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# PRIVATE ENGLISH TUTORING AND ADOLESCENTS' MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A SELF SYSTEM PERSPECTIVE

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**ABSTRACT**

The present study investigated how self-related English learning motivation among Taiwanese adolescent learners differs between students who only receive English instruction in formal schooling and those who have additional private tutoring. A total of 1,698 teenage English learners in public secondary schools across Taiwan completed a self-reported questionnaire based on the *L2 motivational self-system* theory (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). The results showed that students who had additional tutoring had a significantly stronger intention to learn English and exhibited a higher frequency of English learning behaviors compared with those who only received English instruction in the mainstream. Regression analyses revealed similarities and differences between the motivational profiles and self-conceptualizations of those with and without private tutoring, revealing that *ought-to self*, *learning attitudes*, and *learning experiences* were prominent predictors of learning motivation for both groups. For students without tutoring, the influence of prevention-based instrumentality was found in their intention to invest effort and their perceived motivated learning behaviors. While the motivational power of *ought-to self* was observed in both groups, *ideal self* was only a pertinent contributory factor of intended effort in those who had tutoring. The study highlights the importance of considering learning experiences across diverse learning contexts in L2 motivation research.

**Key Words**: L2 motivation and selves, adolescence, learning experience

## INTRODUCTION

Private tutoring, shadow education, or out-of-school supplementary learning has become an important means of accessing English education in many parts of the world (Hamid, Sussex, & Khan, 2009; Yung, 2015).

In the hope of achieving educational success and improving social mobility, an increasing number of second language (L2) learners invest in English learning through profit-oriented language institutes or paid one-to-one lessons. In many contexts, school students rush to some form of private tutoring after official school days or during weekends to receive additional English instruction with the intention of raising their achievements in mainstream education and high-stakes examinations. In Taiwan, English is learned as a foreign language and is a compulsory subject in mainstream schooling from primary to tertiary levels. The mandate of English learning at every level of the nationwide curriculum has given rise to an unprecedented growth in private English tutoring (Liu, 2012). It is estimated that 41% of children in primary schools were sent to after-school English institutes by their parents and over 65% of Taiwanese teenage learners were learning English through private tutoring (Chang, 2008; Chung & Huang, 2010).

Perhaps a more serious concern is how such experiences create a bipolar distribution of students' English proficiency at schools. With extra exposure to English in addition to normal schooling, those who have private tutoring report boredom within formal learning contexts (Chung & Huang, 2010; Lee, 2007). Those without private English tutoring, on the other hand, show anxiety as they struggle to catch up with their peers (Chang, 2006; Su, 2001). This disparity in Taiwanese students' proficiency levels is found to be the greatest in junior high schools (Chen & Hsieh, 2011). In contexts where the "students are exposed to much more English in the private education sector, their formal education at school does not seem to be a key factor in determining their English proficiency" (Lee, 2010, p. 69). Private tutoring therefore creates social inequality, as the additional fees may be unaffordable for families of low socioeconomic status. Concerns about how private tutoring clouds mainstream education have also been raised in other parts of the world, such as Korea (Lee, 2010) and Hong Kong (Yung, 2015).

As the popularity of private tutoring continues to grow globally, much English learning is taking place outside the mainstream context, and yet we have very little understanding of the affective or psychological variables in private language learning. There is a need to push the investigation beyond learning English in the mainstream to include how out-of-school English learning plays a part in language learners' attitudes, motivation, and effort investment. Specifically, there are few large-scale theory-driven survey studies that explore whether motivation to learn an

L2 differs with additional hours of tutoring. In the field of second language acquisition, there is a recent surge in investigating an individual's imagined identity in the future and its relationship with language learning motivation. The most systematic application of studying language learners' imagined selves and how L2 related visions of the self energizes motivation in learning an additional language is found in the *L2 motivational self system* (L2MSS; Dörnyei, 2009). Basing on the L2MSS, this study discusses the English learning motivation of Taiwanese secondary school students to understand how adolescent English learners' self-concepts are conceptualized with differing experiences in shadow education.

**Private Tutoring Research in TESOL**

The prevalence of private tutoring has become worldwide and universal. This is evident from the many cross-national studies documenting the expanding scale of private tutoring franchises and the increasing cost of education outside the mainstream (e.g., Aurini, Davies, & Dierkes, 2013; Baker, Akiba, LeTendre, & Wiseman, 2001; Bray & Kwo, 2014; Kenayathulla, 2013; Song, Park, & Sang, 2013). While research into shadow education has attracted some attention in general terms and in academic subjects such as mathematics and science, there is a paucity of research investigating English as a subject in private tutoring. The few studies that have focused on private English tutoring were conducted in diverse national and institutional contexts, including secondary students in Bangladesh (Hamid et al., 2009) and Hong Kong (Coniam, 2014a, 2014b) who took English instruction in both the mainstream and private sectors, and adult English learners in Russia who had online English tutoring for professional development (Kozar & Sweller, 2014).

The accumulated findings on the effectiveness of private tutoring are conflicting probably because of the diverse contexts in which past studies have been conducted. Hamid, Sussex, and Khan (2009) surveyed 228 Bangladeshi secondary students and found no strong, reliable link between tutoring experiences and English achievement. Yet, Lee (2010) and Coniam (2014a) both reported the effectiveness of private tutoring. Lee's (2010) study on 43 Korean university freshmen showed that the students' pre-university exposure to private English learning was diverse and that those who had private tutoring showed significantly higher

English proficiency than those who were only exposed to mainstream schooling. In Hong Kong, Coniam (2014a) investigated students' (aged 18-19) performance in a public English examination after receiving instruction from a private tutoring school for one academic year. The results show significant improvement in the students' examination performance, though the outcome was not as high as the students had desired.

Although the effectiveness of enhancing English achievement remains inconclusive, qualitative analyses of interviews reveal that students across the studies viewed learning in the private sector as an integral and indispensable part of their education. Hamid et al. (2009) reported that Bangladeshi students' favorable perceptions toward private tutoring did not stem from its actual effectiveness, but rather from factors such as their low evaluation of mainstream schooling, unanimous peer participation, and the expectation and satisfaction of their parents in investing in their education. The college students interviewed in Yung's (2015) study offered a comparatively more critical evaluation of private tutoring. When asked to reflect on their tutoring experiences in secondary education in Hong Kong, the students recognized the value and necessity of private tutoring in preparing for examinations, but also pointed out how practicing examination techniques failed to develop their communicative competence (Yung, 2015).

Yet another recurring theme in the literature points to the unique expectations that students adopt toward learning in the private sector. In his interview study with 17 high school students, Coniam (2014b) found that students praised the examination-focused teaching approach employed in tutoring and also commented that they appreciated teachers who allowed them more freedom and "treated their 'customers/clients' in a more adult, business-like way" (p. 387). Similarly, the adult English learners from Russia in Kozar and Sweller (2014) described ideal teachers at tutoring centers as "result providers" who have a "strict" and "demanding" style, so that desired examination-oriented goals can be achieved (p. 47). The learners adopted a "seemingly consumerist orientation" and saw private English instruction as a paid customized service (Kozar & Sweller, 2014, p. 47). With pragmatic goals such as passing public examinations and securing positions in higher education, learners' perceptions and expectations of the private sector seem different from those of mainstream schooling.

Past research into private English tutoring has focused on its

effectiveness, learners' attitudinal dispositions toward paid lessons, and reasons or motivation for choosing to learn English in the private sector. Although the studies have so far yielded valuable insights into learners' perceptions, there has been little theory-driven research on the relationship of being privately tutored and learners' motivation in English learning, or else comparing the potential differences between the motivational orientations of those who receive extra tutoring and those who learn English primarily through mainstream schooling.

**L2 Motivational Self System, Instrumentality, and Adolescent Students**

Recent theoretical advances in L2 motivation have been characterized by an increased attention to L2 motivation within the individual's concept of himself or herself. Perhaps the most influential current model is the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009). This framework builds on an understanding accumulated from the socio-psychological model (i.e., the concept of *integrativeness*; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) and reconceptualizes L2 motivation as a language learner's identity with future self-projections. It is theorized that a language learner's future self-image, or how he or she envisions using the target language in the future, serves as a potent motivator to energize learning behaviors. The L2MSS constitutes three major key components: the *ideal L2 self*, the *ought-to L2 self*, and the *L2 learning experience*. The ideal L2 self, defined as a learner's vision of himself or herself as a competent user of the target language, embodies the individual's language-related personal hopes and aspirations, which serve as motivation to invest in L2 learning. The ought-to L2 self refers to the "attributes that one believes one ought to possess" and reflects the socially constructed perceptions of external expectations and wishes, often coming from an individual's significant others (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 29). Apart from the two selves, the L2 learning experience covers the learner's language learning attitudes, which can be affected by the immediate learning environment, experiences of learning success, and situation-specific motives.

Among the three components of the L2MSS, the role of the ought-to L2 self as a substantial motivator has been elusive partly because of its marginal effects in past studies (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Papi & Teimouri, 2012) and partly because of the varying conceptualizations of the construct (You, Dörnyei, & Csizér, 2016). The ideal L2 self, on the other hand, has been widely validated as the strongest predictor of adult

language learners' motivated behaviors in a variety of learning contexts (e.g., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, 2013).

In comparison with the adult population, or more specifically, adult learners recruited from tertiary educational contexts, L2MMS-based research has paid less attention to the language learning motivation of young teenage learners in secondary levels (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015). The existing research points to interesting differences between adult and adolescent learners' self-conceptualizations and L2 motivations. While the ideal L2 self was an important predictor of adolescent learners' motivated learning in some studies (Henry, 2009; Kim, 2012; Kim & Kim, 2012; Magid, 2009; Papi, 2010), others reported that, instead of self-conceptualization, L2 learning experiences or attitudes toward language learning in general have a more crucial role in younger learners' L2 motivation (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Papi & Teimouri, 2012). Particularly, for adolescent learners who are learning English in a compulsory curriculum, the attitudes and successful learning experiences they accumulate from mandatory courses, assigned school work, and day-to-day instruction are stronger motivational forces than future self-guides that are not yet fully developed (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012). The importance of L2 learning experiences and attitude for teenage learners' motivation also suggests that investigation beyond the context of mainstream schooling is vital to understand how successful and positive language learning experiences influence the development of learners' visions of themselves in the future.

*Instrumentality*, a key concept related to the L2MSS, is particularly noteworthy when discussing adolescents' motivation in English learning. For young learners who are still exploring different possible selves, the initial motivation to study English may not come from internally or externally generated future visions, but rather a sense of duty to fulfill the requirements of school work or pragmatic reasons such as elevating school grades. While the socio-psychological model (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) distinguishes integrativeness (i.e., learners' interests in integrating into the target language community) from instrumental orientations (i.e., learners' interests in the practical advantages of learning an L2), instrumentality was further conceived as having a promotional or preventive focus in Dörnyei's discussion of the L2MSS. Instrumentality with a promotional focus refers to the regulation of language learning

goals that are related to positive pragmatic outcomes, such as personal improvement and accomplishment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 28). These goals are broadly perceived as serving fundamental concerns with personal growth and are generally accompanied by a predilection for exploring new opportunities, an openness to new experiences, and an eagerness to push for advancement (Higgins, 2000). For example, a student may see high English proficiency as important because s/he wishes to enter a top-tier university. Instrumentality with a prevention-driven force, on the other hand, refers to the regulation of learning goals associated with duty, obligation, pressure, and a fear of negative consequences (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 28). The goals serve a prevention-focused individual's needs to maintain security. For example, a student may feel the need to elevate his or her English proficiency to avoid failing an exam. A strategic inclination for prevention-focused goal pursuits generally involves a commitment to the status quo, a vigilance to alternatives, and a preference for safe options (Shah & Higgins, 2001). In order to differentiate between various degrees of internalized external motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and different sources of self-regulatory orientation (Higgins, 1988), Dörnyei postulates that language learners' ideal L2 self is associated with instrumental motives of a promotional focus, while their ought-to L2 self or comparatively less-internalized self corresponds to prevention-focused instrumentality associated with a sense of duty or obligation (Dörnyei, 2005).

Investigations into the correlation between the L2 selves and dual instrumentality (promotional instrumentality and preventive instrumentality), however, reveal a complicated relationship. While some studies have confirmed Dörnyei's proposition (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Ryan, 2009), others have reported that the ought-to L2 self correlates highly with both the preventive and promotional types of instrumentality (Kim, 2012; Kim & Kim, 2012; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009), suggesting that in some contexts language learners, due to sociocultural influences, may be inclined to see external expectations as a part of personal pursuit and achievement (Kim & Kim, 2012; Taguchi et al., 2009). A recent study of Taiwanese secondary students further found that teenage learners' ought-to L2 selves are more significantly related to promotion-focused instrumentality than to prevention-focused instrumentality (Huang & Chen, 2017).

Taiwanese adolescents study in a context in which the role of English is highly emphasized at every stage of compulsory education.

Young learners are, at the same time, only beginning to explore their identity and future vision. Investigation into the two types of instrumentality in relation to young learners' self-concepts and motivation will provide a means to understand how their learning goals and regulatory efforts derived from external requirements to learn English are associated with their learning experiences and future aspirations.

**The Present Study**

The present study is the second phase of a large-scale stratified survey conducted among Taiwanese secondary students. The first phase of the survey (Huang & Chen, 2017) examined the general motivational characteristics of adolescent English learners and profiled the associations between L2MSS components. The results confirmed the validity of the L2MSS for explaining Taiwanese teenage learners' English learning motivation. Inspired by consideration of L2 learning experiences and observation of the continued expansion of private English tutoring, the general goal of the second phase has been to explore experiential differences and the potential role they have on L2 motivation. More specifically, through the lens of L2MSS, this study discusses how self-related English learning motivation differs between Taiwanese teenage learners who receive regular schooling compared with those who have additional tutoring. The following two research questions are addressed.

1. Does English learning motivation differ between Taiwanese teenage learners who receive instruction in mainstream schooling and those who have additional private tutoring?
2. If there are differences, how are the ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, and instrumentality conceptualized by Taiwanese teenage learners with and without private tutoring?

In this study, private English tutoring is defined as English lessons provided at a fee to individuals or groups (Hamid et al., 2009; Yung, 2015). The lessons may be in the form of one-to-one individualized tutoring sessions, small group conversation classes, or large class lectures on examination skills. The main instructional goals of these paid lessons may be remedial (i.e., helping learners understand the content covered in formal schooling) or supplementary (i.e., providing pupils with tasks and practice tests beyond the materials offered in the

mainstream). These private tutoring services may or may not be offered by qualified and certified TESOL professionals. In many cases, English majors at top-tier universities serve as tutors. Though there is great diversity, these marketed instructional practices are paid for and take place outside the context of regular schooling.[1]

## METHOD

### Participants

A total of 1,698 teenage English learners in public secondary schools across Taiwan were recruited through stratified sampling. The age of the students ranged from 11 to 16 years old. The students had at least 4 to 6 years of formal English instruction before entering secondary school. At the time of research, 789 out of the 1,698 students (46%) reported having additional English instruction from private tutoring and were receiving on average 4 hours of instruction from private tutoring per week. Out of the total participants, 909 students (54%) studied English only at school. The students who received only mainstream schooling reported not having private English tutoring in the previous 12 months. The decision of choosing 12 months without studying was made so that results from the present study could be compared to past quantitative shadow education studies (e.g., Bray & Kobakhidze, 2015; Zhan, Bray, Wang, Lykins, & Kwo, 2013).

### Instruments

The instrument in this study was a 66-item questionnaire in two parts. The first part elicits participants' background information including age,

[1] By law, public and private school teachers in Taiwan are prohibited from providing supplementary tutoring. Although there is wide variation in the quality and types of private tuition in Taiwan, this study does not distinguish between them; the main goal is to compare the motivational dispositions of those with and without private schooling. The definition of private tutoring and the research design were adopted from accumulated studies examining the influences of private supplementary education (e.g. Bray & Kobakhidze, 2015; Tse, 2014; Zhan et al., 2013). See also Bray (2006, 2009) for discussions of defining private tutoring.

gender, academic status, and starting age of learning English. The participants were also asked to indicate whether they had received private tutoring in the previous 12 months and if so, the frequency and duration of the additional instruction. The second part targets participants' English learning motivation and consists of 11 motivational variables, all measured by a six-point Likert scale. The motivational variables were: *Ideal English self*, *Ought-to English self*, *Relational influences*, *Learning experience in formal schooling*, *Learning experience in private tutoring*, *Instrumentality—promotion*, *Instrumentality—prevention*, and *English learning attitude*. The variables were developed from past survey research based on the L2MSS (e.g., Huang, Hsu, & Chen, 2015; Lamb, 2012; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). Definitions of the included motivational subscales are given below.

(1) **Ideal English self:** Students' visions of themselves as competent users of English. For example, "I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues." *The Ideal English self* represents the desired future-oriented images of the self. Scores of the *Ideal English self* variable indicate the extents to which an individual can envision and picture self-images regarding how s/he would like English to be a part of their self in the future. A student who scores low on the *Ideal English self* items such as "Whenever I think of my future career, I can imagine myself using English" or "I can imagine myself using English for communicating with people" may have difficulty coming up with visual representations of him or her using English in the future or does not consider English use to be an integral part of his or her future identity.
(2) **Ought-to English self**: Students' sense of duty, responsibility, and obligation toward studying English. For example, "Studying English is what I have to do."
(3) **Relational influences**: Students' views of how significant others believe they should study English. For example, "I learn English because my parents think English is important."
(4) **Learning experience in formal schooling**: The extent to which students like learning English in their immediate academic context. For example, "I like the atmosphere in my English classes at school."
(5) **Learning experience in private tutoring**: The extent to which students enjoy learning English in private tutoring settings. For example, "I like the atmosphere of my English classes in private tutoring."
(6) **Instrumentality—promotion**: The regulation of learning behavior

by positive utilitarian benefits associated with learning English. For example, "Studying English is important to me because I'll need it for further studies."

(7) **Instrumentality—prevention**: The regulation of learning behavior from a sense of duty and obligation to study English and the fears of negative consequences. For example, "I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it."

(8) **English learning attitude**: The extent to which students enjoy learning English. For example, "I really enjoy learning English."

Three criterion measures were employed. *Intended learning effort*, which looks into students' intended effort toward studying English. An example of *Intended learning effort* is "If an English course was offered in the future, I would like to take it." This criterion measure was selected because it has been widely used in past L2MSS research conducted in various geographical contexts (e.g. Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009) and thus ensuring that the results of the present study can be compared to past findings. To complement *Intended learning effort*, the participants were also asked to indicate their perceived regularity of motivated learning both inside and outside English classes. Two additional criterion measures, *Perceived class involvement* and *Perceived voluntary learning*, were employed because (a) students' intended effort in learning English may be influenced by the mandatory nature of English learning in secondary education and (b) Taiwanese secondary students' English learning may take place outside formal education. *Perceived class involvement* examines how frequently students exhibit English learning behaviors in their English classes at schools. For example, "I participate actively in English classes at school" and "I submit my assignments on time." *Perceived voluntary learning* asks for students' perception of how often they voluntarily make an effort to learn English outside mainstream classes. Examples of *Perceived voluntary learning* include "I use English to express my thoughts outside my classes" and "To improve my English, I listen to songs, watch movies, and read magazines in English" (see the items of the motivational variables in the Appendix).

**Procedures**

The questionnaire was translated into Mandarin Chinese and piloted on students in grades seven to nine from four different public junior high

schools in Taipei. Potentially problematic items were omitted or reworded. The finalized questionnaire was administered to 17 public junior high schools across Taiwan. Public junior high schools located in different districts across Taiwan were first selected through stratified sampling. The researcher then contacted junior high school teachers of the selected schools for their assistance in distributing the questionnaires to their students during class. English teachers who had several different classes or were teaching students across grades seven to nine were contacted. On average, three to four English teachers were contacted per school. After obtaining the school teachers' consents, research assistants of the project traveled to the English classes to administer the questionnaires. Completion of the questionnaire took about 15 to 20 minutes. The students were given stationery worth NT$30 for completing the questionnaire. All participation was voluntary and anonymous.

Data analysis of the questionnaire responses consisted of an exploratory factor analysis to examine the construct validity and internal consistency of the subscales. With independent sample *t* tests, significant differences in motivational composition among students with and without private tutoring were identified. Lastly, multiple regression analyses were conducted to explore the predictive effects of each subscale on English learning motivation.

## RESULTS

### Validity and Reliability

The factor analysis yielded 11 clear factors (see Appendix). The motivational subscales obtained acceptable validity, ranging from 66% to 85%. The internal consistency was acceptable for all subscales (Cronbach's alpha varied between .83 and .96).

### Comparative Analysis of the Motivational Scales

Independent sample *t* tests were conducted with the attendance of private English tutoring as the grouping variable and motivational scales as dependent variables. Bonferroni adjustment for inflated Type I errors was made (.05/10 = .005). Table 1 shows that for all motivational constructs, noticeably higher mean scores were obtained from those who had private tutoring. The mean *Intended learning effort* differs between

those with ($M$ = 4.35, $SD$ = 1.1) and without private tutoring ($M$ = 3.80, $SD$ = 1.2) at the .005 level of significance ($t$ = −9.81, $p$ < .005). A medium effect size was observed (Cohen's $d$ = 0.48). A significant group difference was also found in *Perceived class involvement* ($t$ = −4.35, $p$ < .005), with a small effect size (Cohen's $d$ = 0. 21). Similarly, a significant difference was observed between those with ($M$ = 3.86, $SD$ = 1.3) and without private tutoring ($M$ = 3.27, $SD$ = 1.3) in *Perceived voluntary learning* ($t$ = −9.19, $p$ < .005), with a medium effect size observed (Cohen's $d$ = 0.45). Results suggest that students who received additional tutoring had a stronger intention to learn English and exhibited a higher frequency of English learning behaviors both in and out of school compared with those who only received English instruction in the mainstream classes. In addition, the significance found in motivational variables indicates students in the two conditions might have different motivational representations.

Table 1

*Independent t Tests of Motivational Variables*

| Motivational constructs | Groups | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Without tutoring ($n$ = 909) | | With tutoring ($n$ = 789) | | | |
| | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* | *t* | Cohen's *d* |
| Ideal English self | 4.88 | 1.11 | 5.19 | 0.84 | −6.37* | −0.31 |
| Ought-to English self | 4.56 | 1.26 | 4.94 | 1.04 | −6.66* | −0.32 |
| Relational influences | 3.81 | 1.38 | 4.15 | 1.31 | −5.18* | −0.25 |
| Learning experience in formal schooling | 3.85 | 1.34 | 4.16 | 1.35 | −4.77* | −0.23 |
| Instrumentality —promotion | 4.93 | 1.12 | 5.23 | .90 | −5.97* | −0.30 |
| Instrumentality —prevention | 3.91 | 1.24 | 4.18 | 1.17 | −4.44* | −0.22 |
| English learning attitude | 4.14 | 1.42 | 4.61 | 1.28 | −7.14* | −0.35 |
| Intended learning efforts | 3.80 | 1.22 | 4.35 | 1.09 | −9.81* | −0.48 |
| Perceived class involvement | 4.60 | 1.08 | 4.82 | .99 | −4.35* | −0.21 |
| Perceived voluntary learning | 3.27 | 1.31 | 3.86 | 1.30 | −9.19* | −0.45 |

*Note.* $^{*}p < .001$.

**Regression Analyses**

In order to examine the predictive effects of the motivational scales on the English learning motivation of students with and without private tutoring, stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted. Students' *Intended learning effort*, *Perceived class involvement*, and *Perceived voluntary learning* were taken as dependent variables. For students who received tutoring, learning experiences included *Learning experience in formal schooling* and *Learning experience in private tutoring*. A Bonferroni adjustment was applied to set the level of significance at $p < .01$.

Table 2 shows that among the motivational variables investigated, *English learning attitude, Ought-to English self*, *Instrumentality—prevention*,

and *Learning experience in formal schooling* were significant contributors to the *Intended learning effort* of students who received no instruction from tutoring. *English learning attitude*, acting as the strongest predictor of students' *Intended learning effort*, explained about 50% of the variance. With regards to the two self-guides (i.e. *Ideal English self* and *Ought-to English self*), only *Ought-to English self*[2] ($\beta = .28$, $p < .01$) was a prominent contributor to learners' intention to learn English. *Instrumentality—prevention* ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$) and *Learning experience in formal schooling* ($\beta = .07$, $p < .01$) were also important predictors.

[2] *Ideal English self* and *Ought-to English self* are used when referring to the findings of the present study. Past L2MSS studies have examined a variety of target languages; therefore, ideal L2 self, ideal self, ought-to L2 self, and ought-to self are used when referring to discussions of the concepts in previous reports in the literature.

Table 2

*Multiple Regression Analyses of Intended Learning Effort, Perceived Class Involvement, and Perceived Voluntary Learning: Students without Tutoring*

| Intended learning effort final model | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Motivational variables | Beta | S.E. | Std.β |
| English learning attitude | .43 | .03 | .50* |
| Ought-to English self | .28 | .03 | .28* |
| Instrumentality—prevention | .11 | .02 | .11* |
| Learning experience in formal schooling | .07 | .02 | .07* |
| Instrumentality—promotion | .02 | .03 | .02 |
| Relational influences | .02 | .02 | .02 |
| Ideal English self | -.02 | .04 | -.02 |
| Adjusted R square | .68 | | |
| Perceived class involvement final model | | | |
| Motivational variables | Beta | S.E. | Std.β |
| Learning experience in formal schooling | .21 | .03 | .26* |
| Instrumentality—prevention | .15 | .03 | .17* |
| Ought-to English self | .13 | .04 | .15* |
| Relational influences | -.08 | .03 | -.10* |
| Ideal English self | .08 | .05 | .08 |
| Instrumentality—promotion | .08 | .04 | .08 |
| English learning attitude | .03 | .04 | .04 |
| Adjusted R square | .29 | | |
| Perceived voluntary learning final model | | | |
| Motivational variables | Beta | S.E. | Std.β |
| English learning attitude | .34 | .04 | .37* |
| Ought-to English self | .21 | .05 | .20* |
| Instrumentality—promotion | .09 | .05 | .08 |
| Instrumentality—Prevention | .07 | .03 | .07 |
| Learning experience in formal schooling | .06 | .03 | .06 |
| Ideal English self | .01 | .05 | .01 |
| Relational influences | .01 | .03 | .01 |
| Adjusted R square | .42 | | |

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

Table 3 shows that, except for *Instrumentality—prevention and Relational influences*, the other six motivational constructs significantly contributed to the *Intended learning effort* of students who had private tutoring. Similar to the findings from students without tutoring, results from those who had tutoring showed that *English learning attitude* provided the most significant variance to *Intended learning effort*. It appeared that for young Taiwanese learners, regardless of private tutoring, the indication of a positive attitude toward English learning corresponded to the effort students were willing to invest in learning. Turning to the two self-guides, *Ought-to English self* was the second-best predictor of intention to learn English for both groups of learners (see Tables 2 and 3). However, *Ideal English self* served as a significant contributor to *Intended learning effort* only for those who learned in private institutes ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$, see Table 3). Though high mean scores of *Ideal English self* were observed from both groups[3], *Ideal English self* only exerted a motivational effect on the learning intention of students who had additional learning outside formal schooling. As for types of instrumentality, Table 3 shows that it was promotion-oriented instrumentality rather than prevention-oriented instrumentality that contributed (modestly) to the *Intended learning effort* of students who had tutoring ($\beta = .08$, $p < .01$). For those who had tutoring, learning experiences at schools and private institutes also played important roles in predicting their *Intended learning effort*, with each explaining about 15% of variance.

Regarding *Perceived class involvement*, Table 2 shows that *Learning experience in formal schooling*, *Instrumentality—prevention*, *Ought-to English self*, and *Relational influences* served as predictors for students who did not receive private English tutoring. Among them, *Learning experience in formal schooling* was the strongest predictor of course-related learning effort ($\beta = .26$, $p < .01$). With regard to the two self-guides, only *Ought-to English self* predicted learners' course-related learning behaviors ($\beta = .15$, $p < .01$). As for the two types of instrumentality, only *Instrumentality—prevention* significantly correlated students' perceived investment in the classrooms ($\beta = .17$, $p < .01$).

[3] The means of *Ideal English self* in both groups were determined as high in comparison to the Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian populations in Taguchi et al. (2009), a large scale survey study involving nearly 5000 participants of various ages. Also using a six-point Likert scale, the ideal L2 self means of the Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian participants were approximately 3.6, 4.8, and 4.4, respectively, in Taguchi et al. (2009).

Table 3 shows that learning experiences at school and in private tutoring both predicted the in-class investment of those who had private tutoring. Similar to the findings from students without tutoring, *Learning experience in formal schooling* served as the best predictor of in-class learning behaviors ($\beta = .32$, $p < .01$). While *Ought-to English self*, *Relational influences*, and *Instrumentality—prevention* were three critical factors in predicting the class investment of those without tutoring; English learning experiences, whether at school or in private tutoring, greatly predicted the classroom-related learning behaviors of those who received additional tutoring.

Table 3

*Multiple Regression Analyses of Intended Learning Effort, Perceived Class Involvement, and Perceived Voluntary Learning: Students with Tutoring*

| Intended learning effort final model | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Motivational variables | Beta | S.E. | Std.β |
| English learning attitude | .35 | .03 | .41* |
| Ought-to English self | .17 | .03 | .17* |
| Learning experience in private tutoring | .14 | .02 | .16* |
| Learning experience in formal schooling | .11 | .02 | .14* |
| Ideal English self | .15 | .04 | .11* |
| Instrumentality—promotion | .10 | .03 | .08* |
| Instrumentality—prevention | .02 | .02 | .02 |
| Relational influences | .02 | .02 | .02 |
| Adjusted R square | .72 | | |
| Perceived class involvement final model | | | |
| Motivational variables | Beta | S.E. | Std.β |
| Learning experience in formal schooling | .23 | .03 | .32* |
| Learning experience in private tutoring | .10 | .03 | .13* |
| Ought-to English self | .09 | .05 | .09 |
| English learning attitude | .07 | .04 | .09 |
| Instrumentality—prevention | .06 | .03 | .07 |
| Instrumentality—promotion | .04 | .05 | .04 |
| Relational influences | -.02 | .03 | -.03 |
| Ideal English self | -.00 | .05 | -.00 |
| Adjusted R square | .26 | | |
| Perceived voluntary learning final model | | | |
| Motivational variables | Beta | S.E. | Std.β |
| Learning experience in private tutoring | .23 | .04 | .21** |
| English learning attitude | .20 | .05 | .19** |
| Learning experience in formal schooling | .19 | .03 | .19** |
| Ideal English self | .17 | .06 | .10 |
| Ought-to English self | .13 | .06 | .10 |
| Instrumentality—Promotion | .06 | .06 | .04 |
| Relational influences | -.02 | .03 | -.02 |
| Instrumentality—Prevention | -.00 | .04 | -.00 |
| Adjusted R square | .39 | | |

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

As for *Perceived voluntary learning*, *English learning attitude* served as a predictor for voluntary learning behaviors in both groups (see Tables 2 and 3). The effect of *Ought-to English self* was only found in the sample of those who did not have tutoring ($\beta = .20$, $p < .01$, see Table 2). For students who received tutoring, *English learning attitude* as well as students' learning experiences in both formal schooling ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$) and private tutoring ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$) served as prominent predictors (Table 3).

## DISCUSSION

The goal of the present study is to understand how self-related English learning motivation among Taiwanese adolescent learners differs between students who only receive English instruction in formal schooling and those who have additional private tutoring. It was found that students who received additional tutoring had a stronger intention to learn English and exhibited a higher frequency of English learning behaviors both in and out of school compared with those who only received English instruction in mainstream classrooms. Significant differences were also found in the motivational variables between the two groups of students. Regression analyses of the students' motivational profiles and self-conceptualization point to some similarities between the two groups, indicating that *Ought-to English self*, *English learning attitude*, and *English learning experiences* are prominent predictors of Taiwanese adolescent English learners' effort and investment in learning. At the same time, several salient differences between the two groups emerged. For students with no private after-school tutoring, the contribution of prevention-based instrumentality was found in their intention to invest learning effort and their perceived motivated learning behaviors. While the motivational power of *Ought-to English self* was observed in both groups, *Ideal English self* was only a pertinent contributory factor of intended effort in those who had private tutoring.

Contrary to previous studies that failed to validate the construct of the ought-to L2 self or found it to carry less weight in predicting motivated behaviors (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Lamb, 2012), *Ought-to English self* was a prominent predictor of Taiwanese adolescent students' self-perceived effort investment in the present study. With or without private tutoring, young learners' externally sourced self-images served as a desired end state that energized motivated behaviors.

Although the ought-to L2 self is often characterized in the literature as being less internalized, the imported sense of duty, responsibility, and obligation toward studying English is a powerful motivational force; learners in the present study were acutely aware of the critical role of English competence in their educational prospects.

It is also observed that the Taiwanese adolescent learners in the present study, having had private tutoring or not, had high mean scores of *Ideal English self*. This indicates that images of a capable English self are a part of these students' emerging identities. But beyond this commonality, only the *Ideal English self* of the private tutoring group showed any motivational capacity. Although the learners in the present study can form mental simulations of themselves as competent users of English, the type of self-image that leads to the regulation of goal-directed English learning behaviors is largely their imported self-guide (i.e., *Ought-to English self*). In discussing the prerequisites for self-guides as a motivational force, past literature has specified that the future self-guides need to be perceived as plausible, in harmony with an individual's self-concept, regularly activated, and accompanied with concrete strategies leading to a desired end state (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Moreover, motivational self-guides encompass mental imagery that is specific and detailed enough to evoke particular intentions and behaviors (You et al., 2016). Although the learners in the present study *can* imagine an *Ideal English self*, the imagery of becoming a successful English user is probably not yet lucid enough to be a "sensory experience of a future goal state"—in other words, involving imagined realities that can be seen, heard, felt, or tested (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013, p. 455). That is, although teenage learners in the present study were able to imagine themselves using English for communication in the future, details of the imagined scenarios—such as types of language use, interlocutors, and possible international social and vocational communicative contexts—were not tangible or readily available enough to channel motivated learning.

The English learning motivation of Taiwanese adolescent learners who have had English instruction only in the mainstream classrooms is more related to fulfilling obligations and avoiding negative outcomes than that of learners who have had additional out-of-school tutoring. The different predilections revealed in the instrumentality between the two groups may be partially attributed to the dominant exam-oriented instruction typical of secondary schools in Taiwan. With the high pressure,

limited time to complete courses, and constant tests and exams, learning in the mainstream classrooms is often highly competitive. Students with no additional after-school education are predominantly concerned with current obligations and the pressure of academic performance. To obtain or maintain security, they may feel the necessity to study English to avoid receiving poor grades, failing exams, and being considered a bad student. Comparatively, they approach English learning with a propensity for avoidance. That is, in order to fulfill their responsibilities, meet standards, and avoid possible negative outcomes, learners' prevention-oriented regulatory forces drive them to exhibit language learning intentions and motivated behaviors.

While promotion-based instrumentality is not a motivator for students who receive only formal English schooling, it is a pertinent predictor of the willingness of those who have additional private tutoring to invest effort. For students with tutoring, elevating English proficiency is an integral part of their personal advancement: entering prestigious universities, winning scholarships, landing dream jobs, and earning a decent living, for example. English learning is viewed not only as a duty or responsibility, but is a tool of communication vital to personal achievement. Because of the wide variation in quality and the discursive types of instruction in private tutoring that students experienced at the time of research, the comparatively more promotion-oriented instrumentality observed in those with private tutoring may be attributed to their additional exposure to English. Whether effective or not in promoting English proficiency, additional tutoring may allow students extra time and opportunity to find meaning in English learning and transform imposed dispositions into personally identified goals. Compared with their peers who only receive formal schooling, those with tutoring are exposed to more learning hours and the possibility of socializing with additional instructors, tutors, or more capable peers, who could serve as role models, demonstrating success through their use of language (or in examinations). Students with tutoring experiences may hear more stories of how competence in English provides access to academic and professional opportunities and may be more inclined to take goal-achieving approaches that are associated with personal growth.

In the literature on regulatory focus theory, Higgins (1997, 2011) explains that promotion- and prevention-focused motivational orientation predisposes individuals to distinct ways of perceiving goal pursuits, different emotional responses toward success and failure, and contrasting

strategy choices when striving to perform. Promotion- and prevention-focused orientations have their respective strengths and weaknesses in their resulting emotional responses and goal-achieving patterns (Higgins, 2011). Following this line of discussion, promotion and prevention-based instrumentality may both be needed for optimal language learning. In the present study, significantly higher levels of *Instrumentality—promotion* and *Instrumentality—prevention* were found in the group of students who received additional tutoring. This suggests that at the time of research, compared with those who only learned English in the mainstream classrooms, students with additional tutoring not only manifested stronger orientation in learning English for the purpose of pursing personal accomplishment, but also perceived a greater sense of obligation in elevating their English proficiency. For effective self-regulation, balance and constraints on both the promotion- and prevention-focused systems are required to maintain persistence when pursuing goals (Higgins, 2000, 2011). In language learning, for example, prevention-focused concerns involving safety, caution, and sustained commitment may be more predominant when learners are dealing with high-stakes examinations. In contrast, more promotion-focused thinking, which endorses the consideration of alternative routes to success, may be more productive when planning for one's educational or career outlook. Effective self-regulation requires flexibility in shifting concerns between promotion- and prevention-focused instrumentality when approaching various tasks and "pursuing [short-term or long-term] goals using means that fit learners' underlying motivational orientation" (Scholer & Higgins, 2012, p. 80). In this sense, seeing the two types of instrumentality not as static and mutually exclusive entities, but as two evolving and dynamically related systems—a conceptualization compatible with the growing understanding of L2 motivation as a complex dynamic system (Dörnyei, Henry, & MacIntyre, 2014)—will shed light on future regulatory focus and investigations into L2 motivation.

It should be noted that although attendance of private tutoring seems to be related to young learners' motivation and perceived motivated behaviors, findings from the present study do not show a simple cause-and-effect relationship between private tutoring attendance and L2 motivation. In other words, it cannot be ascertained whether private tutoring experience is the cause of enhanced intention to invest effort and a more developed vision of the future or the outcome of promotion-focused

instrumentality and an emerging self. In other words, learners who are highly motivated and have personal goals may view English learning as personally important and therefore seek private tutoring. Should this be the case, a concern arising from the findings of the present study is whether motivational disparities between those with and without private tutoring would lead to the phenomenon of "the better get better." Past private tutoring research exploring academic subjects such as mathematics has reported that in contexts where formal schooling is highly competitive, learning in the private sector is more popular among students with better academic achievement, stronger self-confidence, instrumental motivation, and ambition for academic success (Song et al., 2013). If students who are already highly motivated to learn English seek additional learning opportunities outside the mainstream, either voluntarily or with the support of family, it is very likely that their aspirations and emerging visions are frequently rehearsed and solidified through extensive goal-directed learning. The motivational gap between students with and without additional instruction may widen and have long-term effects, as those who struggle with low motivation due to a lack of rich learning experience may lose their competitive advantage as early as secondary school.

The significance of *English learning attitude* and *English learning experiences* in predicting effort and investment suggests that a positive attitude toward learning and one's experiences in the immediate learning context are salient motivators. These were as important as, if not more crucial than, future self-guides for the Taiwanese young adolescents of this study. Since an individual's capacity to envision a future self might only begin to emerge in adolescence (Dörnyei, 2009), the prominent role of positive learning experiences has been emphasized in past literature exploring adolescent English learners' motivation (e.g., Lamb, 2012). The consensus arising from research into adolescent learners seems to suggest that even with the differences observed between those with and without private tutoring, young English learners can be energized through well-designed curricula and tasks that facilitate intrinsic interests in English learning. The challenge for mainstream school teachers in Taiwan, or those in other similar exam-oriented learning settings, lies in creating engaging and enjoyable learning experiences within a context of ongoing competition. Teachers in the mainstream may need to prioritize the curricular goals to help young adolescent learners cope with academic pressure and transform obligations into personally identified

goals, thereby promulgating the relevance of English to students' futures.

The differential motivational characteristics of students with and without tutoring suggest that private tutoring plays a role in adolescent learners' self-related motivation. Moreover, the importance of favorable English learning experiences and attitudes in predicting motivated behaviors entails that it is vital for future L2 motivation studies to examine language learners' learning experiences in diverse contexts. How young learners find congruence in their sense of self when facing dissonances between learning in the mainstream, where there are various levels of competition, and learning in the private sector, where English learning is commoditized, may be fruitfully explored through a longitudinal qualitative approach that documents the complex reality of learning experiences from the eyes of learners. Such exploration might improve our understanding of how individuals interpret learning experiences and perceive affordances across contexts—specifically, how meanings ascribed to goal pursuits and self-regulatory efforts in one setting are recursively carried to and implicated in another to inform identity formation. The question of whether or to what extent private tutoring is in competition with and/or impacts the mainstream classroom can best be answered through longitudinal designs with a temporal perspective on motivational processes.

## LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

As suggested above, one limitation of the present study is that those with promotional instrumentality and personalized goals in English learning may perceive English as personally important and therefore seek private tutoring. Moreover, the students with private tutoring experiences may be from families of better socioeconomic resources and have parents who placed high regard on English learning. Students' family background and parents' willingness to send their children for private tutoring may be a deciding reason in whether young adolescent students receive private English tutoring. To be sure, no causality in the effectiveness of private tutoring can be assumed. Yet, it does seem that private tutoring has a role in influencing adolescent learners' English learning motivation. While past literature has reported that private tutoring creates a disparity in English proficiency among secondary students in Taiwan, this study further suggests that participation in private English tutoring itself may be a key factor in students' differing

motivational dispositions. It remains to be explored whether the difference in self-related motivation observed between those in the study with and without tutoring will grow wider and eventually contribute to a greater disparity in English proficiency.

Another limitation that needs to be recognized is the history of learning in the private sector. The current study considered adolescent learners' learning within the past 12 months. That is, the grouping variable was determined based on whether secondary students received private English tutoring within the past 12 months. Although the decision was made so that results would be comparable to past quantitative shadow education studies (e.g., Bray & Kobakhidze, 2015; Zhan et al., 2013), it may be that students received some form of private English tutoring in their primary years. Consideration of students' full history of private tutoring may be useful in future investigations, as "English learning in the early years … appears to be conducive to setting the stage for forming learners' ideal L2 selves" (Miyahara, 2014, p. 228).

Private English tutoring in Taiwan embraces a broad range of modes. While the current study contributes to the literature by delineating the self-related motivational differences between secondary students with and without additional instruction, the varying nature in content and quality of private tutoring was not within its scope. In today's ever diversifying private sector, it remains to be investigated how language learners come to pursue their desired identities from accumulated experiences across learning contexts. For example, in private tutoring with large classes, teacher-centered instruction of examination strategies may provide different grounds for a teenage learner's self-image to emerge from tutoring that takes the form of small conversational English classes aiming to provide communicative opportunities. As private English tutoring remains to be fully documented and theorized, future inquiries could benefit from not only investigating the quality and effectiveness of various modes of private tutoring, but also comparing how teaching approaches such as form-focused instruction or communicative tasks (e.g. information gap tasks) are implemented in the mainstream and in the private sector to enhance learning motivation. Moreover, as some private tutoring organizations are known for their specialty in teaching examination skills and strict regulation of learning content and schedules, it is likely that such instruction may deprive students of the opportunities to practice self-regulation and autonomous learning, resulting in subsequent reduced ownership of English learning.

Indeed, the influences of private tutoring experiences on language learning motivation can only be comprehensively captured through a longitudinal perspective.

A pedagogical challenge implicated in the present study is to find ways to nurture and maintain young learners' developing conceptions of themselves as competent English users in formal schooling. In doing this, teachers may need to first understand students' identity concerns, including their current self-concept beliefs and the kinds of learning experiences, both in mainstream and private institutes, in which the students are engaging. Reflective exercises (e.g., written narratives or paired discussions) requiring students to relate their learning experiences across different contexts to their level of interest and motivation toward English learning, their short-term and long-term goals, and their effort investment would provide invaluable access to understanding students' identity concerns and lived experiences (Mercer, 2011). Though we have yet to find out the impact of private English tutoring on mainstream English learning, its growing popularity has made it critical for teachers in the mainstream to take into consideration their students' past and current private tutoring experiences so they can better help students negotiate the boundaries of in- and out-of-school learning while they envisage a plausible future self.

It should be emphasized that this article does not intend to problematize teaching practices in the mainstream nor endorse the value of private tutoring. Rather, it sees the motivational disparity among differential learning experiences as worrying evidence of possible social stratification and unequal access to educational resources. Echoing Hamid et al. (2009) and Yung (2015), private English tutoring is in need of substantial research, and TESOL as a field should remain aware of this industry. In the present study, almost half of the students from public secondary schools across Taiwan were undertaking private English tutoring, and this learning cannot be overlooked if the nature of students' English learning experiences is to be understood in an era of language globalization. Further research into the interaction of learning experiences in mainstream schooling and in the private sector may uncover how learning motivation develops under disparate settings, thereby giving policymakers a yardstick with which to establish regulations for private tutoring.

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**APPENDIX**

**Questionnaire Items**

**Ideal English Self (9 items; Alpha = .95)**
I can imagine myself using English for communicating with people.
我可以想像自己用英文與人溝通。
I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues.
我可以想像自己用英文和外國朋友或同事說話。
Whenever I think of my future career, I can imagine myself using English.
當我想起未來的工作，我能想像自己用英文交流。
I can imagine myself reading in English in the future.
我能想像自己未來是個讀得懂英文的人。
I can imagine myself listening to English in the future.
我能想像自己未來是個聽得懂英文的人。
I can imagine myself speaking English in the future
我能想像自己未來是個會說英文的人。
I can imagine myself writing in English in the future.
我能想像自己未來是個會寫英文的人。
I can imagine myself using English effectively for listening, speaking, reading, and writing. 我能想像自己可以流利地用英文聽說讀寫。
I can imagine a time when I can speak English with speakers from other countries.
我能想像自己用英文和來自各國的人士說話。
**Ought-to English Self (3 items; Alpha = .90)**
Learning English is what I have to do.
I should be able to use English for listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
I have to learn English well.
**Relational Influences (4 items; Alpha = .88)**
I have to learn English well in order to gain the approval of people around me (e.g., parents and friends).
I learn English because people around me (e.g., parents and friends) think English is important.
Learning English is necessary because people around me (e.g., parents and friends) think I should do it.
People around me (e.g., parents and friends) believe that I must study English to be an educated person.
**English Learning Experience in Formal Schooling (9 items; Alpha = .96)**
I like the atmosphere of my English classes at school.
I like the teaching materials of my English classes at school.
I like the teaching ways of my English teacher at school.
I like the activities of my English classes at school.
I find learning English really interesting at school.

I always look forward to English classes at school.
I really enjoy learning English at school.
I think time passes faster while studying English at school.
I would like to have more English lessons at school.
**English Learning Experience in Private Tutoring (9 items; Alpha = .96)**
I like the atmosphere of my English classes in private tutoring.
I like the teaching materials of my English classes in private tutoring.
I like the teaching ways of my English teacher in private tutoring.
I like the activities of my English classes in private tutoring.
I find learning English really interesting in private tutoring.
I always look forward to English classes in private tutoring.
I really enjoy learning English in private tutoring.
I think time passes faster while studying English in private tutoring.
I would like to have more English lessons in private tutoring.
**Instrumentality—Promotion (5 items; Alpha = .94)**
Learning English is useful in getting a good job.
A high level of English proficiency will help me make money.
Studying English is useful for promotion.
Learning English is important because I think I'll need it for further studies.
Learning English is important to me in order to obtain a degree or scholarship.
**Instrumentality—Prevention (4 items; Alpha = .83)**
If I don't have knowledge of English, I'll be considered a weak student.
I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it.
Studying English is necessary because I don't want to get a poor score or a fail mark in English proficiency tests.
Studying English is important to me because I would feel ashamed if I got bad grades in English.
**English Learning Attitude (5 items; Alpha = .96)**
I think that learning English is interesting.
I really enjoy learning English.
I hate learning English.
Learning English is a waste of time.
I think that learning English is dull.
**Intended Learning Effort (9 items; Alpha = .94)**
If an English course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.
I am working hard at learning English.
I think I am doing my best to learn English.
I would like to spend lots of time studying English.
I would like to concentrate on studying English more than any other topic.
Compared with my classmates, I think I study English relatively hard.
I would like to study English even if I were not required.
If English were not taught in school, I would try to go to English classes somewhere else.

When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English classes, I immediately ask people for help.

**Perceived Class Involvement (5 items; Alpha = .83)**

I preview the lessons before having English classes at school.
I take notes of important content in English classes at school.
I submit papers and assignments on time.
I concentrate and participate actively in English classes at school
I review the lessons after having English classes.

**Perceived Voluntary Learning (4 items; Alpha = .88)**

I voluntarily practice English outside classes.
I try to use English whenever possible (e.g., express my thoughts in English).
I participate in activities that require using English to communicate.
To improve my English, I listen to songs, watch movies, and read magazines in English.

# 課外補習與青少年英語學習動機：以自我系統為視角

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本研究旨在探討具課外英語補習經驗與無課外英語補習經驗之台灣青少年在英語學習中的自我概念及學習動機是否差異。研究以「第二語言動機自我系統」為理論框架，針對 11-16 歲就讀於台灣公立國中的 1,698 位青少年進行問卷調查。結果發現，具英語課外補習經驗之青少年較無補習經驗之學生有更高的英語學習意願及更頻繁的學習行為。多元回歸分析顯示兩組學生之自我形成及動機取向具相同及差異處。「應然我」、「學習態度」及「學習經驗」對於兩組台灣國中生之英語學習動機有顯著預測力。「預防傾向的實用型動機」可有效預測無補習經驗學生的英語學習動機。「理想我」及「促進傾向的實用型動機」則只對具補習經驗學生的學習動機有預測力。本研究強調語言學習動機研究需涵蓋不同場域之學習經驗，始能提供理論建構及法規訂定上更具體的建議。

**關鍵詞：**語言習得動機與自我、青少年、學習經驗