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1 Running head: TEACHERS' USE OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

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4 What Determines Teachers' Use of Motivational Strategies in the Classrooms? A Self-

5 Determination Theory Perspective

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Abstract

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This purpose of the current study was to examine the antecedents of teachers' use of motivational strategies in the classroom using self-determination theory. A total of 221 secondary school teachers from 10 schools in Singapore took part in the study. It was found that teachers' autonomous causality orientation, perceived job pressure, and teachers' perception of student self-determined motivation influenced teachers' need satisfaction. Teachers' need satisfaction had a positive direct impact on autonomous motivation and small effect on controlled motivation. In addition, teachers' perception of their students' self-determined motivation directly predicted teachers' use of three motivational strategies in the classroom. Finally, teachers' autonomous motivation positively predicted providing instrumental help and support and meaningful rationale, while controlled motivation negatively predicted providing instrumental help and support. In conclusion, if teachers perceived that there is pressure from school authority in the way they teach, their psychological needs satisfaction may be thwarted, this in turn, may affect their resultant motivation. In addition, it is shown that school authority and evaluation based on students' performance contributed to controlled motivation. Previous research has shown that teachers perceived constraints at work negatively predicted their self-determined motivation (Pelletier et al., 2001, Taylor et al., 2008). It is important for school leaders to allow reasonable flexibility in the way teacher teach in the classroom.

Keywords: teacher motivation, perceived job pressure, student motivation, motivational strategies

1 **What Determines Teachers' Use of Motivational Strategies in the Classrooms? A Self-**
2 **Determination Theory Perspective**

3 It is known that students' motivation is linked to many positive learning effects. Despite its
4 importance, motivation is not a key focus of today's education system (McKay, 2015).
5 Highly motivated students have been identified with being enthusiastic, interested, engaged,
6 and curious, and they also actively cope with challenges and setbacks (Reeve, 2009;
7 Richmond, 1990; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). When students are
8 more engaged in learning, they tend to perform better academically. These positive outcomes
9 are often the results of teachers' use of adaptive motivational strategies used in the classroom
10 (Wang et al., 2017). The purpose of the current study was to examine the factors that
11 influence teachers' use of motivational strategies in the classroom.

12 The self-determination theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2017) has been widely adopted in
13 understanding as well as predicting motivation in the classroom. SDT is a macro-theory of
14 human motivation that assumes that humans have evolved to be inherently curious,
15 physically active, deeply social beings. They are constantly seeking to master their internal
16 and external environment. SDT posits that intrinsic motivation is linked to personal needs of
17 autonomy (the need to feel ownership of one's behavior), competence (the need to produce
18 desired outcomes and to experience mastery), and relatedness (the need to feel connected to
19 others) being fulfilled (Ryan & Deci, 2017). These three innate psychological needs, when
20 fulfilled, would lead to intrinsic motivation. However, if these three needs are thwarted or
21 frustrated, intrinsic motivation will be undermined. In the context of education, if teachers
22 create a classroom environment whereby their students experience need satisfaction, that is,
23 the extent in which the three psychological needs are being fulfilled, they are more likely to
24 be intrinsically motivated towards learning a particular subject.

1 Research on SDT suggests that intrinsic motivation results in higher quality learning
2 and can be attributed to individuals flourishing in contexts that satisfy human needs for
3 autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The satisfaction of these three
4 needs is associated with psychological well-being, whereas the failure to satisfy these needs
5 is associated with deficits in well-being, and the development of need substitutes. Intrinsic
6 motivation has been found to be predictive of positive behavioural, cognitive as well as
7 affective outcomes (Vallerand et al., 1993). In the context of education, different forms of
8 motivation were related to variations in educational outcomes such as effort, positive
9 emotions experienced in class, psychological adjustment in school, quality conceptual
10 learning, persistence in school, interest, concentration, and satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

11 There are two main forms of motivation: Controlled motivation and autonomous
12 motivation. Controlled motivation derived from external and introjected regulation (Ryan &
13 Deci, 2017). External regulation is the motivation to perform a behaviour to satisfy an
14 external form of contingency, such as rewards, threats or deadlines. Behaviour done due to
15 external regulation has the least autonomy; and tends to be more controlled. Introjected
16 regulation refers to internalization in which a person accepts a value or regulatory process but
17 does not identify with and accept it as his or her own (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994).
18 An individual with introjected regulation would persist in a behaviour because of guilt or
19 shame. On the other hand, autonomous motivation derived from identified and intrinsic
20 regulations. Identified regulation occurs when a behaviour is performed due to a conscious
21 valuing of a behavioural goal, such that it is accepted or seen as personally important (Ryan
22 & Deci, 2000). It is characterized by feelings of 'want' rather than 'ought'. Intrinsic
23 motivation occurs when the behavior is done solely for its own sake or enjoyment.

24 Autonomous motivation was found to be positively related with most adaptive
25 qualities, such as effort, positive emotions, persistence, interest, and satisfaction, whilst

1 controlled motivation negatively correlated with these qualities (Vallerand et al., 1993).
2 Hence, students display adaptive qualities when placed in conditions which are autonomous,
3 and where focus is on self-improvement (Spray, Wang, Biddle, & Chatzisarantis, 2006). Past
4 research investigating SDT in education has found that students with more autonomous
5 reasons to participate in a physical activity lesson were more inclined to compare themselves
6 against normative standards as opposed to their peers, as well as displayed a greater
7 perceived competence (Spray & Wang, 2001). Furthermore, intentions have been found to be
8 a huge predictor of subsequent action in a physical activity setting when these intentions are
9 autonomous, rather than controlling (Chatzisarantis, Biddle, & Meek, 1997). In sum, there is
10 clear evidence to suggest that need satisfaction is important for promoting intrinsic
11 motivation in learning.

12 To this end, the issue of intrinsic motivation is an important area of study for
13 educators, as the right motivation could help develop a wellspring of learning while the
14 absence of it could result in the students' motivation to study being undermined by teachers'
15 and parents' practices (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Hence, because intrinsic motivation plays a
16 crucial role in learning, it is essential to identify the factors, which could possibly facilitate or
17 undermine it.

18 As teachers and educationalists generally agree that intrinsic motivation is essential
19 for quality in learning and underpins the drive for self-directed learning, the next question lies
20 in how intrinsic motivation can be nurtured by these teachers in the classroom setting.

21 Autonomy supportive classroom structures have been found to play an important role in
22 enhancing motivation in secondary students (Kee, Wang, Lim, & Liu, 2012; Reeve, 2016). In
23 another study, Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, and Ryan (1981), assessed reports from teachers of
24 public elementary schools with regards to their orientations towards supporting students'
25 autonomy versus controlling their behavior, and showed that students assigned to autonomy-

1 supportive teachers reported increased intrinsic motivation, perceived competence, and self-
2 esteem over time. Several other studies were also conducted with the same conclusion that
3 teachers' orientations, as well as specific aspects of the learning task that are perceived to be
4 autonomy supportive, helped to increase intrinsic motivation in students (see Niemiec &
5 Ryan, 2009).

6 However, there is a lack of research from the teachers' perspective in terms of the
7 antecedents of teachers' effective use of motivational strategies in the classroom from the
8 SDT framework. One of the few studies conducted was in the physical education classroom.
9 Papaioannou, Marsh, and Theodorakis (2004) found that positive classroom climate (task-
10 involving climate) created by the physical education (PE) teachers predicts positive outcomes
11 at a later time. Therefore, teachers' use of motivational strategies tended to have an impact on
12 students' motivation.

13 There are three broad motivational strategies that teachers can use to facilitate the
14 above mentioned three psychological needs (Taylor, Ntoumanis, & Standage, 2008). The first
15 strategy is to gain an understanding of the students by fostering meaningful affiliations,
16 resulting in relatedness. By fostering meaningful affiliations between teachers and students,
17 students can feel a greater sense of belonging in the classroom. The second strategy is to
18 provide students with instrumental help and support, offering support and fostering perceived
19 control. For example, provide step-by-step guided solutions if they are faced with difficulties
20 in answering the questions. This in turn helps enable students to be more competent.
21 Research suggests that providing instrumental support also increases the likelihood of
22 successful outcomes, especially in the classroom (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). The final
23 strategy is to provide a meaningful rationale behind tasks. It was discovered that by doing so,
24 it helped to promote positive feelings and engagement by providing a link between the
25 students' personal goals and their schoolwork, hence enabling students to feel a sense of

1 autonomy. These three strategies are not commonly used in the classroom despite research
2 evidence and theoretical support for its adaptive role (Reeve et al., 2014). Observations have
3 shown that at times, teachers use controlling strategies, rather than autonomy-supporting
4 strategies as their primary motivational tool in the classroom (Newby, 1991).

5 The psychological need satisfaction of teachers may have an influence on the learning
6 climate they create for their students or the strategies they used. The more teachers' needs
7 were being fulfilled, the more they tried to gain an understanding of their students, provide
8 them with help, and provide a meaningful rationale and choice to students (Taylor et al.,
9 2008). Therefore the more self-determined a teacher feels the more they are likely to create a
10 self-determined learning climate for students. Furthermore, teachers with autonomous
11 motivation were found to be more likely to be student-centered or utilize productive teaching
12 styles, whereas teachers with non-autonomous motivation were found to be more teacher-
13 centered or utilize reproductive teaching styles (Hein et al., 2012). Although the naturally
14 occurring motivational styles of teachers are fairly stable, teachers are still able to learn how
15 to be more autonomy supportive to students (Reeve, 2012; 2016).

16 Previous studies have found that teachers' causality orientation, their perception of
17 job pressure, and students' motivation predicted teachers' need satisfaction (Taylor et al.,
18 2008). According to SDT, personal disposition is also able to play a key role in predicting
19 teachers' use of motivational strategies, particularly autonomy support (Taylor et al., 2008).
20 More specifically, Deci and Ryan (1985) stated that individuals have a disposition towards
21 autonomy, termed autonomous causality orientation, which varies among individuals.
22 Causality orientations are motivational orientations that refer to either the way people orient
23 themselves to an environment and regulate their behaviour because of this, or the extent to
24 which they are self-determined across various settings. A high autonomous causality
25 orientation would translate into a generalized tendency towards pursuing opportunities for the

1 sake of self-determination. It was found that pre-service teachers with a high autonomous
2 causality orientation displayed more autonomy support as compared to pre-service teachers
3 with a more controlling disposition (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999).

4 Taylor, Ntoumanis and Smith (2009) interviewed physical education (PE) teachers to
5 find out how the teaching context influences their attempts to motivate students. The teachers
6 indicated that school-related factors such as the controlling nature of teaching evaluations,
7 time constraint, and pressure from the school administration to conform to certain teaching
8 strategies, all influenced their use of motivational strategies in the PE context. For example,
9 not having enough time for lessons resulted in teachers neglecting students, which can
10 undermine the students' perceived competence (Ames, 1992).

11 Additionally, teachers also highlighted that their behaviour sometimes depends on
12 their students, and how motivated the students are (Taylor et al., 2009). In a study conducted
13 by Pelletier and Vallerand (1996) looking at teacher perceptions of student motivation, they
14 discovered that "teachers" who were told their "students" were intrinsically motivated
15 displayed more autonomy-supportive teaching as compared to "teachers" who were told their
16 "students" were not intrinsically motivated. Moreover, "students" of these autonomy-
17 supportive "teachers" also reported greater intrinsic interest in the experimental task.
18 Therefore teachers' perception of their students' motivation is also able to play a huge role in
19 determining how the teachers structure the teaching and learning environment.

20 In a sequence theorized by Vallerand and Losier (1999), it was stated that social
21 factors, such as teachers' behaviours, have a profound impact on individuals' thought,
22 feelings, and behaviours. In addition, the effects of these social factors on motivation are
23 mediated by perceptions of competence, autonomy, and relatedness, resulted in subsequent
24 outcomes or behaviours. This sequence has also been previously adapted by Taylor et al.
25 (2008), and can be seen in Figure 1. According to the model, three social factors have been

1 identified as antecedents of teachers' need satisfaction. They are autonomous causality
2 orientation, perceived job pressure, as well as teachers' perception of student self-determined
3 motivation. When the teachers' needs are satisfied, they would be self-determined, and this in
4 turn would lead to them attempting to gain understanding of their students, providing
5 instrumental help and support, and providing a meaningful rationale to students. These three
6 types of teacher motivational strategies are adapted from the three broad types of
7 motivational strategies derived from the SDT, namely, involvement, structure, and autonomy
8 support (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Taylor et al. (2008) has shown that the data fit the
9 hypothesized model relatively well (Satorra-Bentler χ^2 (124) = 183.37; CFI = .92; SRMR =
10 .08; RMSEA = .05).

11 **Purposes of the Current Study**

12 Using SDT as a theoretical reference, the current study aims to examine the
13 antecedents that could affect teachers' need satisfaction and self-determination by replicating
14 previous studies. In turn, this study investigates how teachers' motivation influences the use
15 of motivational strategies in the classroom.

16 We adapted the model of antecedents of teachers' motivation in Taylor et al.'s (2008)
17 work, and seek to investigate the antecedents which influence the use of motivational
18 strategies of teachers in the classroom. Based on the aforementioned research, we tested the
19 revised model of Taylor and his colleagues in the classroom setting. We extended the
20 previous work in three ways. First, instead of having part latent factors and part measured
21 variables in the structural equation modeling, this study used all measured variables with path
22 analysis. In addition, instead of using perceived job pressure as a combined latent factor, this
23 study used the all three factors in perceived job pressure (time constraint, evaluation and
24 school authority). Finally, this study separated teachers' self-determined motivation into

1 autonomous (intrinsic and identified) motivation and controlled (introjected and external)
2 motivation. This approach focuses on the interrelationships between the variables.

3 It is hypothesized that autonomous causality orientation, perceived job pressure (time
4 constraint, evaluation based on students' performance, and school authority) and teachers'
5 perceptions of student self-determined motivation directly influence teacher's need
6 satisfaction, and autonomous causality orientation also have a direct influence on teachers'
7 autonomous motivation. Teachers' need satisfaction have direct and indirect (through
8 teachers' autonomous and controlled motivation) influence on the use of three motivational
9 strategies in the classroom. This model has not been validated in any other studies or
10 academic context (see Figure 2).

11 **Methods**

12 **Participants**

13 A total of 221 teachers from 10 secondary schools in Singapore took part in the study.
14 There were 99 male teachers and 122 female teachers. The teachers' teaching experience
15 ranged from 1 to 40 years (mean years = 9.54, sd = 8.59). Majority of the teachers were Math
16 and/or Science teachers (67%); the rest were teachers of other subjects such as English
17 language, Chinese language, Design and Technology, Arts, Humanities and Social Studies.
18 All these schools were coeducational government schools in Singapore.

19 **Procedure**

20 Ethical approval was sought from the university Ethical Review Board. Permission to
21 collect data with the teachers was obtained from the Ministry of Education and the principals
22 of the schools. Emails were sent to school principals for their voluntary participation in the
23 study. The researcher then followed up with schools that agreed to participate to arrange for
24 the administration of the questionnaire. The participants took about 20 minutes to complete
25 the questionnaire. Before responding to the questionnaires, participants were informed about

1 the nature of the research project and that participating in the study was voluntary, and they
2 could withdraw at any time. In addition, the participants were told that their confidentiality
3 would be maintained. Informed consent of the participants was then obtained.

4 **Measures**

5 ***Perceived Job Pressure.*** Ten items were adopted from a previously designed
6 questionnaire used to assess perceived job pressure in physical education teachers (Taylor et
7 al., 2008). The original questionnaire was designed to assess three work-related types of
8 pressure (time constraints, school authorities, and evaluation based on students' performance)
9 that physical education teachers have reported as affecting their choice of motivational
10 strategies, however, for the purpose of this study; the questions will be modified to reflect a
11 classroom environment. There were four items measuring time constraints (e.g., "I am
12 sometimes rushing to complete my lessons"), three items measuring evaluation based on
13 students' performance (e.g., "I am held responsible for student performance standards"), and
14 three items measuring school authorities (e.g., "I wish I could teach in certain ways, but
15 school policy doesn't allow it"). Responses were reported on a 7-point scale ranging from 1
16 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*).

17 ***Autonomous Causality Orientation.*** The General Causality Orientations Scale
18 (GCOS; Deci & Ryan, 1985) was used to assess causality orientation in the teachers. The
19 original GCOS consists of 12 vignettes and 36 items. Each vignette describes a typical social
20 or achievement situation, and is followed by 3 types of responses; autonomous (the extent a
21 person is oriented towards things in the environment, which simulate intrinsic motivation),
22 controlled (the extent an individual feels controlled by external factors) and impersonal (the
23 extent a person experiences behavior as out of his or her control). For the purpose of this
24 study, we followed Taylor et al.'s (2008) study in using the autonomous orientation items

1 from the eight vignettes. Questions are anchored by a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*very*
2 *unlikely*) to 7 (*very likely*).

3 ***Teachers' Perceptions of Student Self-Determination.*** A questionnaire developed by
4 Goudas, Biddle, and Fox (1994) was adapted to measure the teachers' perceptions of their
5 students' motivational regulations. Subscales in the questionnaire will measure intrinsic
6 motivation (3 items, e.g., "Because they think the lesson is fun"), identified regulation (3
7 items, e.g., "Because they want to learn something new"), introjected regulation (4 items,
8 e.g., "Because they'll feel bad if they don't"), external regulation (4 items, e.g., "because they
9 will get punished if they don't"). Responses will be reported on a 7-point scale ranging from
10 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*). A relative autonomy index was computed based on the sum
11 of external regulation (-2), introjected regulation (-1), identified regulation (+1), and intrinsic
12 regulation (+2). The index reflects the degree of self-determination on the self-determination
13 continuum.

14 ***Psychological Need Satisfaction.*** Satisfaction of the three psychological needs of
15 autonomy (3 items), competence (3 items) and relatedness (3 items) of the teachers was
16 measured using the Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale (BNSAW; Deci et al., 2001). An
17 example item of competence was "Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from
18 working", an example item for autonomy was "I am free to express my ideas and opinions on
19 the job" and an example for relatedness was "People at work care about me". Responses are
20 anchored on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*).

21 ***Teachers' Self-Determination.*** The short version of the Teachers' self-determination
22 toward their work was measured using the Work Motivation Inventory (WMI; Blais,
23 Lachance, Vallerand, Brière, & Riddle, 1993). Questions followed the stem, "Why do I
24 teach?" followed by 12 items (3 items for each subscale) that measure the types of
25 motivational regulation hypothesised by SDT, namely intrinsic motivation (e.g., "because I

1 derive much pleasure from learning new things”), identified motivation (e.g., “because it is
2 the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives”), introjected motivation
3 (e.g., “because I want to be very good at teaching, otherwise I would be very disappointed”),
4 and external motivation (e.g., “because it allows me to earn money”). Responses will be
5 reported on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*does not correspond at all*) to 7 (*corresponds*
6 *exactly*). We created composite scores for autonomous and controlled motivation by
7 averaging the subscales of intrinsic and identified and introjected and external regulation,
8 respectively (Vansteenkiste, Sierens, Soenens, Luyckx, & Lens, 2009).

9 ***Teachers' Use of Three Motivational Strategies.*** Teachers' use of the three
10 motivational strategies was measured using a 10 item questionnaire from the teacher version
11 of the Teacher as Social Context Questionnaire (TASCQ; Wellborn, Connell, Skinner, &
12 Pierson, 1988) used in Taylor et al.'s study (2008). Three of the items measure teachers'
13 provision of instrumental help and support (e.g., “I show my students different ways to
14 complete tasks”), three items measure their provision of a meaningful rationale (e.g., “I
15 explain to my students why we learn certain things in class”), and the last four items measure
16 their attempts to gain an understanding of students (e.g., “I know my students well”).
17 Responses will be reported on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*).

18 **Data Analysis**

19 A series of Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine the
20 factorial validity of all the measures using EQS for Windows 6.3 (Bentler, 2006). The
21 internal consistency coefficients (alpha) of the scales were also computed. Descriptive
22 statistics and the Pearson product-moment correlations of the main variables were tabulated.

23 Due to the small sample size used in this study, we used path analysis to test the
24 network of relationships between social factors, teachers' need satisfaction, motivation
25 regulation, and use of three motivational strategies using EQS for Windows 6.3 with the

1 robust Maximum Likelihood Estimation method. In the evaluation of model fit to the data,
2 the following indices were used: Bentler-Bonett normed fit index (NFI), the comparative fit
3 index (CFI); Bollen's Fit Index (IFI) and the mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).
4 For the NFI, CFI, and IFI, the conventional cut-off values of close to 0.90 were used (Hu &
5 Bentler, 1999). For RMSEA, we used the value close to .08 as the cut-off. The chi-square
6 statistic and the degree of freedom are also presented.

7 Model modifications were investigated through the use of the Wald and Lagrange
8 Multiplier (LM) tests after testing the hypothesized model. The LM tests whether any
9 parameters that were set to zero in the model are, in fact, not zero. It tests the effect of adding
10 free parameters to a model (Bentler, 1995; Byrne, 2006). The Wald test assesses whether any
11 free parameters of a model can be restricted without substantial loss of information (Bentler,
12 1995). Given that this is an exploratory study, information provided by these post-hoc
13 modifications could be useful in providing insight to variations of the hypothesised model.
14 However, any variation needs to be justified theoretically.

15 Results

16 Descriptive Statistics

17 The results of the Confirmatory Factory Analysis (CFA) of all the measures are
18 shown in Table 1. All the measurement models showed acceptable fit. The descriptive
19 statistics including means, standard deviation, range, and internal reliabilities of all the
20 variables are presented in Table 2. The internal consistency of all subscales demonstrated
21 acceptable internal reliability ranging from .69 to .84. The teachers reported moderately high
22 in autonomous orientation, need satisfaction, and autonomous regulation. They also reported
23 high usage of the three motivational strategies in the classroom.

24 The zero-order correlations among the key variables are shown in Table 3. In general,
25 teachers' perceived job pressure negatively correlated with provision of instrumental support

1 to their students. Teachers' autonomous orientation was positively related to perceived
2 students' self-determination, need satisfaction, autonomous regulation, and use of
3 motivational strategies. Similarly, perceived students' self-determination and autonomous
4 regulation were positively associated with need satisfaction, and the use of three motivational
5 strategies.

6 The results of the path analysis indicated a poor fit of the hypothesized model to the
7 data [$\chi^2 = 114.18$, $df = 28$, NFI = .755, CFI = .790, IFI = .803, and RMSEA = .118 (.096,
8 .141)]. The Wald Test did not suggest any parameters be dropped for the model but the LM
9 Test revealed a few paths to be added. Firstly, teachers' perception of student self-determined
10 motivation had direct links with the three motivational strategies. Secondly, two of the job
11 pressure factors (school authority and evaluation based on students' performance) had
12 positive link with teacher' controlled motivation. Finally, teachers' autonomous causality
13 orientation had a direct link with gaining understanding of students. These suggested paths
14 can be justified on theoretical ground. Adding these paths resulted in a much improved fit
15 statistics [$\chi^2 = 47.47$, $df = 21$, NFI = .922, CFI = .935, IFI = .940, and RMSEA = .076 (.047,
16 .104)]. The standardised solutions and error variances of the hypothesised model are shown
17 in Figure 3. The revised model accounted for 13.1% variance in gaining understanding of
18 students, 25.3% in providing instrumental help and support, and 19.5% variance in providing
19 meaningful rationale.

20 Discussion

21 The aim of this study was to investigate the antecedents of teachers' use of
22 motivational strategies in the classroom using the SDT framework. Most studies in SDT
23 literature have ignored the need satisfaction and self-determination from the teachers'
24 perspective. This is one of the few studies that examined the antecedents of teachers' use of
25 motivating strategies in the classroom context. The current study extends Taylor et al.'s

1 (2008) study by providing insights to the interrelationships between the key variables in a
2 more detailed manner using path analysis.

3 The descriptive statistics presented a positive outlook of Singapore teachers. It was
4 found that Singapore teachers reported high autonomous causality orientation, need
5 satisfaction, and autonomous regulation. According to SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2017), causality
6 orientations are development outcomes that are influenced over time by social-contextual
7 factors or biological factors that influence the satisfaction of the three psychological needs.
8 Therefore, one interpretation could be that the Singapore education system allows for high
9 degree of autonomy-support to teachers in helping teachers to develop strong autonomy
10 orientations.

11 The results of the path analysis found a few interesting findings. Firstly, autonomous
12 causality orientation, perceived job pressure, and teachers' perception of student self-
13 determined motivation predicted teachers' need satisfaction. This is in line with Taylor et
14 al.'s (2008) study. However, this study went a step further by splitting the perceived job
15 pressure into three factors and found that only perceived pressure from school authority had a
16 negative relationship on teachers' need satisfaction. Time constraints and performance
17 evaluation are not significant predictors of need satisfaction. This may indicate that teachers
18 may accept time constraint and performance evaluation as part and parcel of their job and not
19 to be influenced by these two factors, however, too much control from the school authority
20 may hamper their needs satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

21 Secondly, this study also differentiated teachers' self-determined motivation into
22 autonomous (intrinsic and identified) and controlled (external and introjected) motivation. It
23 was found that autonomous causality orientation had a positive direct effect on autonomous
24 motivation, as well as indirect effect via need satisfaction. Need satisfaction had a small
25 positive relationship with controlled motivation. Two factors of perceived job pressure

1 (school authority and performance evaluation) had positive links with controlled motivation.
2 The current study has extended previous studies in providing clearer relationships between
3 the differentiated motivations. In Taylor et al.'s (2008) study, it was found that need
4 satisfaction and autonomous causality orientation positively predicted teachers' self-
5 determined motivation.

6 Thirdly and the most important finding is that teachers' perception of their students'
7 self-determined motivation directly predicted teachers' use of three motivational strategies in
8 the classroom. This was not found in Taylor et al.'s (2008) study. This suggests that if
9 teachers perceived that their students are intrinsically motivated to learn, they are likely to
10 use all the motivational strategies to maintain or increase students' motivation in their
11 teaching, bypassing teachers' own need satisfaction and motivation. This is a very powerful
12 finding. In one of the very few previous studies, Skinner and Belmont (1993) found that there
13 was reciprocal effects of students' motivation on teachers' behaviours using a qualitative
14 study. This study provides empirical support for previous finding.

15 Finally, teachers' autonomous motivation positively predicted providing instrumental
16 help and support and meaningful rationale, while controlled motivation negatively predicted
17 providing instrumental help and support. The finding is in accordance to SDT (Ryan & Deci,
18 2017). This finding has extended the study of Taylor et al. (2008) in that this study has
19 differentiated the motivation regulation into autonomous and controlled motivation.
20 Teachers' self-determined motivation in autonomous form can promote the use of providing
21 instrumental help and support and rationale to their students. However, controlled motivation
22 may influence teachers not to provide instrumental help and support structure to their
23 students. The current finding found that teachers' motivation to teach directly influence the
24 strategies they use in motivating their students. Implication for school leaders is that teachers'
25 autonomous motivation should be fostered through satisfaction of the three psychological

1 needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness. According to SDT, competence could be
2 enhanced by focusing on professional development of teachers, autonomy could be enhanced
3 through giving teacher more choice and freedom to decide on how they teach in the
4 classroom, relatedness could be enhanced through building sense of belonging to the school,
5 department, and with their students.

6 In summary, the findings of the current study add important dimensions of the
7 influence of teachers' use of motivational strategies in the classroom. Firstly, if teachers
8 perceived that there is pressure from school authority in the way they teach, their
9 psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness may be thwarted, this in turn,
10 may affect their resultant motivation. Secondly, it is shown that school authority and
11 evaluation based on students' performance contributed to controlled motivation. Previous
12 research has shown that teachers perceived constraints at work negatively predicted their self-
13 determined motivation (Pelletier et al., 2001, Taylor et al., 2008). It is important for school
14 leaders to allow reasonable flexibility in the way teacher teach in the classroom.

15 There are a few limitations of the current study that could be addressed by future
16 studies. First, the study is cross-sectional and thus causal relationship cannot be inferred.
17 Second, the sample size of the present study may not be big enough to test a full latent model.
18 Future studies could increase the sample size to allow for this. Third, there were no objective
19 measures such as students' engagement time, frequency and duration of the use of
20 motivational strategies. Fourth, students' variables could be included in future studies to test
21 for multilevel effects of teachers' variables on students' variables as well as the reciprocal
22 effects of these variables. In addition, the use of experimental or intervention studies may add
23 insights into the causal and long term effects of the factors influencing teachers' use of
24 motivational strategies in the classroom, as well as testing each factor systematically. Finally,

TEACHERS' USE OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

- 1 it may be useful for future studies to examine the factors influencing teachers' use of
- 2 controlling or maladaptive motivational strategies in the classroom.
- 3

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7

TEACHERS' USE OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

1 **Table 1**

2 Fit indices for CFA models

Model	SB χ^2	df	SB χ^2 /df	NFI	CFI	IFI	RMSEA (90% CI)
Perceived Job Pressure	32.23	28	1.15	.940	.991	.992	.026 (.000, .060)
Autonomous Orientation	23.19	20	1.16	.904	.985	.986	.027 (.000, .066)
Perception of Student Self-determined Motivation	654.26	65	10.06	.915	.922	.923	.078 (.072, .083)
Need Satisfaction	49.60	24	2.06	.899	.944	.945	.070 (.042, .097)
Teachers' self- determination	64.08	44	1.46	.913	.970	.971	.046 (.016, .068)
Use of Motivational Strategies	31.07	26	1.19	.961	.993	.993	.030 (.000, .064)

3 *Note.* NFI = Robust Normed Fit Index; CFI = robust Comparative Fit Index; IFI = Bollen's
 4 Fit Index; RMSEA (90% CI) = robust Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (90%
 5 confidence interval).

TEACHERS' USE OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

1 **Table 2**

2 *Cronbach's Alphas, Range, Means and Standard Deviations for All Variables*

Variable	α	Range	Mean	SD
1. Time Constraints	.80	1 to 7	4.71	1.17
2. Performance Evaluation	.71	1 to 7	4.79	1.15
3. School Authorities	.69	1 to 7	3.23	1.41
4. Autonomous Orientation	.77	1 to 7	5.84	.61
5. Perception of Student Self-determined Motivation	.74 - .82	-18 to 18	3.72	3.80
6. Need Satisfaction	.70 - .77	1 to 7	5.10	.71
7. Autonomous Regulation	.84	1 to 7	5.01	.90
8. Controlled Regulation	.76	1 to 7	4.11	.96
9. Gaining Understanding	.76	1 to 7	5.32	.80
10. Provide Support	.79	1 to 7	5.32	.91
11. Provide Rationale	.72	1 to 7	5.40	.84

Table 3*Zero-Order Correlations between All Variables of the Overall Sample*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Time Constraints	1.00										
2. Performance Evaluation	.12	1.00									
3. School Authorities	.29**	.35**	1.00								
4. Autonomous Orientation	.04	.07	-.13	1.00							
5. Perception of Student Self-determined Motivation	-.18**	-.04	-.11	.30**	1.00						
6. Need Satisfaction	-.01	-.10	-.27**	.29**	.27**	1.00					
7. Autonomous Regulation	.01	.10	.01	.32**	.16*	.39**	1.00				
8. Controlled Regulation	.04	.30**	.23**	.10	-.06	.11	.48**	1.00			
9. Gaining Understanding	.03	.01	.11	.31**	.30**	.20**	.18**	.07	1.00		
10. Provide Support	-.17**	-.13	-.17*	.29**	.44**	.36**	.25**	-.10	.54**	1.00	
11. Provide Rationale	-.13	.01	-.04	.26**	.32**	.36**	.34**	.05	.42**	.58**	1.00

Note. Student RAI = Perceived Students' Self-determination. * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$.

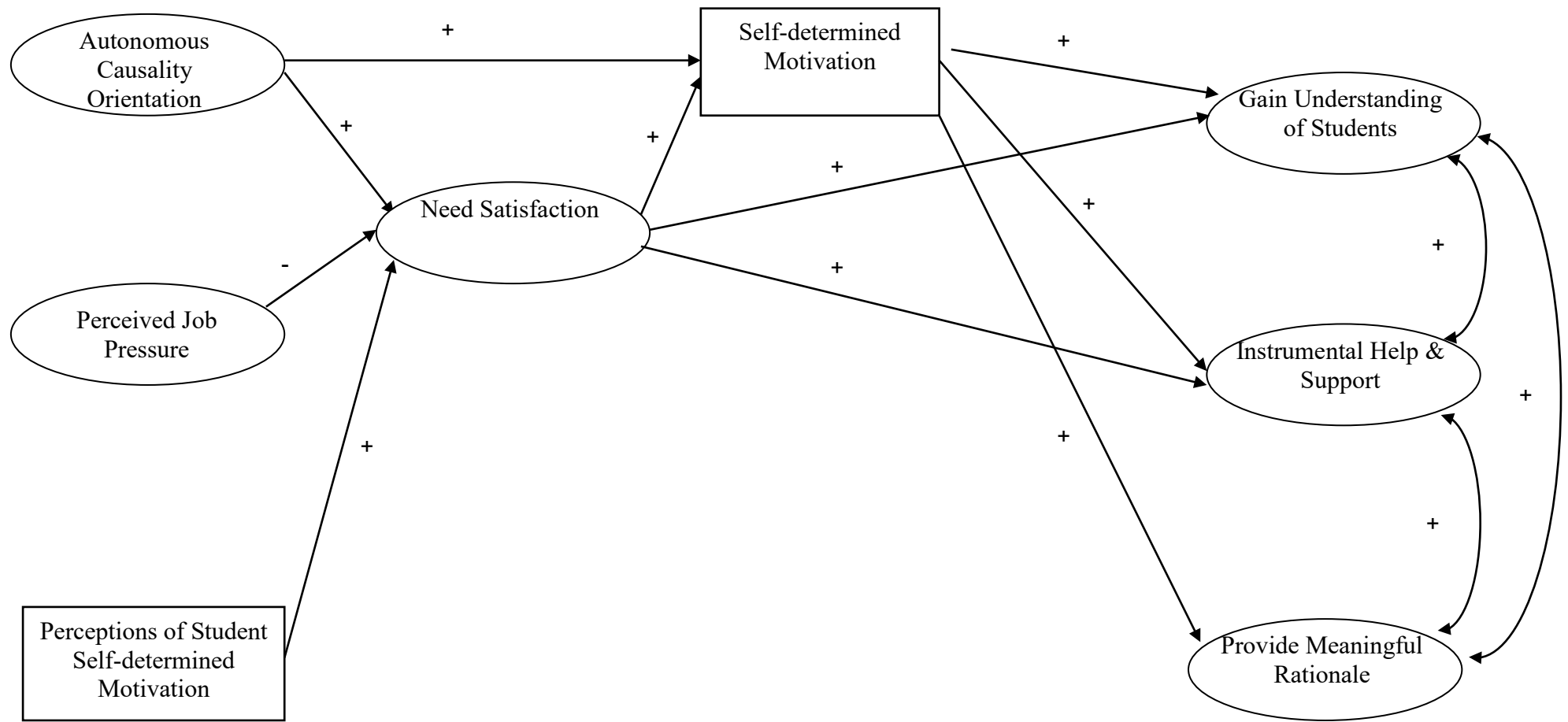


Figure 1. Model of antecedents of teacher motivational strategies in physical education (Taylor et al., 2008)

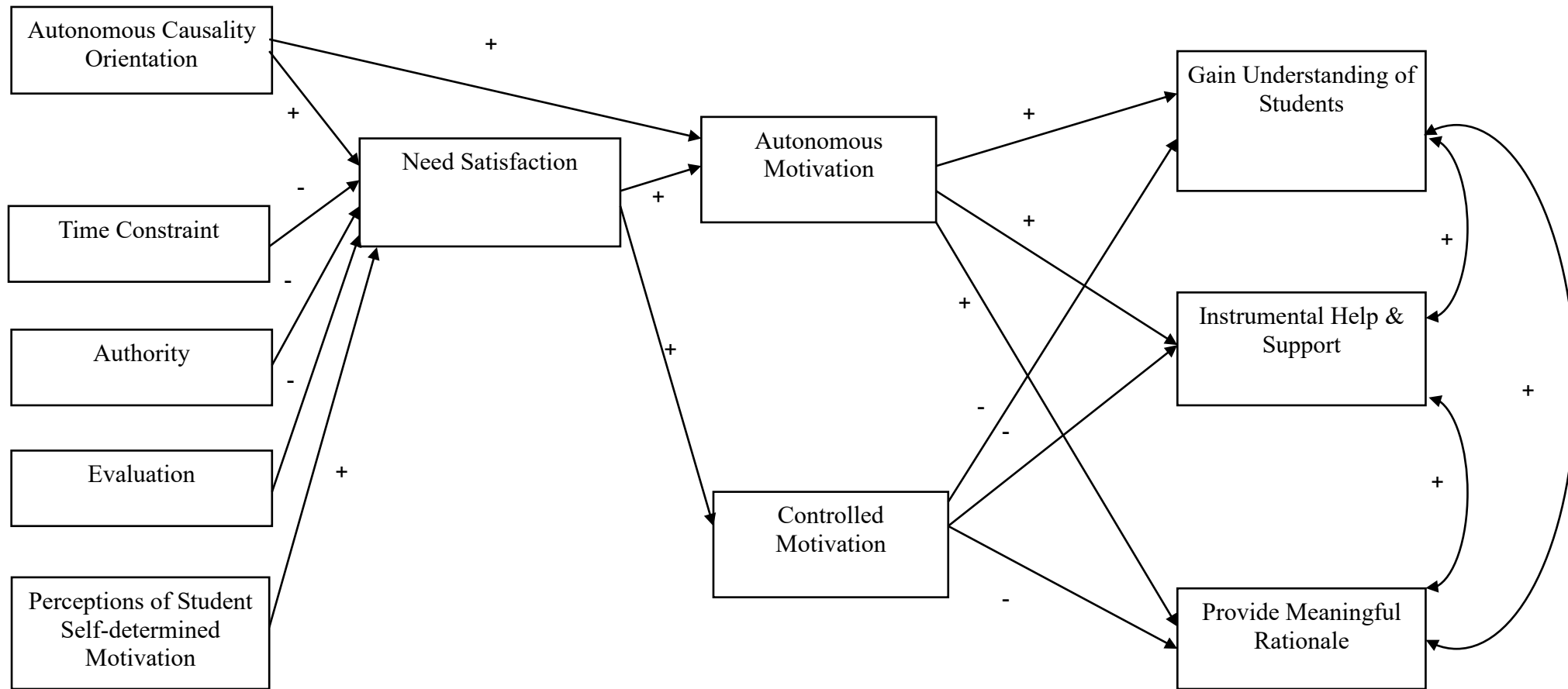


Figure 2. Hypothesized path model of teachers' use of motivational strategies.

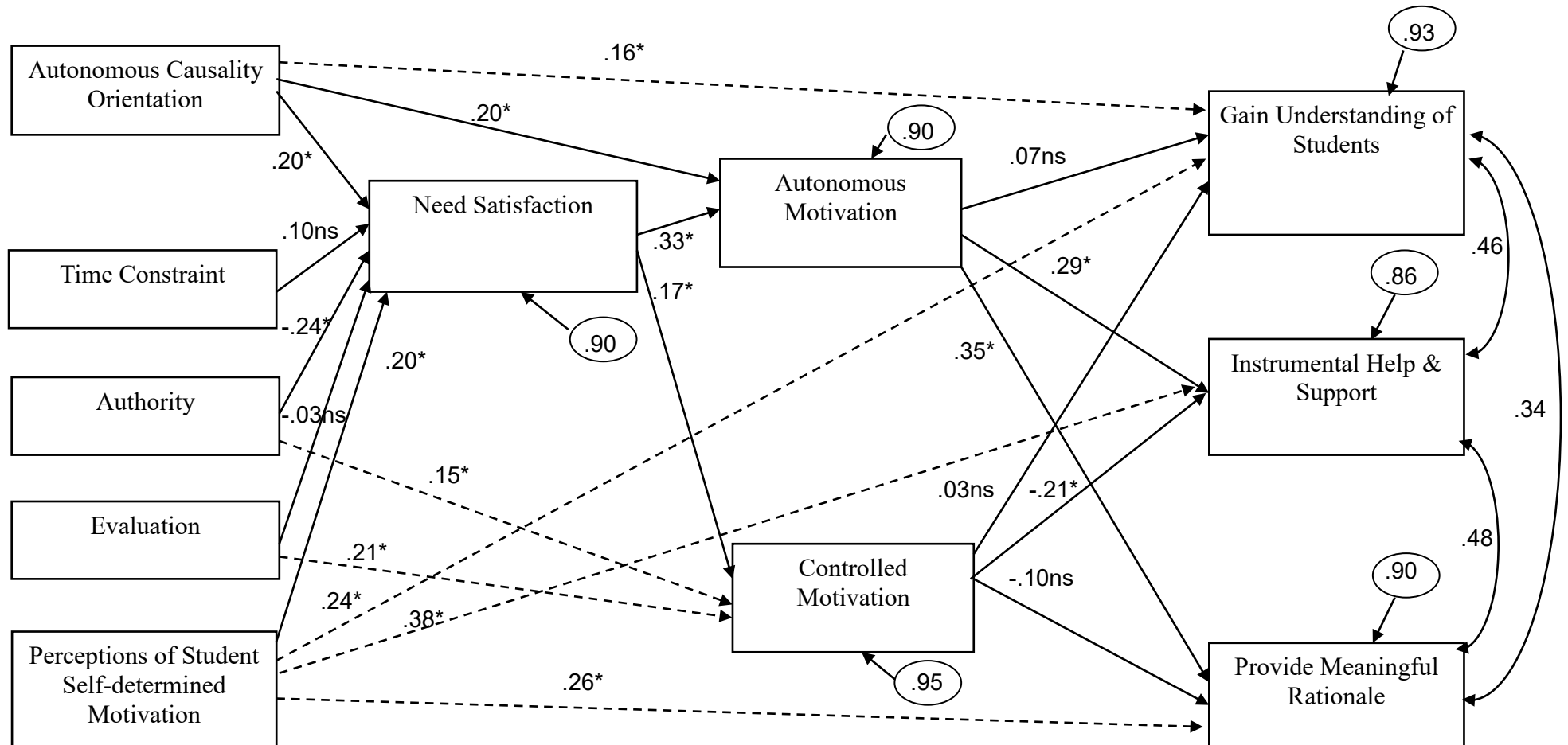


Figure 3. Standardised Solutions of the revised path model of teachers' use of motivational strategies.