written, and mixed-modal (verbal and written). Those sources of input can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2
Sources of Extracurricular L2 Input in a Japanese EFL Context

Mode	Source of English Input
	Native speakers
	Non-native speakers
Verbal	Movies/TV
	Radio programs
	Music
	Online Media
	Books
	Magazines
Written	Comics
	Newspapers
	Text messages/Email
	Online Social Media
Mirrod model (yearhol & weitten)	Movies/TV with English subtitles
Mixed-modal (verbal & written)	Music with lyrics in English

The survey asked the participants' attitudes and beliefs toward those different sources of input in regard to three factors, specifically, (a) enjoyability, (b) belief in each source's

effectiveness in improving the students' English ability, and (c) their attitude toward each source of input as a motivating factor to learn English. The survey also questioned students on their general level of motivation to learn English. In addition, age, grade- and placement-level, gender, and other biographical information was collected. Information such as number of years studying English and time spent studying and living abroad was also collected.

In developing the survey, a focus group, as mentioned earlier, was held with a separate group of Japanese students. The purpose of this focus group was two-fold: (a) to develop a comprehensive list of extracurricular sources of verbal and written English input that could be found in a Japanese context and (b) to get a better understanding of how to measure amount of exposure to those sources of English input. Initially, the focus group brainstormed 22 sources of English that could be found in Japan. After some discussion, it was determined that some items were similar enough to be grouped together and some were just eliminated altogether. While there were some reservations about including *comics* and *text messages/email* in the list of sources, several members of the focus group were persistent in making a case for their inclusion. Also, had it not been for the focus group, the mixed-modal category of sources would have been overlooked.

Next, a first draft of the survey was created in English. After review by colleagues and professors within the same area of research, changes were made according to their feedback. When I was satisfied with the original version, I then translated it into Japanese. For reliability, the Japanese version was reverse translated and checked for variance. Eventually, the questionnaire was pilot tested on the same members of the original focus group to check for participant comprehension, ease of response and administration, and to ensure that the instrument measured what it was intended to measure. This was determined using feedback from the focus group. Changes were made according to group feedback, and the final Japanese survey resulted.

In total, the survey (see Appendix A for the English version and Appendix B for the Japanese version) consists of 119 closed-response questions (Q) and 4 open-ended questions (OQ). The survey is divided into nine sections: (a) biographical information, Q1-9, (b) exposure to sources of verbal English input, Q10-23, OQ A, (c) exposure to written sources of English input, Q24-37, OQ B, (d) exposure to mixed-modal sources of English input, Q38-43, (e) attitudes and beliefs toward verbal sources of English input, Q44-73, (f) attitudes and beliefs toward written sources of English input, Q74-103, (g) attitudes and beliefs toward mixed-modal sources of

English input, Q104-113, (h) general motivation toward learning English, Q114-119, and (i) two open-ended questions concerned with attitudes and beliefs, OQ C, OQ D.

Exposure. Sections 2, 3, and 4 deal with exposure. Because of past research running into difficulties when trying to measure exposure to input (MacLeod and Larsson, 2011; Moyer, 2009), it was decided not to question the students directly on amount of time, e.g., hours a day, hours a week, but to instead ask three questions that could potentially give a better representation of the level of exposure each student had to each source of input compared to other sources. Because no control group was surveyed, i.e., a group of native English speakers, an exact number of hours spent exposed to each source of input was unnecessary. Three different types of prompts allowing 5-point Likert scale responses are instead used to discover any trends in the amount of exposure to each source of input. The three types of prompts are as follows:

1. How often are you exposed to native speakers?

```
(1 = \text{never}, 2 = \text{rarely}, 3 = \text{sometimes}, 4 = \text{often}, 5 = \text{very often})
```

2. I am often exposed to native speakers of English speaking English.

```
(1 = \text{strongly disagree}, 2 = \text{disagree}, 3 = \text{indifferent}, 4 = \text{agree}, 5 = \text{strongly agree})
```

3. Average amount of exposure to native speakers each week

```
(1 = 0, 2 = 1 \text{ to } 3, 3 = \text{around } 5, 4 = 6-8, 5 = \text{more than } 10)
```

How data from each of these three prompts was analyzed will be discussed in the results section.

Attitudes and beliefs. In 2009, Moyer called for more research in the area of how attitudes and beliefs of students may affect their willingness to expose themselves to L2 culture as well as their L2 acquisition. Sections 5, 6, and 7 attempt to do just that by using four types of prompts. As an example, the prompts for the source of input, *music*, is as follows:

1. I enjoy listening to English music.

```
(1 = \text{strongly disagree}, 2 = \text{disagree}, 3 = \text{indifferent}, 4 = \text{agree}, 5 = \text{strongly agree})
```

2. I think listening to English music can improve my English.

```
(1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)
```

3. Listening to English music makes me want to learn English.

```
(1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)
```

4. I want to learn English so I can better understand English music.

```
(1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)
```

While there were four prompts, it was discovered that students most likely interpreted prompts 3 and 4 in the same way, which would account for the high consistency between the two items ($\alpha = 0.994$). In the end, prompt 4 was thrown out in an effort to reduce data and will not be discussed in the results.

Motivation to learn English. Participants were asked to respond to 6 prompts using 5-point Likert scale responses, 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. The prompts are:

- 1. I want to learn English.
- 2. English is useful.
- 3. I enjoy learning English

Similar to the prompts regarding the participants' attitudes and beliefs toward English input, these prompts also deal with enjoyability, belief in effectiveness, and general motivation.

Procedure

While the length of the survey was an initial concern (Brown, 2001), the focus group gave no negative feedback regarding this issue and each member finished within thirty minutes. However, because of the length, it was decided early on to administer the survey online to the participants in Japan. At the time, it seemed the easiest form of delivery given the nature of online surveys, i.e., they can be administered without having to travel, and data can be automatically compiled into an online spreadsheet. Also, because no class time would be used for the participants to take the survey, a letter of introduction, or cover letter would have been unnecessary. This is not how events unfolded, however. Just before the instrument was available online, the liaison teacher from one of the schools in Japan asked that paper copies of the survey and a letter of introduction to the principals (see Appendix C, Japanese version only) be sent instead. Fortunately, the same teacher settled for an emailed copy of the survey, which she printed and distributed to the homeroom teachers of the four classes. Included in the email was the letter of introduction (Appendix C), the Japanese version of the survey (Appendix B), and a student consent form (see Appendix D for English, Appendix E for Japanese), which was necessary for International Review Board (IRB) approval. Once distributed, instructions were given in Japanese by the homeroom teachers and students were asked to complete the survey within one 40-minute class period. An explanation of participant rights was given along with a

mention that no further explanation would be given during the survey. Homeroom teachers collected the survey at the end of class. The liaison teacher mailed the completed surveys back. Thanks to this distribution method, there was a 100% return rate.

RESULTS

Table 3 shows all data concerning the participants' self-reported exposure to extracurricular English input. For each prompt, data are given across both high- and low-placement students. When comparing the mean exposure of both groups, it appears that there is no significant difference between the two and, in fact, the low-placement group actually shows higher exposure to sources of English from native speakers, movies/TV, music, and online media. Internal consistency is high across all subtests as well as all questions having to do with amount of exposure ($\alpha = .91$). Internal consistency/reliability was calculated using Cronbach's alpha.

Table 3 $Self-Reported\ Exposure\ to\ Extracurricular\ L2\ Input\ by\ Japanese\ EFL\ Students\ (\alpha=.91)$

	Total (N=151)		High (n=77)		Low (n=74)	
Survey Questions	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Verbal In						
How often are you exposed to native speakers? a	1.89	0.90	1.76	0.79	2.01	0.99
I am often exposed to native speakers of English speaking English. ^b	1.71	1.30	1.58	0.87	1.84	1.62
Amount of exposure to native speakers °	1.23	0.47	1.21	0.50	1.26	0.44
Mean Exposure Native-speakers ($\alpha = .66$)	1.61	0.89	1.52	0.72	1.70	1.02
How often are you exposed to non-native speakers a	2.54	1.65	2.68	1.59	2.40	1.69
I am often exposed to non-native speakers of English speaking English. ^b	1.89	1.15	1.94	1.01	1.84	1.27
Amount of exposure to non-native speakers °	1.94	1.52	1.97	1.48	1.91	1.56
Mean Exposure Non-native speakers ($\alpha = .72$)	2.12	1.44	2.19	1.36	2.05	1.51
How often are you exposed to English movies/TV without subtitles?	1.77 2.03	0.95	1.75	0.91	1.78	0.99
I often watch English movies or TV without subtitles. ^b Time spent watching English movies/TV without subtitles ^c	1.31	1.19 0.54	1.96	1.16	2.09	1.21 0.55
Mean Exposure Movies/TV ($\alpha = .80$)	1.70		1.29	0.53 0.87	1.32 1.73	0.33
	1.23	0.89 0.67	1.67 1.26	0.75	1.19	0.59
How often are you exposed to English radio programs? ^a I often listen to English radio programs. ^b	1.52	0.90	1.57	0.73	1.19	0.39
Time spent listening to English radio programs °	1.09	0.90	1.12	0.32	1.07	0.87
Mean Exposure Radio ($\alpha = .72$)	1.28	0.62	1.31	0.66	1.24	0.23
How often are you exposed to English Music? ^a	3.23	1.14	3.21	1.19	3.24	1.09
I often listen to English music. b	3.50	1.28	3.39	1.24	3.61	1.31
Time spent listening to English Music ^c	2.05	0.88	1.95	0.71	2.16	1.01
Mean Exposure Music ($\alpha = .80$)	2.93	1.10	2.85	1.04	3.00	1.14
How often are you exposed to online media in English? ^a	2.55	1.18	2.57	1.22	2.53	1.14
I often watch online media in English. b	3.42	1.36	3.34	1.46	3.51	1.14
Time spent on English online media sites °	1.65	0.77	1.61	0.71	1.70	0.82
Mean Exposure Online Media ($\alpha = .76$)	2.54	1.10	2.50	1.13	2.58	1.07
MEAN EXPOSURE TOTAL VERBAL INPUT (α = .82)	2.03	1.01	2.01	0.96	2.05	1.04
Written In		1101		0150	2100	1101
How often are you exposed to English books? a	1.44	0.70	1.43	0.69	1.46	0.70
I often read books in English. b	1.66	0.91	1.65	0.89	1.66	0.93
Time spent reading English books °	1.25	0.54	1.25	0.61	1.24	0.46
Mean Exposure Books ($\alpha = .81$)	1.45	0.72	1.44	0.73	1.45	0.70
How often are you exposed to English magazines/periodicals? a	1.21	0.54	1.19	0.48	1.22	0.60
I often read English magazines/periodicals. b	1.56	0.90	1.56	0.81	1.57	0.97
Time spent reading English magazines/periodicals °	1.11	0.41	1.11	0.42	1.12	0.40
Mean Exposure Magazines ($\alpha = .76$)	1.29	0.62	1.29	0.57	1.30	0.66
How often are you exposed to English comics? a	1.15	0.47	1.13	0.47	1.18	0.48
I often read English comics. b	1.45	0.79	1.52	0.83	1.38	0.75
Time spent reading English comics ^c	1.08	0.34	1.05	0.22	1.11	0.42
Mean Exposure Comics ($\alpha = .74$)	1.23	0.53	1.23	0.51	1.22	0.55
How often are you exposed to English newspapers? a	1.26	0.63	1.32	0.73	1.20	0.49
I often read newspapers in English. b	1.65	0.94	1.79	1.04	1.51	0.81
Time spent reading newspapers in English ^c	1.14	0.40	1.17	0.47	1.11	0.31
Mean Exposure Newspapers ($\alpha = .75$)	1.35	0.66	1.43	0.75	1.28	0.54
How often are you exposed to email/text messages in English? a	1.46	0.80	1.43	0.84	1.49	0.76
I often read English email and text messages in English. b	1.74	1.14	1.75	1.14	1.73	1.14
Time spent using email/text messages in English °	1.21	0.49	1.20	0.43	1.23	0.54
Mean Exposure Email/text messages ($\alpha = .79$)	1.47	0.81	1.46	0.81	1.48	0.81
How often are you exposed to online social media in English? a	1.92	1.09	1.87	1.07	1.97	1.10
I often use online social media in English. b	1.86	1.25	1.84	1.27	1.88	1.22
Time spent using online social media in English ^c	1.57	0.72	1.46	0.57	1.69	0.82
Mean Exposure online social media ($\alpha = .79$)	1.78	1.02	1.72	0.97	1.85	1.05
MEAN EXPOSURE WRITTEN INPUT ($\alpha = .89$)	1.43	0.72	1.43	0.72	1.43	0.72
Mixed-moda	l Input					
How often are you exposed to movies/TV with subtitles? a	2.29	1.15	2.23	1.12	2.35	1.18
I often watch movies or TV with subtitles. b	2.57	1.33	2.47	1.27	2.68	1.38
Time spent watching Movies/TV with subtitles c	1.70	0.76	1.66	0.75	1.73	0.78
Mean Exposure Movies/TV with subtitles ($\alpha = .85$)	2.19	1.08	2.12	1.05	2.25	1.11
How often are you exposed to music while reading the lyrics? a	2.38	1.09	2.27	1.01	2.49	1.15
I often listen to English music while reading the lyrics. ^b	3.01	1.45	3.07	1.48	2.96	1.41
Time spent listening to English music while reading the lyrics $^{\circ}$	1.70	0.75	1.68	0.78	1.73	0.72
Mean Exposure Music with lyrics ($\alpha = .74$)	2.36	1.10	2.34	1.09	2.39	1.09
MEAN EXPOSURE MIXED-MODAL INPUT ($\alpha = .78$)	2.27	1.09	2.23	1.07	2.32	1.10

Note. This table presents data from three types of questions (a, b, and c) dealing with the amount of exposure to twelve sources of L2 input. Internal consistency/reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha.

^a Participants answered these questions using a 5-point Likert scale, 1= never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often.

b Participants responded to these prompts using a 5-point Likert scale, 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. capacity of these prompts using a 5-point Likert scale, 1= 0 hours a week, 2 = 1 to 3 hours a week, 3 = around 5 hours a week, 4 = 6-8 hours a week, 5 = more than 10 hours.

In finding the mean exposure across all three prompts concerned with exposure, a better estimation of how much exposure Japanese EFL students have to certain sources of input is gained. Looking at Table 4, English input from Music had the highest levels of exposure at 2.93 followed by Online Media with a mean exposure of 2.54.

Table 4

Mean Exposure^a to Sources of Extracurricular

L2 Input by Japanese EFL Students

-	Mean
Source of L2 Input	Exposure ^a
Music	2.93
Online Media	2.54
Music (with lyrics)	2.36
Movies/TV (with subtitles)	2.19
Non-native speakers	2.12
Online Social Media	1.78
Movies/TV	1.70
Native-speakers	1.61
Email/text messages	1.47
Books	1.45
Newspapers	1.35
Magazines	1.29
Radio	1.28
Comics	1.23

Mean Exposure was calculated by averaging each participant's responses to three questions dealing with Exposure. As shown above, the exposure subtest had an overall internal consistency of .91 (calculated using Cronbach's alpha.)

While topping the list, these levels of exposure came as a surprise when reflecting on the higher levels reported by the focus group. Looking back at the three types of prompts and Likert scales used to measure exposure, a score of 3.00 represents *sometimes encounter*, *around 5 hours a week*, and *indifferent*. While the focus group also reported being exposed to *English music* the most, their level of exposure to all sources of input was much higher.

In looking at the attitudes and beliefs of the Japanese EFL students toward the different sources of L2 input, a distinction must be made between the three factors surveyed: (a) enjoyability, (b) belief in each source's effectiveness in improving the students' English ability, and (c) their attitude toward each source of input as a motivating factor to learn English. These results can be seen in Tables 5, 6, and 7. While Table 5 shows that little difference exists

between levels of academic placement, it can also be seen that students, in general, find exposure to music, online media, music with lyrics, movies/TV with subtitles, and native speakers (in that order) the most enjoyable. Table 6 also shows that there is little difference between the high-and low-placement levels. It also shows that students regard their exposure to native speakers, music, movies/TV, music, and books (in that order) as the most effective in learning English.

Table 5

Enjoyable Factor: Attitudes and Beliefs of Japanese EFL Students toward Extracurricular

English Input

	Total ((N=151)	High	n (n=77)	Low	(n=74)
Source of Input	M	SD	М	SD	M	SD
Native-speakers	2.84	1.17	2.75	1.15	2.93	1.19
Non-native Speakers	2.66	1.19	2.68	1.11	2.64	1.26
Movies/TV	2.50	1.28	2.51	1.23	2.50	1.32
Radio	1.82	1.04	1.86	1.08	1.78	1.00
Music	3.93	1.13	3.91	1.12	3.96	1.13
Online Media	3.60	1.24	3.56	1.33	3.65	1.13
Books	2.19	1.17	2.19	1.12	2.19	1.22
Magazines/Periodicals	2.02	1.12	2.03	1.06	2.01	1.19
Comics	1.97	1.07	1.94	0.97	2.01	1.17
Newspaper	2.04	1.19	2.14	1.22	1.93	1.14
Email/text messages	2.03	1.21	1.99	1.20	2.07	1.21
Online Social Media	2.06	1.31	1.99	1.27	2.14	1.34
Movies/TV (with English subtitles)	3.07	1.35	3.03	1.24	3.11	1.45
Music (with lyrics)	3.37	1.39	3.39	1.35	3.35	1.44

Note. Enjoyable Factor refers to how fun or enjoyable the participants (N=151) self-report each of the sources of L2 input to be. Participants responded to a prompt, i.e., I enjoy the following sources of English outside of school, using a 5-point Likert scale, 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Bold type indicates the sources of input with the highest total values.

Table 6

Effectiveness Factor: Attitudes and Beliefs of Japanese EFL Students toward Extracurricular L2

Input

	Total	(<i>N</i> =151)	High	n (n=77)	Low	v (n=74)
Source of Input	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Native-speakers	4.21	0.90	4.21	0.84	4.22	0.96
Non-native Speakers	3.19	1.23	3.35	1.09	3.01	1.33
Movies/TV	3.64	1.13	3.60	1.00	3.69	1.25
Radio	3.39	1.27	3.40	1.23	3.38	1.30
Music	3.62	1.10	3.49	1.04	3.74	1.15
Online Media	3.03	1.22	2.92	1.18	3.15	1.25
Books	3.62	1.22	3.66	1.05	3.58	1.37
Magazines/Periodicals	3.28	1.36	3.39	1.20	3.18	1.50
Comics	2.97	1.29	3.08	1.17	2.86	1.39
Newspaper	3.52	1.33	3.49	1.23	3.54	1.43
Email/text messages	2.92	1.34	3.09	1.24	2.74	1.42
Online Social Media	2.89	1.42	2.92	1.39	2.85	1.44
Movies/TV (with Eng. subtitles)	3.60	1.18	3.60	1.08	3.59	1.27
Music (with lyrics)	3.65	1.20	3.63	1.15	3.68	1.25

Note. Effectiveness Factor refers to the participants' (N=151) self-reported belief in the effectiveness of a source of input to learn English. Participants responded to a prompt, i.e., the following sources of English outside of school are effective in learning English, using a 5-point Likert scale, 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Bold type indicates the sources of input with the highest total values.

Table 7

Motivational Factor: Attitudes and Beliefs of Japanese EFL Students toward Extracurricular L2

Input

	Total	(N=151)	Hig	h (<i>n</i> =77)	Lov	v (n=74)
Source of Input	М	SD	М	SD	M	SD
Native-speakers	3.87	1.07	3.88	0.92	3.85	1.22
Non-native Speakers	2.97	1.20	3.10	1.08	2.82	1.30
Movies/TV	3.44	1.25	3.43	1.11	3.45	1.39
Radio	2.81	1.31	2.86	1.27	2.76	1.34
Music	3.75	1.16	3.67	1.19	3.82	1.13
Online Media	2.98	1.23	2.82	1.19	3.15	1.24
Books	3.19	1.34	3.22	1.27	3.16	1.41
Magazines/Periodicals	2.93	1.39	2.95	1.24	2.92	1.54
Comics	2.68	1.34	2.73	1.23	2.64	1.44
Newspaper	3.07	1.42	2.99	1.32	3.16	1.51
Email/text messages	2.74	1.38	2.77	1.35	2.70	1.42
Online Social Media	2.71	1.40	2.73	1.35	2.69	1.44
Movies/TV (with Eng. subtitles)	3.42	1.30	3.39	1.24	3.46	1.36
Music (with lyrics)	3.57	1.29	3.45	1.23	3.69	1.33

Note. Motivational Factor refers to the participants' (N=151) self-reported attitude toward each source of input a motivational force to learn English. Participants responded to a prompt, i.e., the following sources of English outside of school make me want to learn English, using a 5-point Likert scale, 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Bold type indicates the sources of input with the highest total values.

Of interest, these results seems to show that while students find their exposure to English input more effective than they find it enjoyable, what they actually find most effective is not necessarily what they have the most exposure to. Table 7 looks at the effect that each source of input has on the students' motivation to learn English. Again, there is very little difference seen across the high- and low-level populations, and participants feel that they are most motivated to learn English when they are exposure to native-speakers, music, music with lyrics, and movies/TV.

After finding that there was an overall internal reliability of .97 (measured using Cronbach's Alpha) across the three subtests of the attitudes and beliefs section (enjoyabilty, effectiveness, and motivational effect), I ran a principal components analysis (PCA) on those three subtests along with the subtests on exposure and general motivation. Table 8 presents the results of that PCA. By examining the Eigen values and the scree plot (see Figure 1), I decided to extract only five components. While it is traditional to include all components that have Eigen values greater than 1.0 (Brown, 2001), I made the final decision to extract only five components after seeing that there was a natural break between components 5 and 6 on the scree plot (components 1 through 5 have Eigen values over 2.0).

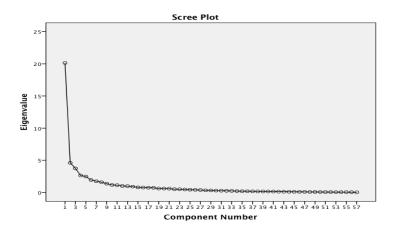


Figure 1. Scree plot from the principle components analysis of the attitudes and beliefs subtests.

Table 8 Factor Analysis of Survey Items Dealing with Exposure, Beliefs, and General Motivation ^a

	_	Components					
Survey Prompt	Source of English Input	1	2	3	4	5	h^2
	Native-speakers	148	.260	.432	.098	.237	.34
	Non-native Speakers	142	.353	.126	.053	.295	.2
	Movies/TV	108	.453	.661	.104	009	.6
	Radio	063	.542	050	.131	.208	.3
	Music	.125	.013	.482	.494	.444	.6
	Online Media	013	.175	.046	.026	.771	.6
Exposure	Books	.075	.616	.283	.095	.074	.4
Laposuic	Magazines/Periodicals	.102	.652	.211	.165	.142	.5
	Comics	.103	.646	.025	.062	.098	.4
	Newspaper	.187	.644	055	.100	.198	.5
	Email/text messages	042	.505	.072	.631	.079	.6
	Online Social Media	005	.472	.140	.707	.024	.7
	Movies/TV (with Eng subtitles)	.004	.260	.713	.174	.290	.6
	Music (with lyrics)	.154	.102	.156	.589	.436	.5
	Native-speakers	.227	.291	.416	.164	.234	.3
	Non-native Speakers	.296	.322	.260	175	.401	.4
	Movies/TV	.174	.474	.611	.016	193	.6
	Radio	.239	.521	016	.101	.153	.3
	Music	.229	102	.457	.414	.470	.6
	Online Media	.149	.175	.036	.003	.765	.6
n : 11	Books	.224	.574	.289	.074	025	.4
Enjoyableness	Magazines/Periodicals	.156	.542	.222	.165	.065	.3
	Comics	.145	.529	.175	.059	.016	.3
	Newspaper	.249	.565	.017	.170	.070	.4
	Email/text messages	.245	.503	.208	.603	.049	.7
	Online Social Media	.200	.461	.235	.680	.005	.7
	Movies/TV (with Eng subtitles)	.246	.186	.698	.175	.271	.6
	Music (with lyrics)	.227	.039	.133	.608	.403	.6
	Native-speakers	.500	137	.478	.125	.253	.5
	Non-native Speakers	.469	016	.162	.090	.043	.2
	Movies/TV	.481	.019	.543	.145	.156	.5
	Radio	.675	033	043	.041	.243	.5
	Music	.439	153	.406	.314	.482	.7
	Online Media	.272	.174	.222	.099	.648	.5
Effectiveness in	Books	.686	.036	.335	.039	.053	.5
Learning English	Magazines/Periodicals	.769	.063	.186	.119	.054	.6
Eddining Enginen	Comics	.729	.207	.096	.112	072	.6
	Newspaper	.745	.017	.211	.105	.046	.6
	Email/text messages	.638	.195	.034	.407	090	.6
	Online Social Media	.524	.161	.094	.574	079	.6
	Movies/TV (with Eng subtitles)	.506	098	.640	.098	.282	.7
	Music (with lyrics)	.519	156	.254	.444	.312	.6
	Native-speakers	.503	.156	.514	.121	.179	.5
	Non-native Speakers	.520	.144	.163	009	.112	.3
	Movies/TV	.515	.149	.602	.045	.101	.6
	Radio	.678	.263	047	.056	.283	.6
	Music	.447	108	.440	.301	.429	.6
	Online Media	.257	.220	.179	.138	.680	
A a Matinatan ta I aam	Books	.684	.217		.065	.092	.6
As Motivator to Learn English		.777	.217	.329			.6
Lugusu	Magazines/Periodicals			.179	.124	.163	.7
	Comics	.736	.290	.061	.069	.047	.6
	Newspaper	.703	.252	.029	.147	.152	.6
	Email/text messages	.648	.261	.078	.361	.098	.6
	Online Social Media	.533	.199	.174	.574	090	.6
	Movies/TV (with Eng subtitles)	.488	.021	.624	.157	.300	.7
	Music (with lyrics)	.510	079	.256	.464	.410	.7
Self-reported Motivation to Learn English		.262	.520	.268	.232	.285	.5
•							

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax. Rotation converged in 21 iterations. Bold items represent loadins equal to or greater than .3.

a. 5 components extracted.

Cumulatively, the extracted five components accounted for 58.9% of the variance. The loadings for each of the variables in this study across the five components are shown in Table 8. The bold-faced type indicates loadings of .30 or higher. Furthest to the right, a column of communalities (h^2) is given. According to Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar (2001), "these communalities indicate the total proportion of variance that the five components account for in each variable" (p. 373). For instance, the communality or h^2 of *Exposure to Native-Speakers* is 0.342, so the five components can be said to account for 34.2% of the variance in that variable. Likewise, Table 8 shows that while only 25% of the variance in exposure to English input from non-native speakers is accounted for by the five components, 66.6% of the variance is accounted for in exposure to English input from movies and TV, and so forth. At the bottom of the table, a row is provided which shows the proportion of variance in the overall solution accounted for by each component. For example, the proportion of variance accounted for by the first component is .184, which represents 18.4% of the variance across all variables in the overall solution.

As seen in Table 8 and 9, several variables overlap across different components. This overlap is due to complexity. Complexity found in certain variables can potentially be explained by the ambiguity created when labeling distinct sources of English input versus types of English input. This ambiguity can be seen in components 3, 4, and 5. Music as a source of English input loads in all three of these components. One reason for this overlap could lie in the participants' perception of music as a type of English input rather than a source of English input or both. That is, music can be found online, on CDs, on the radio, on streaming radio, or on social media sites. Knowing that online sources, social media, and radio are themselves separate categories, this ambiguity is clear. In another example of the complexity of some variables and as a possible interpretation of the ambiguity, while books, magazines, comics, and newspapers can be found in paper formats, they are also available online or on eReaders as well. It is possible that the overlap of variables found in components 3, 4, and 5 can be explained by this ambiguity. From the PCA, we can see that the survey items concerned with a source of input's effectiveness in learning English and as a motivator to learn English both load most heavily on factor one with the exception of input from online media. This may be interpreted as the more effective students perceive a source of input to be in learning English, the more they see those sources of English as motivators to learn English. However, I must be cautious here. Relationships found through PCA do not imply causality. This is only one interpretation. Further, the survey items

concerned with the students' exposure to sources of English input, how enjoyable the students found each source of input, and their self-reported motivation to learn English all load most heavily under component 2 also with a few exceptions to that pattern. This is interesting due to the fact that while students say that certain sources of input make them want to learn English and that they find certain sources of input effective in learning English, their actual self-reported exposure to English is more closely related to their general motivation to learn English and how enjoyable they find each source of input. Components 3, 4, and 5 show loadings across four of the survey prompts: exposure, enjoyableness, effectiveness, and input as motivator. The sources of English input that load the heaviest under component 3 are native-speakers, movies/TV (with and without English subtitles), and music. Music (with and without lyrics), Email/Text, and Social Media sources of English input load most heavily under component 4. English input from Music (with and without lyrics) again loads heavily under component 5 along with online media sources of English input. Yet, while patterns can be seen, some patterns are stronger than others, and still irregularities in those patterns exist. A summary of the patterns found in the PC A loadings and their irregularities can be seen in Table 9.

Table 9
Interpretation of Components and Irregularities

Component	Interpretation of Components (patterns)	Irregularities
1	Effectiveness & Input as Motivator Component	(excluding Online Media input)
2	Exposure & Enjoyableness & General Motivation* Component	(excluding Native-speaker, Music, Online Media input)
3	Native-speaker & Movies/TV** & Music Input Component	(input from Books loaded once)
4	Music [†] & Email/Text & Social Media Input Component	
5	Music * & Online Media Input Component	(input from Non-native Speakers and
3	wusie & Online wedia input Component	Movies/TV with subtitles loaded once each)

^{*} General Motivation refers to the participants' Self-reported Motivation to Learn English

Table 10 shows the self-reported general motivation levels of the participants to learn English. What is surprising is that low-level students, at a mean score of 4.23, actually report

^{**} Movies/TV in English with and without English subtitles

[†] Music in English with and without the accompanying lyrics

having a higher motivation than the high-level students, at 4.16. This result is contrary to the findings of previous research on the matter, which has always shown a strong correlation between motivation and student achievement (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006; Ortega, 2009).

Regarding the fourth study objective, i.e., to determine if any relationships exist between motivation and the different types and amounts of English input that the students have exposed themselves to outside regular classroom instruction, an attempt has been made to correlate several variables against exposure. Correlations were calculated using Pearson's correlation.

Table 10 Self-Reported Motivation of Japanese EFL Students to Learn English (α = 0.815)

	Total	Total (<i>N</i> =151)		n (n=77)	Low (<i>n</i> =74)	
	M	SD	M	SD	М	SD
I want to learn English.	4.19	0.94	4.16	0.87	4.23	0.99
English is useful.	4.30	0.86	4.37	0.79	4.23	0.92
Enjoy learning English.	3.77	1.04	3.86	0.93	3.68	1.13

Note. Internal consistency/reliability was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. Participants responded to these questions using a 5-point Likert scale, 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Table 11

How Mean Exposure^a to Various Sources of L2 Input Correlates with Japanese EFL Students'

Achievement Level and General Motivation^b to Learn L2

	Variables Correlated with Mean Expos					
		General Motivation ^b to learn				
Source of L2 Input	Achievement Level	L2				
Native-speakers	12	0.13				
Non-native speakers	.07	0.09				
Movies/TV	04	0.19^{*}				
Radio	.07	0.29^{**}				
Music	08	0.42^{**}				
Online Media	04	0.22**				
Books	01	0.27**				
Magazines	02	0.25^{**}				
Comics	.01	0.13				
Newspapers	.13	0.24^{**}				
Email/text messages	02	0.25**				
Online Social Media	07	0.29^{**}				
Movies/TV (with Eng. subtitles)	06	0.39^{**}				
Music (with lyrics)	04	0.38**				

Note. Correlations were calculated using Pearson's correlation model. Achievement levels (high placement vs. low placement) were input as low = 1 and high = 2. a. *Mean Exposure* was calculated by averaging each participant's responses to three questions dealing with Exposure. As shown above, the exposure subtest had an overall internal consistency of .91 (calculated using Cronbach's alpha.) b. General motivation

refers to survey item #114, where students had to respond to the prompt *I want learn English*. Participant's responded using a 5-point Likert scale, 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = indifferent, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Table 11 shows how exposure to L2 input correlates with achievement level and motivation. While there is almost no correlation between achievement level and exposure, it is interesting to note that, for most sources of input, there is a negative correlation. This means that the low-placement participants in this study not only have higher exposure to L2 input outside of the classroom, but the implication is that the lower one's achievement level, the higher one's exposure. Because only two levels of students where used in this study, this is only speculation. Later, in the discussion, more insight will be given on this.

Table 12 shows how exposure to L2 input correlates with the attitudes and beliefs held by the participants toward each source of input. The correlation for each factor was calculated separately. The first striking feature is that of the three factors, enjoyability has the highest correlation to exposure. These data show that Japanese high school students in an EFL context are more exposed to those sources of input that they find enjoyable rather than to those that they feel to be more effective in learning English. Where the data fall short is in explaining this. While it can be assumed that we seek out those things that we enjoy, there may also be issues of access and availability that physically block exposure to some sources of input. Because of this possibility, further research must progress carefully. Another point of interest in Table 12 is the low correlations with exposure to non-native speakers as a source of English L2 input. Table 6, above, shows that the students feel that native speakers are more effective in learning English than non-native speakers—not surprising given the worldwide bias toward nativeness in L2 instruction. Further, while Table 12 shows the lowest correlation to be between exposure to nonnative speakers and enjoyability (.28), it also shows that the greater the exposure to non-native speakers of English EFL students have, the less effective and motivational they feel that exposure to non-native speakers is in learning English (-.089 and -.067 respectfully).

Table 12

How Mean Exposure^a to Various Sources of L2 Input Correlates with Japanese EFL Students'

Attitudes and Beliefs toward that Input

	Variables correlated with Mean Exposure ^a					
Source of L2 Input	Enjoyability Factor	Effectiveness Factor	Motivational Factor			
Native-speakers	.45**	.21**	.24**			
Non-native speakers	.28**	09	07			
Movies/TV	.78 **	.33**	.42**			
Radio	.56**	.11	$.29^{**}$			
Music	.87 **	.57**	.63**			
Online Media	.83**	.59	.63**			
Books	.58**	.36**	.44**			
Magazines	.66**	.24**	.39*			
Comics	.5 8**	.30**	.40*			
Newspapers	.61 **	.25*	.35*			
Email/text messages	.7 1**	.33**	.35*			
Online Social Media	. 75**	.51**	.52**			
Movies/TV (with subtitles)	.86**	.47**	.54**			
Music (with lyrics)	.86**	.54**	.59**			

Note. Correlations were calculated using Pearson's correlation model. a. Mean *Exposure* was calculated by averaging each participant's responses to three questions dealing with Exposure. As shown above, the three-question exposure subtest had an overall internal consistency of 0.909 (calculated using Cronbach's alpha.)

Results from the Open-Ended Survey Items

The survey consisted of four open-ended questions. Two concerned the amount of exposure to extracurricular English input; the other two concerned why students find certain sources of English input either enjoyable or effective in learning English. Here, I will address the latter two questions.

Enjoyableness. For this question, students overwhelmingly answered that they enjoyed their exposure to English music the most out of the other sources of input. This outcome validates the results from rest of the survey. In answering why the students liked listening to or reading certain sources of input, a strong majority tended to answer that it was, in order of occurrence, "fun," "cool," "charming," "interesting," and "makes me feel happy." Other responses included, "It doesn't feel like studying," "I can forget that English is a school subject," and "It is easier to learn when I am interested." Interestingly, almost one-fifth of the students responded that they liked sources of English input because it was popular within their own culture or among their

^{*} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

^{**} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

peers, for example, "When I hear my friends sing English songs, I think it's cool and I want to know the meaning of the lyrics." Of the 151 students surveyed, only two responses seemed to align with the concept of integrative motivation, that is, "I can connect to foreign culture" and "I like foreign movies and music because I can see cultural and value differences not in Japan."

Effectiveness. In the final open-ended question of the survey, students were asked to respond to which sources of English they thought could improve their English the most and tell why. Again validating the results from the Likert-scale portion of the survey, the students responded that they believe that exposure to English input from native-speakers, movies/TV, and music are the most effective in improving their overall English language ability. In responding to why the students believed that certain sources of input were effective, an overwhelming majority of the students said that "colloquial English" rather than "big words" and "formal grammar" is more effective for learning English, specifically conversation skills, pronunciation, and "real English." One student said that, "listening textbooks have formal styles, so I think listening to native-speakers actually speaking is better." Perhaps the most telling, another student put it this way, "If you are using English as a tool for entrance exams, natural English is not necessary, and if you want to travel, colloquial English is more important than big words. I think it depends how you want to use English." Pointing to a desire for authentic sources of English and acknowledging that textbooks and entrance exams, and perhaps other high-stakes exams, do not provide or require knowledge of such authentic English, it may not be surprising that students turn to extracurricular sources of L2 input however infrequently.

DISCUSSION

All in all, this study shows that outside the classroom (a) Japanese EFL students have the most exposure to English in the form of music, online media, movies/TV, and non-native speakers; (b) they find exposure to English music the most enjoyable, while they find exposure to native-speakers the most effective and the most motivational in learning English; (c) exposure is most highly correlated with enjoyability; and (d) no discernible differences in exposure or motivation were found between the achievement levels of the participants. In general, the participants in this study seem motivated to learn English because of the nature of the sources of input themselves as well as forces within their own L2 peer community. These findings

correspond directly with the hypothesis that L2 learners orient toward English because of a cultural interest model of motivation where sources of media are seen as motivating artifacts (Clement et al., 1994) that connect learners with a global English media culture. In contrast, the findings of this study argue against both Gardner's concept that learners better acquire a language in order to integrate with the L2 community as well as his claim that integrative motivation is correlated with a learner's achievement level.

Another issue that I would like to address is the overall low level of exposure that Japanese EFL students have to extracurricular input. While it is perhaps not a surprise given the assumptions of previous research, in discussing the issue with the focus group and the liaison teacher in Japan, other possible explanations were offered. The focus group protested a resounding, "Japanese students don't have enough time while in high school to watch TV or listen to music." This sentiment also resounded from the participants in the survey through their responses to the open-ended items, as one student responded that they "only have time to be exposed to English in class." Post-survey, the teacher in Japan responsible for distributing the survey to the students was asked via email, "As a teacher in Miyazaki, what do you think are the biggest challenges facing students having exposure to English outside of school?" She answered,

Well, my opinion. Japanese tend to study only for the entrance exams. They seek for "short cut," rational way, saving time, for example, if you teach English through the text book, they are only interested in the most important part, which means the parts frequently asked on the test. They skip the rest. Perhaps lower level students don't feel as much pressure to be perfect and have more time outside of school to enjoy own interests. But, lack of time is biggest problem. Few students who are interested in many things, full of curious tend to use English outside of classes, Internet, YouTube, books, and so on. But most high school students have no spare time to spend their own interests.

While this teacher also mentioned Japan's conflicting stances on English education and the strong focus on test preparation (In another conversation, she even mentioned the "TOEIC/TOEFL fever" in education.), maybe what she did not say has the most bearing on this discussion. What was not mentioned was that Miyazaki is an extremely rural prefecture, that there is a lack of access to foreign input, that students lack motivation, or that Miyazaki has few foreigners. None of those excuses were given. In short, she answered that the students are too

busy in their school life to be exposed to such things. Interestingly, she did mention that lower level students may have more free time for extracurricular activities. This statement supports my finding that low-achievement students have slightly higher exposure to extracurricular L2 input than high-achieving students.

Not letting that stand on its own, this study, showing that students are motivated to seek out the sources of English media which they enjoy rather than those they feel would improve their English, differs slightly from Clement et al.'s (1994) notion of an English media orientation toward learning English. Where Clement and his associates showed that EFL learners can be motivated to learn English due to "an instrumental orientation based on the acquisition of knowledge and media usage" (p. 433-434), evidence from the present study separates the acquisition of knowledge, often a motivation for high level students (Clement et al., 1994; Ortega, 2009), from seeing certain sources of L2 input as motivators for learning an L2.

Limitations

In the design and implementation of this study, there were several limitations. First, while relying on a focus group to better understand the issue of exposure to extracurricular English in Japan was very beneficial, differences between the focus group and the survey participants may have led to an over estimation of the amount of L2 input that EFL learners in Japan experience. While the focus group was sampled from an ESL context, the survey participants were from an EFL context. In addition, it was not determined whether the focus group had had any prior experience living or studying abroad in a foreign country. Also, while the focus group was made up of students from the highly urban Kansai area (Osaka, Kyoto, Nara, etc.) of Japan, the survey participants were from the southeastern Kyushu area, a much more rural area of southern Japan. This discrepancy in the nature of urban versus rural environments may have had the most bearing on why the focus group reported what appeared to be much higher levels of L2 exposure than the surveyed group.

Another major limitation to this study deals with the determination of what constitutes high-versus low-level students. While the current study takes for granted the methods of the school entrance policies of the prefecture in which the surveyed participants lived, results could have been more valid and generalizable had the students been given an English proficiency test, e.g., a

cloze test, prior to the survey (Brown, 2001). Since this was not the case, further research is suggested to better examine the relationship between language proficiency and exposure.

Considering these limitations along with the plethora of problems revolving around quantity and quality of input, and the need for methodological triangulation through the inclusion of more qualitative data to support the survey results (Brown, 2001), it is clear that further study is needed to increase validity of results and improve generalizability across contexts.

Implications for Further Research

First, the ambiguity of responses found through the PCA provides implication for future survey design. When studying exposure to either sources or types of input, survey-makers must be aware of the overlap in those classification systems. While source may imply a physical source and type implies genre or mode, because of new technologies, the growth of online distribution of all media, and the diversification of how language learners can be exposed to a target language, the classification of types and sources of language input may become impossible. If researchers continue to be interested in the relationships between exposure to certain classifications of input and second language learning as well as individual differences in learner motivation, researchers may have no choice but turn to long-term ethnographical (Lamb, 2004) and participatory research. Classifications of input would be set wholly by the participants and be different from participant to participant; surveys would turn to journal keeping in the form of diaries or listening logs (Gilliland, 2013; Lamb, 2004); and traditional results analysis would turn to participant reflection and narratives. In the meantime, surveys are still valuable in that they allow researchers to reduce data and get a better grasp on overall trends (Brown, 2001). Survey-based research may not be going anywhere soon, but such empirical research must be tempered with qualitative measures as well, especially when learner motivation is also a concern (Dornyei & Schmidt, 2001).

Next, in dealing with the issues surrounding the amount of exposure to L2 input in EFL environments, further research on access and availability to L2 input and exposure will be key to progress. Some may say that exposure to any input outside of the classroom is a matter of access. How can someone be exposed to anything if they have no access to it? However, access to technology and electronic sources of input has been shown not to be an issue for most Japanese students. This seems especially true when presented with the number of mobile phones

in Japan, which can provide both written and verbal forms of input. In 2005, Thornton and Houser reported that while only 58% of households in Japan have access to personal computers, 95% of the 333 Japanese university students that they surveyed had access to web-enabled mobile phones. Thornton and Houser go on to show the effectiveness in using popular technology in teaching English. Through an experiment where they conducted vocabulary lessons via text messages, they showed that there was a 55-75% greater gain in vocabulary development when using mobile phones as the method of delivery outside the classroom as compared to paper based delivery in a classroom. With data from conducting post interviews with their participants, Thornton and Houser reported that students enjoyed using mobile phones as a vehicle for language instruction more than the standard classroom methods and were thus more motivated to learn. Therefore, not only was access not an issue, but also with the use of technology that the students already enjoyed, neither was motivation for learning. Yet, Thornton and Houser's research is only one example of how access to technology and English input is not at issue in some contexts. Further research into the question of availability and access in EFL contexts is needed.

Another issue in question is that of natural L2 input in an EFL environment and how learners orient themselves to it. Even if EFL learners are flooded with L2 exposure, are they attentive to that exposure? Long (1985) states that "failure to learn [a language] is due either to insufficient exposure or to failure to notice the items in question, even if exposure occurred and the learner was attending" (p. 427). So, with minimal exposure and the absence of explicit learning, can learners still acquire a language through input alone? While it has been argued that there is no such thing as subliminal language learning (Long, 1996), some researchers accept that implicit learning is not impossible (Schmidt, 1990). In fact, while Schmidt does admit that noticing must be present for learning, this can still occur without knowledge of the rules or principles involved. For instance, a leaner hears music in his L2, enjoys it, barely understands the vocabulary or grammatical structures, and yet, somehow manages to walk away with some new vocabulary attached to the paralinguistic or emotional features of the music, e.g. happy or sad or energetic. It seems that this learner has met with incidental learning.

Several researchers have shown evidence for incidental learning in EFL contexts. Day and Omura (1991), in looking specifically at EFL reading in a Japanese context, showed that incidental, foreign-language, vocabulary learning occurred after sustained silent reading for

entertainment. Within a Dutch EFL context, d'Ydewalle and Van de Poel (1999) showed that incidental, foreign language, vocabulary learning is possible in both adults (ages 20 and above) and children (N=327, third, forth, fifth, and sixth graders) through extracurricular exposure to subtitled TV programs in a foreign language. However, in contrast to the critical period hypothesis, the children's learning was not superior to that of the adults. Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) further concluded that subtitled television programs seemed to provide a rich context for foreign-language acquisition and that incidental vocabulary acquisition through extracurricular TV watching is possible. Moreover, viewers, they said, were motivated to learn a language if it is presented on television. Their study dealt with 246 elementary students. Razel's metaanalysis in 2001 looked at over six studies with combined data from over one-million six to eighteen year olds and examined the correlation between television viewing and education. Razel showed that for small amounts of viewing, achievement increased, but as viewing increased beyond a certain point, achievement showed slightly negative correlation. As promising as these studies are, they were all conducted under the confines of controlled environments with controlled input and tested for only vocabulary acquisition. While more research into natural exposure to L2 input in EFL environments and its effects on incidental learning outside the classroom is needed, the potential already shown in this line of study means that future research should reexamine the nature of such input and look at ways to increase exposure in foreign-language learning populations.

Lastly, with the onset of English education in Japanese elementary schools, a discussion of ways to increase an EFL learner's exposure to their target language at all ages is pertinent. Because my study shows that the amount of exposure to L2 input is minimal among rural Japanese high school students, either exposure should therefore be increased for students at this age or, as studies in age effect have shown in EFL contexts (Ellis & Collins, 2009; Lightbrown & Spada, 1999; Munoz, 2006; Ortega, 2009), learners should start earlier if having more time to be exposed to more input is the goal. More research into the amount and effects of extracurricular exposure to L2 input on younger children seems a natural next step.

Pedagogical Implications

Beyond incidental learning and with the advent of new curriculum and pedagogies that encourage students to rely on extracurricular materials and resources, e.g., extensive reading and

listening, questions of the amount of exposure students have to sources of L2 input in EFL environments become tantamount. In contexts where natural exposure to sources of L2 input seems non-existent, especially in the case of written input, teachers will be pressed to provide greater resources in the classroom to supplement the learner's environment. As a professor of mine, Dr. Richard Schmidt, reminded me upon an early reading of this paper, "It's called extensive reading and listening, not minimal." With that in mind, my belief is that with the proper guidance from teachers and schools, and as the ease of access grows, students will continue to seek out more sources of L2 input outside their classrooms—if not for their own benefit, then to simply connect with a global community much larger than their own. Ultimately, maybe it is not enough that sources of L2 input only exist in EFL contexts. Maybe students in Japan and other countries, where exposure to target languages seems minimal, need direction in finding that input, i.e., where to find it, how to find it, which sources are the most effective for learning, and all while remembering that those sources of input must also be enjoyable.

With this idea of *enjoyableness* in mind, the curricular implications of the present research is that EFL programs should also include more content from both authentic and popular sources of media in and outside of instruction. Day and Omura (1991) called for English programs to include "more opportunities for our students to read for pleasure" (p. 545), citing the results from their study on incidental vocabulary learning through reading for pleasure. Gilmore (2011), also working in a Japanese EFL context chose as his sources of authentic and popular media, films, documentaries, reality shows, TV comedies, Web-based sources home-produced video of native speakers, songs, novels, and newspaper articles. He showed that authentic materials and their associated tasks were more effective in developing a broader range of communicative competencies in learners than traditional classroom materials such as textbooks. That said, already in existence are alternative courses for English acquisition such as English though music, English through movies and TV, English through culture, etc.; already in existence is the theory and pedagogical foundations to establish such courses. Greater numbers of alternative courses with greater emphasis in communicative teaching methods and dramatic activities such as role-playing and simulations are needed—all of which should be a part of future EFL curriculum.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, wanting to learn Japanese because of a favorite *manga*, or Korean because of a boy band, or English because, as one of the students in this study said, "all the best movies are in English" are the realities of language learning today. While this may only deal in stereotypes, these realities prove true for many foreign-language learners. In the age of Facebook and YouTube and Twitter, where memberships to online music, movie, TV providers such as iTunes and Hulu are now the international standard, access to media and foreign-language input is no longer an issue for today's new language learners, and the motivations for learning languages and wanting to be integrated into the world media culture are evolving daily. As Lamb (2004) put it, "The world itself has changed greatly since Gardner first introduced the notion of integrative motivation in the late 1950s. His ideas are predicated upon there being clearly identifiable social groups associated with particular languages, with some contact between them" (p. 4). While it may be true that the world is getting smaller, with the growth of technology and its greater availability, the truth also exists that we no longer have to leave our homes to access it.

Finally, it comes as no surprise that English has long been used as the international standard of communication in both business and media in Asia (Nunan, 2003) and around the world (MacLeod & Larsson, 2011; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004; Lamb, 2004). This sentiment is also mirrored in the English education policies in Japan where English is perceived as "the common international language" (MEXT, 2002). Due to the effects of globalization, English media from around the world is more readily available through a variety of new and ever changing sources—yesterday, radio and books and newspapers, today, any and all media received via the internet, e.g., music, video, e-books, blogs, etc., whether accessed over a computer or on a cell phone. Through these and other sources, such as television and the everchanging terrain of the social media world, teenagers from every country are being exposed to the English language on a daily basis. Removed from L1 communities and culture, L2 learners are becoming more and more interested in the popular culture of English and the language itself (MacLeod & Larsson, 2011). Likewise, future and current teachers are intrigued by the potential influence of these sources of English and their connection to the growing world culture surrounding their students. It is this language overlap with popular culture that puts English

language teachers in a unique position to create interest, motivation, and enthusiasm within their subject while educating their students to become globalized "citizens of the world" (Lamb, 2004). Because of this expanding "international posture" (Yashima et al., 2004) and with nations such as Japan instituting policies claiming that "it is essential that our children acquire communication skill in English . . .in order for living in the 21st century" (MEXT, 2002), it is no wonder that English language learners, like the Japanese teenagers mentioned in the opening to this paper, no longer question the importance of English learning (Willnat, He, Takeshita, & Lopez-Escobar, 2002) and want to connect, however indirectly, to this newly envisioned world.

AUTHOR'S NOTE

I would like to thank Miwa Onitsuka Sensei for serving as my liaison teacher in Japan. Without her help with the distribution and administration of the survey, this research would not have been possible.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Matthew Barbee.

Email: matthewkamden@gmail.com

REFERENCES

Brown, J. D. (2001). Using surveys in language programs. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

- Brown, J. D., Robson, G., & Rosenkjar, P. (2001). Personality, motivation, anxiety, strategies, and language proficiency of Japanese students. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 361-398). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, *44*(3), 417-448.
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41(4), 469-512.

- Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005a). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89(1), 19-36.
- Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005b). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, *55*, 613-659.
- Day, R., & Bamford, J., (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Day, R., & Omura, C. (1991). Incidental EFL vocabulary learning and reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 7(2), 541-550.
- Dornyei, Z. (1988). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 31, 117-135.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). Teaching and researching motivation. Harlow: Longman.
- Dornyei, Z., & Schmidt, R. (Eds.). (2001). *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 361-398). Honolulu, Hawai'i: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.
- Duff, P.A., & Polio, C.G. (1990). How much foreign language is there in the foreign language classroom? *The Modern Language Journal*, 74(2), 154-166.
- d'Ydewalle, G., & Van de Poel, M. (1999). Incidental foreign-language acquisition by children watching subtitled Television programs. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 28(3), 227-244. doi: 10.1023/A:1023202130625.
- Ellis, N., & Collins, L. (2009). Input and second language acquisition: The roles of frequency, form, and function, Introduction to the special issue. *The Modern Language Journal*, *93*, 329-335. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00893
- Gardner, R.C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 1-19). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Gilliland, B. (2013, February). *Listening logs for extensive, independent comprehension practice*. Paper presented at the 2013 Annual Hawai'i TESOL Conference. Hilo, Hawai'i.
- Gilmore, A. (2011). "I Prefer Not Text": Developing Japanese Learners' Communicative Competence with Authentic Materials. *Language Learning*, *61*(3), 786-819.
- Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). (2002). 'Eigo go tsukaeru nihonjin' no ikusei no tameno koudou keikaku no sakutei nit suite [Developing a strategic plan to cultivate "Japanese with English abilities."]. Retrieved from http://warp.da.ndl.go.jp/info:ndljp/pid/286184/www.mext.go.jp/english/news/ 2002/07/020901.htm
- Kim, D.D., & Margolis, D. (2000). Korean student exposure to English listening and speaking: Instruction, multimedia, travel experience and motivation. *The Korea TESOL Journal*, *3*, 29-52.
- Koolstra, C. M., & Beentjes, J. W. (1999). Children's vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language through watching subtitled television programs at home. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 47:1, 51-60. DOI: 10.1007/BF02299476
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis*. London: Longman.
- Krashen, S. (2009). The comprehension hypothesis extended. In T. Piske & M. Young-Scholten (Eds.), *Input matters in SLS*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. System, 32, 3-19.
- Leppink, M. (2010). The role of media input in second language acquisition (Thesis, Utrecht University, Netherlands). Retrieved from http://igitur-archive.library.uu.nl/student-theses/2010-0831-200238/MAThesisTMM_LeppinkMJE_3114163.pdf
- Lightbrown, P., & Spada, N. (1999). How languages are learned. Oxford: Oxford University.
- Long, M. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. Gass, & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 377-393). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie, & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of language acquisition (Vol. 2): Second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York: Academic.
- MacLeod, F., & Larsson, P. (2011). Exposure to English outside the classroom. (Doctoral dissertation. Malmo University, Malmo, Sweden). Retrieved from http://dspace.mah.se/bitstream/handle/2043

- Moyer, A. (2009). Input as a critical means to an end: Quantity and quality of experience in L2 phonological attainment. In T. Piske & M. Young-Scholten (Eds.), *Input matters in SLS*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Munoz, C. (2006). *Age and the rate of foreign language learning*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly*, *37*, 589-613.
- Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition*. London: Hodder Education.
- Piske, T., & Young-Scholten, M. (2009). *Input matters in SLA*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Razel, M. (2001). The complex model of television viewing and educational achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *94*, 371-384.
- Singleton, D. (2003). Critical period or general age factor(s)? In M. P. Garcia Mayo & M. L. Garcia Lecumberri (Eds.), *Age and the acquisition of English as a foreign language* (pp. 3-22). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Singleton, D. (2005). The critical period hypothesis: a coat of many colours. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 43, 269-285.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129-188.
- Stephens, M. (2011). The primacy of extensive listening. *ELT Journal*, 65(3), 311-313.
- Thornton, P., & Houser, C. (2005), Using mobile phones in English education in Japan. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 21, 217–228. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2729.2005.00129.x
- Verspoor, M., Lowie, W., & de Bot, K. (2009). Input and second language development from a dynamic perspective. In T. Piske & M. Young-Scholten (Eds.), *Input matters in SLS*.Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Wang, X. (2010). Features of input of second language acquisition. *Journal Of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(3), 282-284. doi:10.4304/jltr.1.3.282-284
- Willnat, L., He, Z., Takeshita, T., & López-Escobar, E. (2002). Perceptions of foreign media influence in Asia and Europe: the third-person effect and media imperialism. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, *14*(2), 175-192.

Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L. and Shimizu, K. (2004), The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning*, *54*, 119–152. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00250.x