Autonomy-Support and Student Motivation in Swedish EFL Classrooms

A Study on Teachers' Autonomy-Supportive Attitudes and Their Impact on the Self-determination and Perceived Autonomy of Swedish EFL Students

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Abstract

Despite discussions in Swedish education that English teaching in Sweden does not provide students with relevant contents that support their learning and motivation, no measurements have been made when it comes to the connection between Swedish students' L2 motivation and pedagogy. The study at hand used a measure of self-determination to examine the L2 motivation of 159 Swedish upper secondary school students taught by six different teachers and a measure of perceived autonomy-support and the relationship between these factors. In addition, the six teachers answered a questionnaire about their autonomy-supportive efforts in the classroom and these were subsequently given a rank on an autonomy-supportive attitude scale. A between-groups analysis compared the different autonomy-supportive attitudes and their effect on students' motivation. Results-wise, students were (1) in general highly motivated to learn English extrinsically but also because the subject was inherently enjoyable. Students also felt autonomy-supported by their teachers; (2) Students' amotivation, perceived autonomy-support and self-determination had a weak relationship with each other ($r = 0.333$; $r = -0.209$; $r = -0.249$; $p < 0.01$); (3) A higher amotivation in groups was found to be the effect of having a teacher with an attitude in-between autonomy-supportive and controlling ($p < 0.05$). Effect size was not measured because of data loss. These results are discussed with plausible implications in teaching practice.

Keywords: EFL, self-determination, autonomy-support, attitudes, Sweden

Table of Contents

Introduction

The Swedish national agency for education has found signs that Swedish EFL classrooms are less challenging and therefore less motivating than they could and ought to be (Skolverket, 2011). There are also assertions that the use of English in Swedish schools is perceived as inauthentic and that it therefore acts less motivating compared to the English used outside of school (see Henry, 2013). Nevertheless, Swedish students have reported a relatively high proficiency according to the European Questionnaire on Language Competences (ESLC) (European Commision, 2012). The use of English outside of Swedish schools has also shown to be extensive (Sundqvist, 2009). As such, Sweden seems to be privileged with English competence and exposure in a manner that almost makes English a second language. However, this in itself is not evidence that Swedish students are, in fact, positively inclined or particularly motivated to study English as a foreign language. While the research area of motivation seems to be well-established in contexts outside of Sweden, it is difficult finding empirical studies measuring students' attitudes to EFL in a Swedish context. In fact, there have been no comprehensive measurements on either motivation to learn English or attitudes toward English in Swedish students since 2004 (see Hyltenstam, 2004). While motivational studies and reports on English teaching are continually being conducted, they will inevitably face difficulties in discussing the matter of motivation when there are no measurements to rely on.

The will to learn English as a foreign language in Swedish classrooms consequently needs to be explored and thoroughly measured. The present study originates from the need to investigate Swedish EFL students' will and volition to study English; it measures not only the amount of motivation but also what kind of motivation that students show, that is, whether Swedish

1

students are learning English because of external goals and rewards or because of inherent needs and desires. Even if this study would confirm that students are very motivated to learn English, this scope would also find what they deem the source of their motivation to be, or, to put it in another way, the *why* of their motivation.

This focus on external and inherent will in human beings spawned when studies in the 1980s investigated whether inherent wishes and desires were in fact bigger drivers of motivation than external rewards and punishments. This typically means that if students were lent the opportunity to prosper by giving them *self-determination,* they would activate in order to achieve goals and fulfill desires within their line of study. Much of the research was generated by the meta theory of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (see Ryan & Deci, 2017; Black & Deci, 2000). Self-determination is a broad framework of different theories in use for the study of human motivation, defined as the process by which a person controls their own life. It is in theory understood as a way of achieving self–fulfillment and motivation. It can be visualized as a spectrum ranging from the lack of motivation, *amotivation*, to least self-determination, *extrinsic motivation* and through to most self-determination, *intrinsic motivation (*Deci & Ryan, 1985*).* One of the more fundamental theories in SDT concerns basic psychological needs. These needs are *autonomy, competence,* and *relatedness.* The theory posits that all of these three needs are necessary in order to provide a foundation for psychological well–being (Ryan & Deci, 2017). While the two last concepts are uncontroversial when it comes to educational practice, giving students autonomy may not be as popular among teachers.

Among teachers in Sweden, there is a debate on whether a pedagogical approach that encourages teachers to take a step back to let their students take charge of their own learning has resulted in disorder and deterioration of results (see Olsson, 2016). This claim has been heavily criticized as having no empirical background material to support the supposed increase in constructivist pedagogy (Hellsten, 2016; Jakobsson, 2016; Lackéus, 2016). Self-determination theory, which assumes that the increase in student autonomy generally increases the will to learn and grow, has already led to a research field investigating *autonomy-support* in the classroom (Reeve, 2009). Autonomy-support is the incentives teachers give students for them to develop on their own accord and the opposite to *control*, which is teacher behavior that ultimately pressures students to think and behave in a specific way. The debate continues, but there has still been no research on this supposed increase in student autonomy in Swedish classrooms and how it affects students' motivation to learn EFL.

This study has set out to investigate the motivation and autonomy of students in Swedish EFL classrooms in a number of upper-secondary schools in southern Sweden. As the scope is narrow, the study may not answer the whole debate problem of autonomy in Swedish classrooms; however, the study aims to give indications of the motivation of EFL students and the effects that some autonomy-supportive teachers in Swedish EFL classrooms have on their motivation. This aim was fulfilled by addressing three research questions:

1. What amount of perceived amotivation, autonomy-support and self-determination to study English as a foreign language does a sample of upper–secondary school students in Sweden report?

2. Is there a relation between students' amotivation, self-determination and students' perceived autonomy?

3. Do different levels of autonomy-supportive attitudes in teachers result in differences in students' perceived autonomy-support, self-determination and amotivation?

To answer the research questions logically this paper uses a bottom–up structure from fundamentals toward abstract ideas. Firstly, self-determination as an indicator for motivation and the concept of autonomy support is discussed, then previous research on autonomy's effect on student motivation are presented, followed by considerations of methodological nature. Finally, the results are presented one analysis at a time and the findings are discussed in light of the three research questions with suggestions for implications in EFL teaching.

Background

This section will introduce the two main constructs for this study, self-determination, and autonomy-support. Firstly, the two constructs' history and definitions are elaborated upon. Secondly, their usage in classrooms is explained.

Self-determination as an Indicator for Motivation

To begin describing the concepts of will, volition and motivation in relation to human beings, you may start with some of the fundamental insights of human development elaborated upon by Aristotle. These insights assume that human beings are actively striving toward psychological growth and integration (Ryan et al., 2013; Sivhola, 2008). In this endeavor, humans seek challenges, discover new ideas and internalize cultural phenomena. This view is not only echoed by western philosophical theories but also by early Taoism and Confucianism and continues to

be at the core of many theories of personality, as well as theories of cognitive and social development (Ryan & Deci, 2017). One of these theories, the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) focuses on how human beings strive toward the aspirations of the self.

The core self, which for the purpose of this study is defined as the conscious and unconscious mentality of an individual, has an innate *integrative* tendency (American Psychological Association, 2022a; Ryan and Deci, 2017). This means that individuals assimilate different experiences, integrate them, and motivate actions thereafter, in order to move toward higher goals or aspirations. SDT postulates that this integrative tendency is most effective in contexts where three basic psychological needs are satisfied and least effective where these are frustrated. These are the needs for (1) *competence,* i.e., having opportunities to develop skills and express talents or capacities; (2) *autonomy,* i.e., having a will and volition when it comes to one's own behavior; and, finally, (3) *relatednes*s, i.e., feeling a connectedness and belonging with other people (Ryan & Deci, 2017). With all these needs satisfied, human beings will inevitably strive toward some personal growth.

This integrative tendency to grow is also reflected in the resultant motivation of human beings, which according to SDT may be conceptualized into two different types. These two most central components of motivation are *intrinsic motivation* (IM) and *extrinsic motivation* (EM). IM is motivation for an inner satisfaction, such as having fun, feeling satisfaction, or being stimulated, while EM is motivation for an outer sake or achieving a separable end such as a reward. These concepts were well elaborated upon by the 1980s, when Deci and Ryan (1985) suggested treating these on a continuum of *internalization*, i.e., the more a value or a norm is internalized to evoke

action. The least internalized behaviors would be found in the EM category while the most internalized behaviors would be found in the IM category. IM is typically posited as the most effective kind of motivation in the long term, which is also confirmed by research (e.g., Lepper et al., 2005). In addition to the two components above, a third category that Deci and Ryan added to IM and EM is simply called *amotivation* (AM), as in the complete lack of volition and action. When all basic psychological needs are not met, behavior will likely not be driven by inner satisfactions but instead exterior means. The emotions and actions of an individual are *regulated* thereafter, meaning emotions and potential behaviors are controlled through certain thought processes (American Psychological Association, 2022b). On the continuum of self-determination, this is further illustrated by the subtypes of each category, classified by different kinds of regulations, ways emotions and behaviors are controlled, illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1.

The Self-determination Continuum (Adapted from Ryan & Deci, 2000)

Behavior	Non-self-determined					Self-determined
Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation				Intrinsic Motivation
Regulatory styles	Non-Regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Perceived Locus of Causality	Impersonal	External	Somewhat External	Somewhat Internal	Internal	Internal
Relevant Regulatory Processes	Nonintentional, nonvaluing, Incompetence, lack of control	Compliance, External Reward and Punishments	Self-Control, Ego-Involvement, Internal Rewards, and punishments	Personal Importance, Conscious, Valuing	Congruence, Awareness, Synthesis with Self	Interest, Enjoyment, Inherent Satisfaction

Note. Each overall construct in bold is explained in steps of internalization from least to most from left to right. The more internalized an action is, the more self-determined a human being will be to perform this action.

This self-determination continuum could be understood as a map of the processes involved when an individual integrates a will or desire. This model of subtypes shown in Table 1 was developed by Vallerand (1997) in order to systematize literature on the subject and identify psychological mechanisms underlying motivational change. Whenever there is no internalization of actions or wishes, the self would be amotivated. If an outer mean is desired by the individual, they are

motivated extrinsically. However, this is minimally internalized. With a range from least internalized to most internalized in this order Vallerand identifies three subtypes within EM:

1. **External Regulation.** A person is motivated by some external attainable means. An example of this within this study's context would be an English-learner being motivated to learn English because of a job that requires English proficiency.

2. **Introjected Regulation.** A person is motivated by what the surroundings or the cultural context values or requires. An example of this within this study's context would be learning English because of the high status of the language.

3. **Identified Regulation.** A person is motivated by contributing to their own identity. An example of this within this study's context would be learning English because English proficiency is associated with a desired ideal identity or self.

Integrated Regulation, as seen in Table 1, will not be used within this study as it has since been replaced by more elaborate constructs in a model by Noels et al. (2000), who adapted a measuring model also adding three subtypes of IM to the self-determination continuum. The subtypes within IM from least to most internalization are:

1. **Knowledge.** A person is motivated by the innate satisfaction in learning a language. An example of this would be learning English words because of the satisfaction of a broader vocabulary.

2. **Accomplishment.** A person is motivated by the innate satisfaction in accomplishing tasks or overcoming obstacles. An example of this would be learning English because of the challenge in talking to foreign people.

3. **Stimulation.** A person is motivated by the innate satisfaction within stimulating tasks. An example of this would be learning English because of a satisfactory feeling when pronouncing words in English.

The study by Noels et al. that validated this model will be elaborated upon further in the methodology section. One may instead note that SDT is one of the most fundamental theories in today's research on motivation and one of the most well elaborated, which makes it an impossible task to summarize all its nuances (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ntoumanis et. al., 2021; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Tang, Wang & Guerrien, 2020). This is however also a testament to the validity and stability of the theory. As one of the few theories that take socio-contextual factors in account it is highly relevant in today's socio-dynamic field of motivation studies (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). One may question whether there are contemporary theories that could serve as alternatives to SDT.

One newer theory that could be used to understand motivation, also elaborated within research on language learners, is the L2 motivational self-system (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2009). L2MSS is based on three guiding facets of an individual's goals, dreams and imagination. These are (1) the *ideal self,* which is a rendition of the person we would most like to become; (2) the *ought-to self,* as in what person we believe we *ought* to become and what needs to be avoided; and, finally, (3) the *L2 learning experience,* which constitutes motives and desires connected to a direct situation

and its different factors involved (teachers, curriculum, peer groups etc.). The theory was developed in an effort to base a psycholinguistic theory in the self of the individual and conceptualize the highly influential concept of *integrativeness* (i.e., how L2 learners are interested in other cultures that use the L2, cf. Gardner & Lambert, 1959); however, with a similar motivational construct already well established in SDT it is uncertain what L2MSS would further contribute. In fact, studies have shown that the two frameworks are not conceptually different as the ideal self seemingly corresponds to the SDT concepts *integrated regulation* and *identified regulation* while the ought-to self-corresponds to *extrinsic regulation* and *introjected regulation,* although some results also indicate that this claim might be an oversimplification (cf. Yashima, 2009; Nishida, 2013).

An increasing and recent amount of research has also shown mixed results when it comes to L2MSS' relationship with general achievement in school outside of language learning. While both SDT and L2MSS have shown significant correlations with intended learning effort (i.e., learners' own perceived effort), L2MSS has on occasion shown weak correlations with objective measures of performance (Al–Hoorie, 2018; Moskovsky et al., 2016). Takahashi and Im (2020) tested the relationship between the two theoretical frameworks SDT and L2MSS in a questionnaire study comprising 532 university students in Japan and found that the ideal L2 self and the ought-to self had a low predictive power on intended learning effort while learning experience had a strong predictive power. The authors suggest that as these students had just entered university, there is a possibility that their envisioning of their own future is distant and that their goals may for the moment be more situational. The SDT concepts of identified regulation, introjected regulation and intrinsic motivation all had a stronger predictive power on

the whole. For these reasons, I consider SDT as established and viable, if not more, as required for this study.

Autonomy Support

One of the staple assumptions about how to incite self-determination is that teachers need to give students autonomy support. This autonomy support may be defined as follows:

> When an individual in a position of authority (e.g., an instructor) takes the other's (e.g., a student's) perspective, acknowledging the other's feelings, and providing the other with pertinent information and opportunities for choice, while minimizing the use of pressures and demands. (Black & Deci, 2000, p. 742)

It is clear then that making autonomy-supportive efforts in the classroom is an interpersonal process where the teacher identifies, nurtures, and builds students' inner motivational resources (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Reeve, Deci & Ryan, 2004). In three decades of research, autonomy-support has been found to be an important factor for educational benefits such as inner motivation, performance, engagement, time management, concentration, and finally an increased well–being of students (Diseth & Sandal, 2014; Núñez & Léon, 2015).

However, for this need satisfaction to be achieved, the autonomy-supportive efforts shown by teachers must be made in a context that acknowledges the basic psychological needs of students. This environment needs to be learner- and person-centered with an atmosphere of openness, inquiry, and choice. In any case, a sole teacher still has the possibility to create a sheltered environment for those they teach and mentor (Deci & Ryan, 2017). What also needs to be

considered is the teacher's own basic psychological needs in the workplace, that is, their own competence-, relatedness- and autonomy-satisfaction.

Teachers may lack the ability to shape their own work because of external pressures and performance–goals. There is a lack of autonomy in the teaching role that needs to be recognized when it comes to curricular constraints or workplace policies. Deci and Ryan (2017) assert that in order for teachers to support students' autonomy they require their own professional autonomy. Several studies show that when teachers are instructed in a controlling or performance–oriented fashion by steering documents, outsiders, or coworkers, they are themselves inclined to be more controlling than other teachers, using more demanding vocabulary and talking five times as much (Deci et al. 1982; Flink, et al. 1990; Pelletier, et al. 2002; Roth, et al. 2006). Teachers may also be pressured from inattentive students and accountability standards in the curriculum. The perceived autonomy of students has been found to falter in cases when teachers are not themselves granted autonomy. Therefore, any analysis of perceived autonomy support needs to be complemented with the autonomy of the teacher.

What Are Autonomy-Supportive Efforts?

Deci et al. (1994) argue that three interpersonal conditions are necessary for individuals to feel that their autonomy is supported: providing meaningful rationale (i.e., verbal explanations that help others to understand why self–regulation of the activity would have personal utility), acknowledging negative feelings (i.e., tension–alleviating acknowledgment that one's request to others clashes with their personal inclinations and that their feelings of conflict are legitimate), and using non–controlling language (i.e., communications that minimize pressure, absence of the terms 'should,' 'must,' and 'have to' conveying a sense of choice and flexibility in the phrasing).

New interpersonal conditions based on the theory have been added to the definition of autonomy support, such as: offering meaningful choices (i.e., providing information about options, encouraging choice–making, and initiation of one's own action) and nurturing inner motivational resources (i.e., reinforcing the other's interest, enjoyment, psychological need satisfaction, or sense of challenge or curiosity while engaging in a requested activity). According to Su and Reeve (2011), 84% of intervention studies designed to support autonomy examine at least four of these five conditions that define autonomy support. And all of them have showed significant positive effects (Chatzisarantis & Hagger, 2009; deCharms, 1976; Ntoumanis & Duda, 2008; Reeve, 1998). Furthermore, Assor, Roth, and Deci (2004) include the behavior of providing unconditional positive regard as an essential element of autonomy support. Reeve (2009) adds displaying patience as to allow time for self–paced learning to occur.

These different efforts of establishing autonomy need to be considered when examining teacher's attitude toward autonomy-support. I have subjected the most central conditions in autonomy-support to a categorization resulting in three categories: (1) creating intrinsic meaning in academic work, (2) satisfying social and psychological needs, and (3) giving students structural and organizational freedom. The categorization can be overviewed in Table 2. The contents of this table are used as a tool to construct items for the measure on autonomy-supportive efforts to be used in the present study. Each individual effort was used for three or four items in the questionnaire for teachers in order to see the teachers' attitudes toward these efforts.

Table 2.

Categories of autonomy-supportive efforts

Creating intrinsic meaning in academic work	Satisfying social and psychological needs	Providing students with structural and organizational freedom
Providing meaningful rationale (Why you need to control yourself, focus etc. for personal use and value) (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick and Leone, 1994)	Acknowledging negative feelings (tension–alleviating acknowledgment that they have legitimate concerns. (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick and Leone, 1994)	Providing information about options, encouraging choice–making and initiation of one's own action ('You have many options here to progress in your work') (Su and Reeve, 2011)
Reinforce a sense of challenge / curiosity in an activity, interest, enjoyment (Su and Reeve, 2011)	Bringing unconditional praise (Assar, Roth and Deci, 2004)	Using non–controlling language (minimize pressure, absence of controlling terms 'should', 'must', and 'have to' (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick and Leone, 1994)
	Other ways of psychological need satisfaction (classroom arrangements etc.) (Su and Reeve, 2011)	Displaying patience, and thereby allowing students more time for self–paced learning to occur (Reeve, 2009)

Note. These categories are differentiated by the different columns. There are no agreements across the different rows.

However, one should remember that control in the classroom is not to be confused with structure, that is, communicating clear expectations and giving explicit guidance to keep students on track, which according to extensive research is a positive motivator in the classroom (Jang, Reeve, & Deci, 2010; Sierens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, Soenens, & Dochy, 2009). A structured classroom may just as well be highly autonomy-supportive. With that said, there is also the

possibility of applying control within any of the areas mentioned for the classroom to make for a more controlling environment. The approaches of the teacher may be seen along a continuum from more controlling to more autonomy supportive as Soenens and Vansteenkiste do (2005), but the assertion can also be made that autonomy-support and control are not complete opposites (Silk, Morris, Kanaya, & Steinberg, 2003). In this sense teachers may have a controlling as well as an autonomy-supportive environment where they will pressure students, give negative remarks while at the same time providing students with choices or meaningful rationale to the tasks at hand (Reeve & Jang, 2006). Therefore, there is a viability in both approaches that allows this study to either treat these efforts as isolated factors or use them in a compound continuum. To keep instruments brief by not measuring additional controlling efforts, this study will measure autonomy-support along a continuum from highly controlling to highly autonomy-supportive.

Classrooms, Motivation, and Autonomy-Support in Different Contexts

The self-determination of students has not been properly examined within Swedish research on motivation, except for papers on an undergraduate level (see e.g., Höggren, 2017; Brunzell, 2021). In fact, motivation as a whole has not been comprehensively measured within Swedish schools and neither has the different types of motivation. However, there are two papers that exist that indicate that Swedish students are positively motivated to learn English. Sundqvist (2009) measured the anxiety and self-efficacy of 72 students in Swedish secondary school learning English as a foreign language and found that the anxiety to speak English on the whole was low and that the mean index number for self-efficacy was moderately high. Furthermore, Sundqvist's study found that most students spend considerable time on English outside of school. Additionally, the Swedish National Agency for Education also indicates potential in Swedish students' willingness to learn English (Skolverket, 2011). This may be used as indications that

Swedish students are motivated to learn English. However, there is still a need for a measurement of motivation through a measure such as self-determination to give clearer evidence with an established theoretical foundation.

Within SDT, autonomy is one of the basic psychological needs outlined. Thereby, self-determination research in education naturally involves autonomy-support. A consistent finding throughout the early international studies during the 1990s and 2000s was that teacher autonomy-support as well as greater psychological need satisfaction predicted self–determined student motivation. When teachers gave students organizational freedom, gave them meaning in their work and provided them with competence and relatedness this finally led to higher predicted performance, well-being and higher teacher–course evaluations (Black & Deci, 2000; Filak & Sheldon, 2008; Gagne, Ryan & Bargmann, 2003; Reeve, et al., 2004b). A more nuanced way of looking at autonomy-support as an activity featuring several different approaches has also been developed. Stefanou et al. (2004) suggested that autonomy-support could be divided into three categories: organizational autonomy-support (e.g., letting students make decisions concerning classroom–management), procedural autonomy-support (e.g., letting students choose their own materials) and, finally, cognitive autonomy-support (e.g., letting students evaluate their own work).

These three different kinds of autonomy-support have given various results in studies. While the first two give students a sense of well-being and initial motivation, the last category encourages students to engage in reflection of their own work resulting in a better performance. A small experimental study by Furtak and Kunter (2012) found that students preferred a lower cognitive

autonomy-support environment, perceived more choice and learned significantly more. The authors explained this by noting that students were used to a traditional classroom and were only subjected to the treatment during two days. The study would still, however, indicate that the implementation of autonomy-supportive teaching may not be a fool-proof intervention. Ambiguous results are not uncommon, pointing to a complexity in implementing autonomy-support in new contexts. In Asian contexts, for example, the importance of autonomy-support seems to be less salient than in western contexts, with studies pointing to no or negative relationships between autonomy-support and student motivation (Maulana, Helms–Lorenz, & Irnidayanti, 2016). A comprehensive study of STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics) classrooms also found autonomy-support inefficient (De Loof et al., 2021). These more recent findings call for a need to acknowledge the complexities within the classroom and find possible balancing issues when employing autonomy-support in the classroom.

While research on autonomy-support in the classroom is common, there is a different research situation regarding language teaching. Although there has been a surge of research on the importance of autonomy within language teaching recently, with a drift into the existing research on Language Learner Autonomy (LLA), the empirical material is still limited (Lou, et al., 2018). Autonomy-supportive teaching in language learning is typically described as the approaches that aim to give students choices in their language learning while also eliminating external pressure and controlling language (Alrabai, 2021). While there are some projects that have indicated large and long-term success of autonomy-support within language learning classrooms, few studies investigate this type of teaching (Little, 2020).

However, the existing comprehensive studies could give some indications on the effects of autonomy-support on L2 Motivation. The LAALE project (Language Acquisition in an Autonomous Learning Environment) followed an English classroom in Denmark during the 1990s (Little et al., 2017). Compared to a German class, students improved their proficiencies to a faster and higher extent. Most likely, this was due to motivational gains. The studies that have spawned recently and intertwined language learning with SDT have shown positive relationships between autonomy-support and motivation and LLA (Dincer & Savas, 2017; Alrabai, 2021). Still, this research is yet to be seen in a Nordic EFL setting.

The research on the motivational state of Swedish students is conspicuously lacking. No research project has yet examined the actual motivational levels of EFL students in Sweden. However, the Swedish School Inspectorate have warned of differences between schools and that the environment neither provides a challenge to students nor gives time for differentiation depending on students' needs (Skolverket, 2011). Even though Swedish students perform well across international measurements, a report from the Swedish National Agency of Education showed that EFL teaching in Sweden missed plenty of opportunities to motivate students and spur their learning. For this reason, researchers have compiled examples of motivational strategies from a number of different supposedly motivational EFL teachers in a comprehensive research project (Henry et. al., 2019). The instruments designed by Henry et. al. to identify motivating teachers were used as inspiration for the questionnaire identifying autonomy-supportive efforts (see p. 25*f*).

Concludingly, although there are alternatives to SDT, this framework will primarily be used in the present study as it is well-elaborated upon and provides socio-contextual considerations to an otherwise highly psychometric purpose. To provide socio-contextual considerations in this study, the questionnaire used controls for basic psychological needs, such as whether students are given time to improve, adequate autonomy or relatedness on a social level. A study of this kind of measurement is also a new phenomenon in Sweden, which may shine a light on students' L2 motivation and the nature of teachers' attitudes toward autonomy-support. The next section will deal with the measures of these variables.

Methodology

This section explains the procedure used when the variables autonomy-support, autonomy-supportive attitudes and self-determination were measured. First, the different questionnaires for measuring the constructs are elaborated upon, hypotheses are articulated, details on the participants as well as data collection, details on the participants of the study, data collection routines and the hypotheses articulated. Lastly, the method for data analysis is explained and some ethical considerations are discussed.

Measures

Below there is an explanation of the three individual scales that were used within the study and how the scales were either adopted or constructed.

Perceived Self-Determination

In order to measure L2 motivation within the self-determination continuum measuring AM, EM and IM, the aforementioned model by Noels et al. (2000) was operationalized in a Likert-scale

format from 1 (disagree completely) to 7 (agree completely). The Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) consists of one scale measuring AM with items such as 'I can't understand why I study English; I couldn't have cared less about it.' and 'I honestly don't know; it feels like I waste my time studying English.' and three to four items per each subtype of EM and IM. One may treat these subtypes as separate in the data or make indices for EM and IM. This means that this scale gives results on two different variables, firstly self-determination, which denotes whether students are motivated extrinsically or intrinsically, and secondly amotivation, which indicates the motivation that is missing. The scale was translated to Swedish and adapted to fit a Swedish EFL classroom in upper–secondary school by removing academic wording and making close translations. After piloting eight undergraduate students, reliability analysis showed that the translated scale was highly reliable (Cronbach's alpha, $\alpha = .85$). The questionnaire is attached as Appendix B.

Perceived Autonomy Support

A short version of the Learning Climate Questionnaire (LCQ) was used as a means to measure perceived autonomy-support as it has been shown that the shorter version is more effective (Simon & Salanga, 2021). The scale has been used in several studies and contexts and is therefore considered well–established within SDT research (e.g., Black & Deci, 2000; Benlahcene et al., 2020; Clabaugh, 2013). The questionnaire was adapted to the Swedish EFL context and translated accordingly. After piloting the mentioned undergraduate students, reliability testing showed that the translated scale was reliable (Cronbach's alpha, $\alpha > .9$). The questionnaire is attached as appendix C.

Autonomy Supportive Efforts

To address how teachers make autonomy-supportive efforts, there was also a need for a teacher–based questionnaire. This questionnaire asks teachers about their own basic psychological needs and whether they employ the autonomy-supportive efforts outlined in Table 1. Other motivational efforts were also be recorded as a part of open-ended questions. One item was presented per each phenomenon. Each item was closed, with two or three alternatives to a particular case. For example, the case 'What would you do when students are absent from work somehow or reluctant to work during classroom time' was used to uncover whether the teacher tries to give a meaningful rationale. The alternatives could then be '(A) Inform the students that their presence and work is mandatory; (B) Inform students that their effort might impact their final grade; (C) Inform students about the task at hand', where more controlling or extrinsically motivating efforts are outlined in A and B while the more autonomous-supporting alternative is C. In the final data analysis, these would be given a rating between 1 and 3, from least autonomy-supporting to most autonomy-supporting.

It is vital that items are not formulated in such a way that one of them stands out as a clearly favorable option but that they are of equal value. Buzzwords and flavory language in the autonomous-supportive option is therefore left out for a more neutral language. For each item in Table 1, there was an item in the questionnaire except 'Other ways of psychological need satisfaction', as this would be impossible to pinpoint with a select number of alternatives. Instead 'other ways of psychological need satisfaction' would be covered by the means of an open-ended question about other ways that the teacher would use to turn unmotivated students around.

During pilot testing involving nine Swedish EFL teachers, there were concerns that the alternatives would be too narrow and that there would need to be another alternative where teachers could freely describe their way of acting in the particular situation. However, there was no need for this if the questionnaire solely measured these eight autonomy-supportive behaviors in the classroom. Teachers were also informed that they could add information to their answers in one of the open-ended items if in any case options would not meet their experience. Therefore, there was no need for another alternative except from the three existing ones. However, teachers were instructed to pick their preferred method no matter the alternatives.

Efforts were also made to ensure that every item control one specific intervention and provide alternatives on a range from frequent to less frequent instead of providing alternatives of different interventions. One example of this would be item number 9, 'During new areas of work, individually or by group…' where the alternatives range from a less autonomy-supportive alternative to a more autonomy-supportive alternative, '...I am responsible for creating the materials as well as tasks', '...I am responsible for the materials while students are responsible for creating the tasks' and '...I give students a lot of responsibility over the materials and tasks'. Alternatives need to be on a continuum of autonomy-support where the teacher always acts in some way or another. To cover more situations that are possible within a classroom, however, another six items were added, resulting in a total of 14 items. During data analysis, a mean number between 1.0 and 3.0 would be given to teachers depending on their answers to indicate where on the continuum of autonomy-supportive efforts they were situated.

As stated, self-determination research suggests that teachers who are granted autonomy in their professional role are also apt to be more autonomy-supportive of their students (see p. 13*f*). Teacher's autonomy was therefore controlled by the means of an introductory Likert–scaled item at the outset of the questionnaire: 'I feel that I am granted much power over my own work and that my assignments are not controlled by my employer.' The questionnaire is attached as appendix D.

Analysis of the Autonomy-Supportive Efforts Questionnaire

In order to validly determine the autonomy-supportive attitude of teachers involved in the study, there was a need to thoroughly analyze the results of the aforementioned autonomy-supportive efforts questionnaire. For the sake of clarity, the autonomy-supportive attitude was ranked from 1 (very controlling) to 7 (very autonomy-supportive) as opposed to the scale 1 to 3 used in the questionnaire. This was done by analyzing the free-form answers again with support from the research-based efforts outlined in Table 2. If the teacher showed more positive attitudes than uncovered in the questionnaire, their corresponding score on an autonomy-supportive attitudes continuum from 1 to 7 could be increased. If the teacher gave fewer positive remarks or negative opinions about certain efforts their score could decrease. If the teacher showed that they seemed to have the same position in the free-form answer as in the questionnaire, their position would not be altered. If such a teacher for example scored a 2 in mean on the questionnaire they would stay in the same position and thus score 4 on the autonomy-supportive attitude continuum. This categorical data could then be used in order to compare different groups depending on their teacher's attitude, the higher the score the more autonomy-support the teacher would have shown positive to.

Hypotheses

This paper has briefly discussed the lack of research on students' motivation to learn English. However, there are still indications that Swedish students are largely invested in English in their spare time (Sundqvist, 2009). With English keeping a high standard and status within Sweden it is natural to assume that students' motivation to learn English is at least moderately high (Hyltenstam, 2004; Ljung, 1986). The first hypotheses, aimed to answer the first research question, was therefore articulated as such:

> Hypothesis 1: The mean number for students' AM to study English is below 3.
>
> Hypothesis 2: The mean number for students' perceived autonomy-support is 4±1.
>
> Hypothesis: 3: The mean number for students' self-determination is on average between .4 and .6, i.e., in the middle of the continuum.

Hypotheses two and three were articulated as such since there have been no measurements of PAS or SD in Sweden to build hypotheses on.

When it comes to looking at the relationships between the three main variables as suggested by the second research question, three hypotheses were articulated for each relationship. The self-determination Theory postulates that there should be a positive correlation between self-determination and students' perceived autonomy. The theory also assumes a downfall in amotivation when perceived autonomy and self-determination is increased. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that these relationships will be negatively correlated.

> Hypothesis 4: Students' self-determination to study English is positively related to their perceived autonomy.

Hypothesis 5: Students' perceived autonomy is negatively related to their

amotivation.

Hypothesis 6: Students' self-determination is negatively related to their

amotivation.

The third research question asks whether we can see any differences in amotivation, self-

determination and perceived autonomy-support depending on the autonomy-supportive

efforts of the teacher. The following hypotheses were thus articulated:

Hypothesis 7: There is a difference in amotivation between groups depending on

the level of autonomy-support.

Hypothesis 8: There is a difference in self-determination between groups

depending on the level of autonomy-support.

Hypothesis 9: There is a difference in perceived autonomy-support between

groups depending on the level of autonomy-support.

Data Analysis

Datasets of self-determination and perceived autonomy-support were imported into the statistical

software SPSS (version 26) and assigned the teacher autonomy-supportive effort indices. Since

all measures used were based on self-reports and gathered at one single point in time, there was a

need to check for common-method variance. Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie,

Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) was performed and no factor was found that accounted for the majority

of the covariance in the measures. All variables except amotivation were normally distributed.

Amotivation had a skewness of 1.6 and a kurtosis of 3.1. As such, this data was positively skewed, which indicated that there was a high number of students that felt no AM when it comes to learning English in school. As a result of the non-normal data distribution, the analyses used in this study were solely non–parametric. Before analysis, two participants were removed from the dataset as they had an extreme value, 1 or 7, on every item and as such were outliers in the data. The item on teacher's autonomy in the workplace acted as a control variable.

Hypotheses 1–3 were tested by the means of descriptive statistics in order to find the average of every construct. Hypotheses 4–6 were tested by the means of a multiple correlation analysis between perceived autonomy-support, self-determination and amotivation. Because all data are ordinal and amotivation is not normally distributed, *Spearman's correlation* was used to indicate correlation (Field, 2013). Hypotheses 7–9 were tested by the means of a between-groups means comparison. Thus, there was a comparison of means between the groups depending on the autonomy-supportive attitude of the teacher. Since all data were ordinal, and since there were more than two groups and the data of amotivation was not normally distributed, this was done by a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (Field, 2013).

Participants

Study participants included six EFL teachers and 161 upper secondary school students (ages 16–19), who belonged to the classes taught by the six teachers. These classes came from schools primarily located in two larger cities with at least 50,000 in population in the south of Sweden. Participants were recruited by contacting principals of all upper-secondary schools in the municipalities for permission from management. After this was obtained, EFL teachers at the concerned schools who were interested in joining the study scheduled a date for data collection.

Personal information such as age, gender or socioeconomic background were not collected as these variables were not integral parts of the study's purpose. The gender distribution was according to teachers roughly equal with girls having a slight majority. Most of the classes consisted of students in the ages between 16 and 18. Two of the six classes were vocational programs. In total the number of students belonging to vocational and academic programs was 77 and 82, respectively, which means this distribution was even, 48 and 52 %. However, none of these parameters ere controlled for in the data analysis as that would be outside the scope of this study.

Data Collection

The sampling method for this study was non-random as all possible schools in two dense municipalities with a population of at least 50,000 in the south of Sweden were contacted. Voluntary teacher would then decide on a date when it would be fitting to collect data in class. It was decided that data collection in class would be the most practical and reliable way of ensuring that students are placed in a solitary environment with time and space for individual thought. The questionnaire software from www.webbenkater.com was used to construct the questionnaires and distribute them.

Time was allotted in each respective class for the questionnaire where the researcher would explain the format of the Likert-scale for the whole class and for the teacher respectively. A guiding manuscript was used to ensure that all situations of data collection were equal (See Appendix A). Students were informed of their anonymity and that participation in the questionnaire was voluntary. During these controlled 15 minutes, both teachers and students answered the questionnaires. All data were collected during March, 2022.

Ethical Considerations

The study was conducted during the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic and naturally, teachers' increased workload and stressors had to be considered (Vargas Rubilar & Oros Beatriz, 2021). An overall goal was therefore to relieve teachers of as much stress as possible. Initial mail correspondence was, if possible, conducted toward principals of schools to assure that schools were able to provide time for the study. Teachers would then decide when it was most suitable to give up time for the project. At first, principals were informed that the questionnaire would take 15–20 minutes since lower secondary students have performed the LLOS in 15 minutes (Brunzell, 2021); however, since there is one additional scale, the time span was increased to 25–30. Undergraduates in the pilot finished the questionnaire in approximately 10 minutes.

During data collection it was important that all five ethical considerations in psychology were adhered to as well as Swedish guidelines (Trochim, 2006; Vetenskapsrådet, 2017). Therefore, the researcher presented the aim and scope of the study as well as its nature as a master thesis. Participants were informed that they did not need to participate, that they could abort at any time and that they could demand that their data be excluded from the final results and terminated. The questionnaire is fitted with an introductory item asking for consent. Participants were also informed that their identity would not be disclosed and that they would receive an arbitrary number instead, and neither their teacher nor the researcher would know which data the students had contributed with. Following this, the URL for the web-based questionnaire was written on the board. The teacher was instructed in a similar way on the questionnaire of autonomy-supportive efforts and given another URL. No personal information was collected as that would

not be necessary for this type of study. The only background information collected was the aforementioned autonomy of teachers and the type of program that students belonged to.

Results

This chapter is organized according to the three research questions and their subsequent hypotheses in separate sections. The first research question is answered by confirming or rejecting the hypotheses 1, 2 and 3; the second research question is answered by confirming or rejecting the hypotheses 4, 3 and 5; lastly the third research question is answered by confirming or rejecting hypotheses 6, 7 and 8. A comment of note is that the control variable for teacher's autonomy in the workplace did not show any relation with the concerned variables in the study.

Self-determination and Perceived Autonomy-Support for Students in Southern Sweden

Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 hypothesized amotivation in students, where on the self-determination spectrum students were positioned and the mean number of Perceived Autonomy-Support (PAS). Descriptive statistics were used in order to confirm or reject these following statements. For the sake of clarity, the hypotheses are discussed in order.

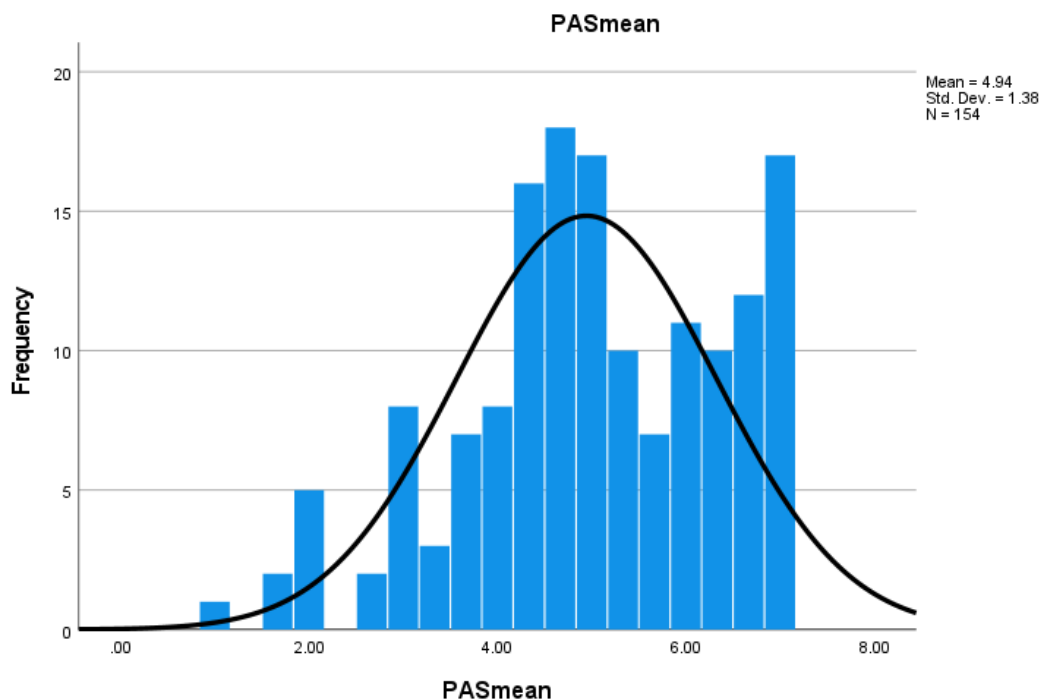### *Hypothesis 1: The mean number for students' AM to study English is below 3*

As mentioned, the amotivation data was positively skewed, which shows that students have a very low average AM ($\bar{x} = 1.72$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported. 1.72 may be considered subjectively very low as the total scale ranges from 1.0 to 7.0. Consequently, there are few students that lack motivation to study English as a Foreign language.

Hypothesis 2: The mean number for students' perceived autonomy-support is 4±1

The average PAS among students was moderately high (x̄=4.94). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was accepted. Although no binomial distribution could be found within the different groups, there were two distinct groups in the data who recorded either a moderately high PAS around 5.0 or a very high PAS around 7.0. This can be seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1.

Histogram of the Perceived Autonomy Support Means.


Hypothesis 3: The mean number for students' Self-determination is on average between .4 and .6, i.e., in the middle of the continuum

The average self-determination according to the index number was moderately high and therefore aligned toward intrinsic motivation ($\bar{x} = 0.58$). Hypothesis 3 was thus accepted. Figure 2 visualizes the distribution of SD among students.

Figure 2.

Histogram of the Self-Determination Means.
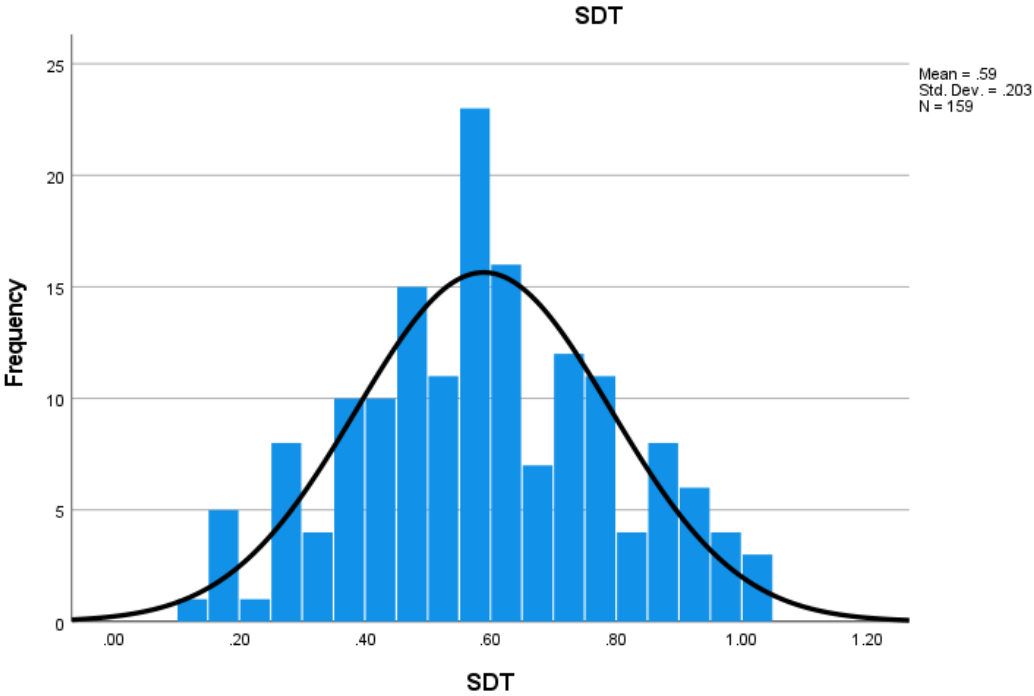
Furthermore, when looking at the frequencies of motivation per the subtypes in the self-determination continuum there is an apparent explanation to this alignment. Students were generally mostly motivated by extrinsic rewards. However they were not as motivated by introjected or identified regulation nor were the intrinsic subtypes rated moderately high as can be seen in Table 3. Students were least motivated by introjected pressures and shame and most motivated by extrinsic rewards such as pay.

Table 3.

The Self-Determination Continuum Mean Values.

	Ex. Reg.	Int. Reg.	Id. Reg.	Ack.	Kno.	Stim
N	159	159	159	159	159	159
Mean	5.23	3.28	3.76	4.53	4.25	4.01

Interrelatedness of constructs

The next step in the analysis looked at possible correlations in-between the different constructs. The spearman's rho correlation analysis showed significant correlations between all three variables as visualized in Figure Z. The relationships between SD and PAS ($r_s = .333$; $p < 0.01$), SDT and AM ($r_s = -.246$; $p < 0.01$) and PAS and AM ($r_s = -.209$; $p < 0.01$) were weak but nevertheless in line with the traditional assumptions within SDT. Hypothesis 4, 3 and 5 were thus all supported.

Figure 3.

Correlations between the three constructs Self-Determination (SD), Amotivation (AM) and

Perceived Autonomy-Support (PAS)
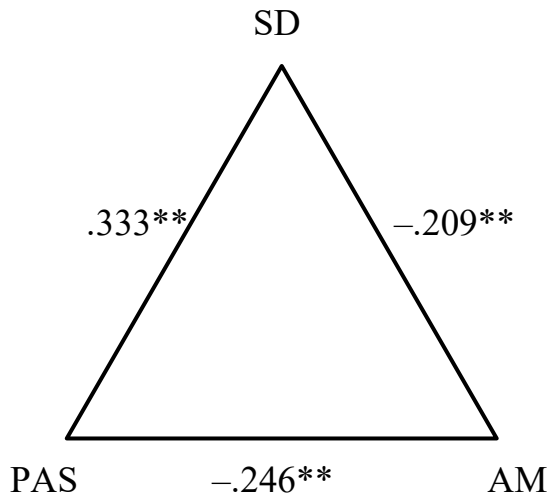
**p<0.01

Autonomy-Supportive Attitudes

The teacher's autonomy-supportive efforts questionnaire was used to calculate the overall view on basic autonomy-supportive efforts and whether the teacher has a more controlling attitude or autonomy-supportive attitude according to the findings of comprehensive research as outlined in Table 2. This means that if the teacher would score a high score on the questionnaire, they would also have expressed positivity toward the different efforts in Table 2. A mean number was computed for an autonomy-supportive attitude index, which showed that the six participants were spread out from a low controlling attitude (1.54) to a moderately high autonomy-supportive attitude (2.08). The teachers' values can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4.

Teachers' mean values on the autonomy-supportive efforts questionnaire

	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4	Teacher 5	Teacher 6
ASE Mean	1.54	1.69	2.08	1.92	1.77	2.08

As can be seen in Table 4, there was an absence of teachers with a high autonomy-supportive attitude. However, there was also an option to fill in other efforts that the teachers deemed useful for dealing with amotivation. These answers will be analyzed and categorized either as controlling, low controlling, moderately autonomy-supportive, or highly autonomy-supportive as per earlier research findings. Depending on the analysis together with the mean autonomy-support index number, the teachers would be given a rank between 1 and 7 on an Autonomy-Supportive Attitude scale (ASA) (high control to high autonomy-support) in their attitude toward autonomy-support. This variable would then be used in a means comparison between the different groups of students in order to see possible differences. All the quotations from teachers' answers were translated from Swedish to English by the author and the original answers can be seen in Appendix E.

The first teacher wrote:

> The foremost thing to do at low motivational levels for my part is practicing students in liking the situation despite boredom. Motivation may be important for learning but maybe not the main thing for students when it comes to managing future work

occupations in life when perseverance probably constitutes a more important factor than whether you are motivated to do something. Low motivation could also be something you find in students because they do not understand, but unfortunately you cannot move away from the curriculum too much. Open–ended tasks could be one way of avoiding this, but it's difficult having 'open' reading for instance with questions where there is prepared material on different levels. Low motivation and self-confidence may also depend on the relational and not what you do in the subject itself either. Sometimes students do not have that trust to you and therefore don't do as much on your lessons (Teacher 1, Item 14)

As indicated by Table 4, this teacher had the lowest index number of autonomy-support, 1.54, and argues that the quest for motivation may not always benefit students who need to practice persevering through periods of low-motivation in their future lives. The teacher points out that the curriculum is restrictive in the sense that the different subjects cannot be broadened and looks positively at open-ended tasks although these may need tasks adapted to the individual's level. As per this clarification, the teacher shows an attitude that does not allow for students to intervene and decide the contents. The teacher also implies that they keep to the curricular contents even if open-ended tasks are positive. Based on this and the index number, the teacher is given an ASA index number of 2, as in moderately controlling.

The second teacher wrote the following:

Adapt education to successively build self–confidence. Adapt the material to students' interests and previous knowledge. Talk to them about what they can use their knowledge for in the future (to contribute to intrinsic motivation) and be very clear with what they need to do to complete the course (extrinsic motivation). (Teacher 2, Item 14)

In the questionnaire, this teacher showed a low-controlling attitude with the index number of autonomy-support being 1.69. The teacher wants to adapt material to the interest and competencies of the students for their self-confidence. The teacher wanted to show students what practical applications their knowledge has and what the criteria are for course examination. Although no concrete examples are present here, the teacher showed willingness to adapt material depending on the needs of the students. These relate to giving meaningful rationale and giving the students a voice within the classroom. With the relatively low mean achieved on the questionnaire, the teacher was ranked 3 as in a low-controlling attitude.

The third teacher wrote:

> [...] I use a lot of body language and glances to continue with presentations at the same time as I signal to those that are not working that I notice them and have higher expectations on them. You can for instance move to the desk where the unfocused are sitting, lay a hand on the desk or a shoulder if needed. [...] I miss the alternative to individually challenge the student that thinks the area is especially interesting. (Teacher 3, Item 14)

This teacher showed a moderate autonomy-supportive attitude on the questionnaire with the mean number of 2.08. The teacher imposes high expectations on students for them to silence themselves and does not interfere in the middle of classroom sessions. The teacher also shows a willingness to challenge a student. This means that the teacher is moderately highly autonomy-supportive and is therefore given an ASA index number of 5.

The fourth teacher wrote:

36

Establish relationships with students. Work with individual feedback and making

students stoked. Find tasks that give them help specifically with what they need. (Teacher

4, Item 14)

This teacher scored moderately on the autonomy-supportive efforts questionnaire with 1.92. The

teacher wants to individualize and strive for relatedness with students and adapt the content. The

teacher does not show whether students have a say in the classroom content. As this answer is

short, the index number indicates that the teacher is in the middle and they are therefore given an

ASA number of 4.

The fifth teacher wrote:

In this school many things are individualized... But giving a lot of praise and by doing so

increasing motivation and making the subject/task funny. Construct tasks that students

can relate to. (Teacher 5, Item 14)

This teacher had a low controlling attitude with a mean number of 1.77. The teacher describes

unconditional praise as well as relatability to tasks as important. With these two attitudes in

mind, the teacher is placed in the middle of the ASA continuum with a 4.

The sixth and final teacher wrote:

There are a lot of ways to work motivating, for instance by seizing the small things, often

giving feedback and looking at the small improvements made. Taking joint efforts and

talking about why the subject is important, to be able to motivate why you do a certain

type of task. Also constructing tasks that students know from their own world view. To

color tasks, for instance when working at a vocational program try to connect theoretical

tasks with students' practical work. (Teacher 6, Item 14)

This teacher showed a moderately autonomy-supportive attitude with the mean 2.08. According

to this teacher, giving unconditional praise and providing meaningful rationale are ways of

working to support a student's motivation. The teacher also finds value in relatability and relating

the student's work to their working life. With the moderate score on the questionnaire in mind,

the ASA set was per a moderately high ASE, 5.

Concludingly, there was one teacher that showed a fully controlling attitude toward students

while most teachers lay in the middle between fully controlling and fully autonomy-supportive

or slightly above. The most prominent finding here is that none of the teachers had a very

autonomy-supportive attitude. Most teachers seem to find a middle ground in between the two.

Another note in regards to these answers is that I have counted relatability as autonomy-

supportive although this is not explicit within the research literature. The theory of basic

psychological needs assumes this would be a way of contributing to the relationship to the

student and the value of building competency (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). These findings warrant

the use of a means-comparison between two groups that are taught by a teacher with the rank 2

and 5 to see possible differences between teachers with a controlling attitude and a moderately

high autonomy-supportive attitude.

Between-groups Analysis

With the autonomy-supportive attitude of the teacher's thoroughly examined, the next step is

answering hypothesis 7, 8 and 9. To examine whether there is a difference between groups with a

moderately high autonomy-supportive attitude and groups with a low autonomy-supportive

attitude, the independent-samples Kruskal-Wallis test was run. There was a significant difference between the teachers that adopted an autonomy-supportive attitude in the middle (4) of the autonomy-supportive scale compared to the teachers who adopted an attitude to either side of the continuum ($p < 0.05$). The amotivation of students in these two groups was significantly higher than the other groups as visualized by figure 5. This supports hypothesis 7. However, one should also mention that for a reason of data loss neither the effect size or confidence intervals could be calculated. This means that there is no accurate difference measurement between the different attitudes.

Figure 5

Box Plot of the Differences in Amotivation and Autonomy-Supportive Attitudes between Groups
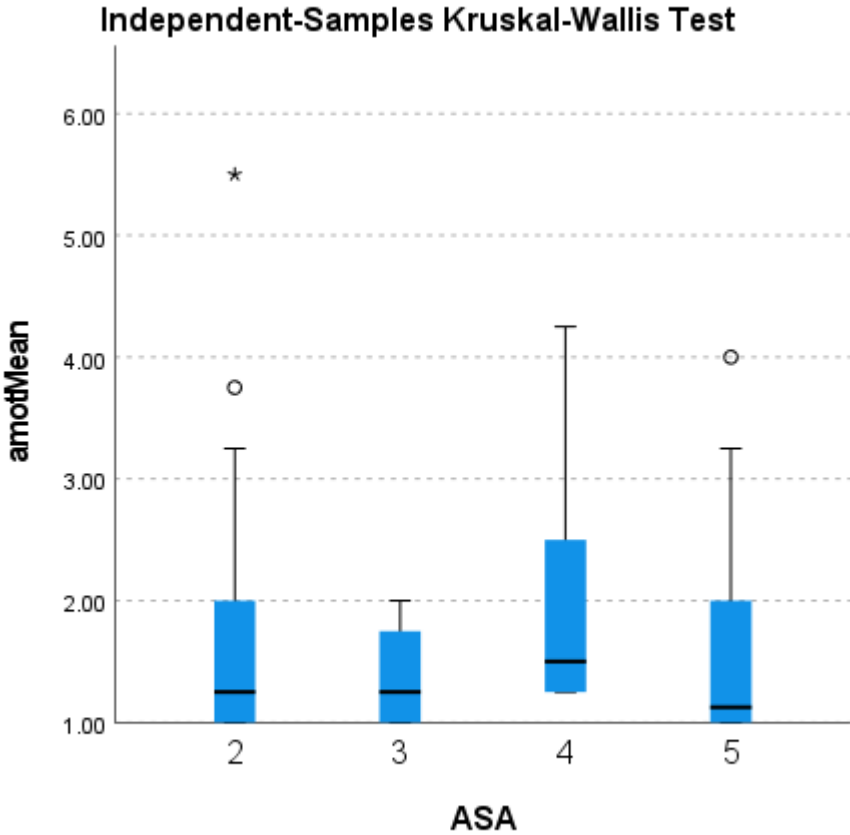
Note. This boxplot indicates a varied spread of values between students by the reach of the whiskers as well as the majority of values seems to be low as indicated by the median marker. The boxes show on each side of the median marker the upper and lower quartile of the values while the whiskers show the upper and lower extremes. The asterisk and circles indicate single data points that can be classified as outliers.

There was no significant difference between ASA and self-determination ($p > 0.05$) and there was no significant difference between ASA and perceived autonomy-support ($p > 0.05$). Hypotheses 8 and 9 were consequently rejected.

Discussion

The purpose of this study has warranted the use of three separate analyses to answer three research questions. These analyses were used to uncover (1) the nature of motivation within EFL classrooms in upper secondary school in Sweden, (2) the relationships between perceived autonomy-support, self-determination and amotivation, and (3) whether a particular autonomy-supportive attitude results in increased or decreased amotivation compared to the mean. With the separation of these analyses, it should be possible to interpret these three aspects separately. In this concluding section the three research questions will consequently be discussed separately. A more practical conclusion will be made regarding this study's instructional implications before ending this thesis with some recommendations for further research and limitations.

Motivated and Autonomy-Supported Students

What amount of amotivation, perceived autonomy-support and self-determination to study English as a foreign language do upper-secondary school students in Sweden report?

All three hypotheses put forward in conjunction with this research question (RQ1) were supported in the analysis. The amount of amotivation was low, perceived autonomy-support was in the middle although leaning toward autonomy-supportive and self-determination was in the middle although leaning towards intrinsic motivation. To the best of my knowledge, this is the

41

first account of upper secondary school students' attitudes toward English in Sweden since 2004, and the first detailed account of motivation to learn English in upper secondary schools overall. Although, it is of note that the study only investigated a non-random sample and should not be considered as representative of the whole Swedish population.

The results showed that the upper secondary school students in this sample are motivated to learn English and are mostly intrinsically self-determined when doing so. Noteworthy is the fact that students are mostly motivated by extrinsic rewards such as future pay, finding a job or when required to pass a course. This is generally in line with previous international research that show mixed results in different contexts when it comes to whether students are more extrinsically motivated or intrinsically motivated (Mesbah & Khazaie, 2014; Dincer, 2017). However, on the whole, students felt motivated to learn English based on accomplishing challenges in the language, the beauty of the language and the stimulation that the English language gives them when speaking. This result does not differ from the conclusions of Hyltenstam (2004). This can also be explained by the fact that English serves as a language dominating culture, academia, and globalization across Europe (Philipson, 2008). Relevance in the language is therefore easily found for upper-secondary school students.

Students also generally consider themselves autonomy-supported. This means that they generally felt that their teacher acknowledged them and their needs in the classrooms, that they were offered many alternatives and that their teacher encouraged them to be active in the classroom. This is a novel finding in Sweden since the amount of autonomy-support seems to be sparse within research literature. Apart from the autonomy-supportive attitudes from teachers

investigated in this study, the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness may also be major reasons behind this.

While these results seem promising, interpreting them as primarily positive is a mirage. There needs to be recognition that although autonomy-support seems to be a predictor for many positive assets such as well-being and academic performance, there is no evidence in this study that these aspects lead to academic performance in the long-term. Classrooms and schoolwork may be perfectly motivating without actually engaging students in a single task relevant to the English subject; this study has solely focused on the will, volition and type of motivation that is prevalent among EFL students in Swedish upper secondary schools. Concludingly, the sampled upper secondary school students have shown to be motivated, both by extrinsic means and intrinsic motifs and their autonomy seems to be supported by their teachers. These findings may help inform teachers on the potentials in Swedish upper-secondary classrooms.

Amotivation, Self-Determination and Autonomy-Support

> Is there a relation between students' amotivation, self-determination and students' perceived autonomy?

The second research question was necessary to see whether these different constructs relate to each other or if they are separate from one another. A significant relationship between all these constructs, albeit weak as shown in Figure 3, confirms hypotheses 4–6 ($p < 0.01$). The results were expected as these constructs are heavily elaborated upon by research and assumed to have a close relationship (Alrabai, 2021; Dincer & Savas, 2017; Nuñez & León, 2015). Higher self-

determination correlates to a decrease in amotivation; higher perceived autonomy-support correlates to a decrease in amotivation and an increase in self-determination.

Theoretically, self-determination is the integrated will and volition while amotivation is the total absence of this. As such, it is not a surprise as to why these are negatively correlated to each other. The same goes for perceived autonomy-support, which can be seen as a measure of the basic psychological need for autonomy in the classroom. Without this psychological need, you would not be able to integrate these motifs and wishes (See Ryan & Deci, 2017). The analysis does not, however, confirm a causal relationship.

A Shaky Middle Ground

> Do different levels of autonomy-supportive attitudes in teachers result in differences in students' perceived autonomy-support, self-determination and amotivation?

To see whether there was any effect of the attitudes of teachers and the three constructs a comparison between the different groups was made. There was no significant difference when it comes to the self-determination or perceived autonomy-support of students, which rejected hypotheses 8 and 9 ($p < 0.01$). Autonomy-supportive attitudes do not, consequently, shape the types of self-determination that are prevalent with students. The way teachers give students autonomy does not necessarily give these any particular motifs that correspond to a subtype of self-determination. This is after all quite logical, as you may give different reasons to study English without compromising autonomy-support.

Autonomy-supportive attitudes did not result in different amounts of perceived autonomy-support either. This was unexpected as there is the assumption that perceived autonomy-support would increase with an autonomy-supportive attitude (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 1987). However, in this case the mean perceived autonomy-support among the sample was relatively high. This might mean that there was no need for any more autonomy-support than what was indicated here with the different teachers. Alternatively, there is another reason as to why students feel autonomy-supported in class than the attitudes that teachers showed toward autonomy-support. These other reasons would be other ways of ensuring basic psychological needs. For instance, the teachers may have contributed to satisfying their students' need for competence or relatedness in a higher degree than autonomy.

When it comes to amotivation, however, a significant difference was found between the groups that had a teacher with an autonomy-supportive attitude in the middle of the continuum and those who were on either side. The lack of motivation was more prevalent in these groups of teachers that were neither particularly autonomy-supportive or controlling. This finding is new within the research field where the assumption typically is that the more autonomy-support, the better (Nuñez, León, 2015). As discussed before, there is the possibility that teachers adopted a controlling style on the top of their autonomy-support and that there would be a need for looking at control as an independent construct, rather than as one end of a continuum (Amoura et. al., 2015; Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, Bosch, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2011). This does nevertheless open an array of questions. How come students are less motivated in groups where the teacher is not inclined more in one way or the other of control or autonomy? There are many possibilities, for example that the lack of a deliberate attitude in one way or another leads to a

lack of strategy in the classroom, or that efforts based on a middle way may not be clear enough for students to be motivated (Jang, Reeve & Deci, 2010). Students may be given some opportunity to progress, but not enough for them to feel the reasoning behind it and too much for them to see a point in the tasks at hand. These are just speculations. However, one can conclude that what needs to be considered is in what degree teachers are autonomy-supportive and what effects this degree might have. In this case, upper secondary school students were best motivated when their teacher either gave them a moderately high amount of autonomy, opportunities and choice or when they were openly restrictive about some aspects of classroom work.

Instructional Implications

A relevant question within Swedish schools is how much freedom and flexibility to give students learning English. Where do you draw the line between what is too controlling and what is too autonomy-supportive? Firstly, it must be considered that most teachers involved with this study were not highly autonomy-supportive and so there is no account of that attitude here. All of the teachers did in some regard restrict and control the working materials and content of the class. In fact, most were leaning more towards a controlling attitude than an autonomy-supportive one and in the end both sides of the continuum did not seem to affect the motivation negatively. Although most research tends to show that the more autonomy-support the better (Dickinson, 1995; Núñez & Léon, 2015), this result contradicts that assumption. One could argue that the study has not investigated the overall need satisfaction or need frustration variables, and such have not encompassed all the factors that can contribute to an increase in amotivation (Haerens et. al., 2015). A recommendation then is that teachers should establish normative rules that clearly show where the restrictions are and where they are not in the classroom to avoid this juxtaposition

between the two. This ultimately means that teachers should stand by a controlling attitude or stand by a moderately autonomy-supportive attitude.

For Swedish EFL teachers this would entail teaching the language of English through either consecutively giving students activities that are close to their own will and desires or consecutively by the rules of what students need to do and need not to do. As an autonomy-supportive teacher there needs to be a consecutive communicative channel through which students can articulate their needs and desires. This could be through direct communication in classes, personal conversations or through some written means such as online forums or entry- and end-tickets (Paz-Albo & Escobar, 2016). Using these channels will allow for student influence and thereby activate some sense of volition, i.e., the high psychological sense of freedom during activities (Reeve & Jang, 2006). From these consecutive inputs, teachers may choose materials and tasks that fit students and allow for their own choice of materials. The contents could also, when the curriculum allows, be adjusted per the students' needs at the time. Rewards could be suggested by students or simply be exempt in favor of internal rewards and oral encouragements. This autonomy-supportive strategy will allow for a high sense of freedom within student work and effectively prevent amotivation.

The second strategy that could be used consecutively as a controlling teacher would be to implement sets of requirements or rules. These rules may be explicit or implicit but ultimately allow for the regulation of student work. Teachers can explain the worth of working with a specific set of literature or tasks by referring to the rules. When autonomy-supportive teachers set rules, this could be by involving students in class. However, in the case of a controlling

teacher the rules are set and rationalized by the teacher. In this sense, giving meaningful rationale, which in itself is an autonomy-supportive effort, could effectively be a part of the controlling teacher's work (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick & Leone, 1994). However, the controlling attitudes that were shown in this study were not fully controlling, which shows that some autonomy-supportive efforts are inevitable. Reinforcements of the different rules could be reflected in either punishments or rewards. The nature of these could be discussed thoroughly, however, the fundamental idea for a controlling strategy would be to use external rewards such as physical means, relief from work, more material or grading to encourage behavior. The primary motivator for the controlling teacher is abiding the rules or external outcomes that the educational module gives students, effectively avoiding amotivation in this way.

These two strategies have been suggested as a way of either consecutively abiding a controlling attitude or an autonomy-supportive attitude, as these two were seen as effective in avoiding amotivated students according to the data analysis in the study. The strategies may inform teachers that have a preference toward one of these two attitudes but do not find ways to implement them consecutively or they may give a distinction between an autonomy-supportive attitude and a controlling attitude. Nevertheless, the main idea is to separate the two methods and not encourage a mixed or ambiguous approach.

Limitations and Future Research

More research should be done concerning the types of motivations in schools in Sweden and the attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language. This study can give fruitful indications but a larger non-random sample is necessary in order to generalize upper secondary school students' motivation to learn English in Sweden. A more comprehensive research study

48

concerning the different methods of teachers is also in demand. While there are studies that investigate motivational efforts and strategies among teachers, none of these actually comprehensively look at the content of those efforts no matter how effective they are. Another recommendation in line with previous findings is that teachers' autonomy-supportive attitudes should be investigated together with their separate controlling attitudes (Amoura et. al., 2015).

This study was made using a convenience sample and not through a randomized controlled trial. Using an experimental format to look at the causality of specific autonomy-supportive attitudes on a continuum would be a more valid and reliable way of isolating this factor and looking at students' motivation. The study has also not been able to control for the effect size or the confidence intervals because of the sudden loss of data late into the project. Another addition, not within the scope of this study, would be to look at the academic performance of students in Sweden in combination with autonomy-supportive teaching. The lack of any psychometric research in this regard is one of the most desperate requests from this paper. Hopefully, the results of this study have shown the value of examining the different kinds of autonomy and motivation in Swedish schools.

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Multilingual Matters.

Appendix A

Procedure for Data Collection in Schools

To establish isolated conditions for surveying that are comparable it is necessary to make these conditions as equal as possible. This document aims to establish a routine when visiting schools and collecting data in classes.

Pre–Measures

First of all, teachers should be highly aware of the date and time of the data collection. A set time and date should be communicated before the visit. Secondly, the researcher should prepare URLs for the online questionnaires for students as well as teachers before data collection to ensure that these are functioning. Finally, the researcher should be in schools with ample time to prepare the data collection and brief the teacher, reminding them of what was communicated by mail and details.

Sometimes teachers would request the researcher to provide some additional information or engage with the class in other ways relevant to their work. If this was the case, it was important that the data collection took place before details of the study at hand were revealed.

Procedure in the classroom

The researcher is presented and/or presents themselves, what university they represent and give a briefing on the research project.

> I am here to survey upper–secondary school students on their motivation to learn English. Other than that I will also investigate students' view on the classroom and teacher's own attitudes to certain situations in the classroom. You, the students as well as your teacher can, if you would like, participate in this study and it would help the project a lot.

A notice should always be given on the nature of the student's participation in the study and sensibilities.

Your participation is entirely voluntary and anonymous. Neither me nor your teacher will know who has answered the survey [there may be conceptions that the teacher is also involved in the study somehow, thereby this clarification]. You may stop answering the questionnaire at any time.

The different parts of the questionnaire are explained. The students are instructed on how the Likert-scaleworks, and informed that some questions may look alike. The URL is written on the whiteboard. The students may start answering the questionnaires at this point. After this, the teacher is also instructed on the ASE–survey and given a separate link.

Teachers' link: www.webbenkater.com/s/ma7yq9x

Students' link: www.webbenkater.com/s/demuppj

Appendix B

Varför pluggar du engelska?

Sida 1

Informationen insamlad från denna enkät kommer att användas i forskningssammanhang för att kartlägga en del av lärares metoder i klassrummet. All data är helt anonymiserad och kommer att förstöras efter att forskningsuppgiften är avklarad. Genom att klicka på alternativet 'Jag samtycker' samtycker du till att dina svar får användas till detta syfte. Detta är nödvändigt med hänsyn till dataskyddsförordningen GDPR.

Du får också vid vilket tillfälle du vill maila mig på anthon.brunzell@hotmail.com för att dra tillbaka ditt deltagande i den här undersökningen. * *

Jag samtycker

Sida 2

Följande del av enkäten innehåller olika påståenden till varför du pluggar Engelska i skolan. Under varje påstående, svara i hur hög grad du håller med om det. Kom ihåg att det inte finns några rätta eller fel svar, många människor tycker olika.

Jag kan inte förstå varför jag studerar engelska; Jag hade inte kunnat bry mig mindre om det.

| Instämmer inte alls | Instämmer mycket lite | Instämmer lite | Instämmer | någorlunda Instämmer mycket | Instämmer nästan helt | Instämmer helt |

Jag kan inte komma på en enda bra anledning till varför jag studerar Engelska.

	någorlunda	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	mycket lite	Instämmer	inte alls	
	nästan helt	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	

Jag vet helt ärligt inte; Det känns verkligen som att jag slösar bort tiden när jag pluggar engelska.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

Jag vet inte; Jag kan inte förstå varför jag pluggar engelska.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att få ett bra jobb senare.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att få fördelarna (exempelvis. jobb, pengar, kurspoäng) som engelskakursen kommer ge mig.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att få en bra lön senare.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att få fördelarna av att tala språket engelska.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att jag skulle känna mig pinsam eller skämmas om jag inte talade engelska.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att jag skulle skämmas om jag inte kunde prata engelska med folk från andra länder.

inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite mycket lite	någorlunda Instämmer instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt mycket	helt Instämmer

För att jag skulle må dåligt om jag inte kunde Engelska.

inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite mycket lite	någorlunda Instämmer Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt mycket	helt Instämmer

För att jag skulle känna mig skyldig om jag inte kunde Engelska.

inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite mycket lite	någorlunda Instämmer Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt mycket	helt Instämmer

För att kunna engelska är en del av vem jag är och vad jag gör.

inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite mycket lite	någorlunda Instämmer Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt mycket	helt Instämmer

För att det är en viktig del av mitt liv.

inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite mycket lite	någorlunda Instämmer Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt mycket	helt Instämmer

För att det är en viktig del av hur jag identifierar mig.

inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite mycket lite	någorlunda Instämmer Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt mycket	helt Instämmer

För att det är en stor del av vem jag är.

inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite mycket lite	någorlunda Instämmer Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt mycket	helt Instämmer

För hur bra det känns när jag förstår svåra saker i engelskan.

inte alls Instämmer	mycket lite Instämmer	lite Instämmer	någorlunda Instämmer	mycket Instämmer	nästan helt Instämmer

helt

För hur bra det känns när jag löser svåra uppgifter (uppgifter som gruppuppgifter, samtal och övningar) i engelskan.

	inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite	någorlunda Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt	helt
Instämmer	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För känslan jag känner när jag överraskar mig själv i engelskan.

	inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite	någorlunda Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt	helt
Instämmer	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att jag gillar känslan av att få ny kunskap om det engelska samhället och deras liv.

	inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite	någorlunda Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt	hel
Instämmer	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För den tillfredsställande känslan jag får av att lära mig nya saker.

	inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite	någorlunda Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt	helt
Instämmer	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För jag gillar känslan jag får av att lära mig mer om engelska.

	inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite	någorlunda Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt	helt
Instämmer	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att jag gillar att plugga engelska; Det är kul.

	inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite	någorlunda Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt	helt
Instämmer	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För ett rus som jag känner när jag hör engelska pratas.

	inte alls Instämmer	Instämmer lite	någorlunda Instämmer	Instämmer nästan helt	helt
Instämmer	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För den bra känslan jag känner när jag använder mig av engelska.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

För att det känns jättebra att använda engelska.

Instämmer inte alls	**Sida 3**	Instämmer mycket lite Instämmer lite Instämmer någorlunda	Instämmer mycket Instämmer nästan helt Instämmer helt

Appendix C

Du har nu svarat på hälften av enkäten, bra jobbat!

Under den här delen ska du likt den första delen svara hur mycket du instämmer med ett antal påståenden. Påståendena kommer vara lite olika den här gången och handlar om hur du uppfattar din lärare. Kom ihåg att svara precis som du känner och att ingenting är rätt eller fel.

Jag känner att min lärare ger mig olika val och alternativ i kursen.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

Jag känner mig förstådd av min lärare.

	inte alls	Instämmer	någorlunda	Instämmer	helt
Instämmer	Instämmer	lite	Instämmer	nästan helt	
	mycket lite	Instämmer	mycket	Instämmer	

Min lärare visar förtroende för att jag ska göra bra ifrån mig i kursen.

	inte alls Instämmer mycket lite	Instämmer lite Instämmer	någorlunda Instämmer mycket	Instämmer nästan helt instämmer	helt
Instämmer					

Min lärare uppmuntrar mig till att fråga frågor.

	inte alls Instämmer mycket lite	Instämmer lite Instämmer	någorlunda Instämmer mycket	Instämmer nästan helt Instämmer	helt
Instämmer					

Min lärare lyssnar på hur jag skulle vilja göra saker.

	inte alls Instämmer mycket lite	Instämmer lite Instämmer	någorlunda Instämmer mycket	Instämmer nästan helt Instämmer	helt
Instämmer					

Min lärare försöker förstå hur jag ser på saker innan den föreslår ett nytt sätt att göra saker.

	inte alls Instämmer mycket lite	Instämmer lite Instämmer	någorlunda Instämmer mycket	Instämmer nästan helt Instämmer	helt
Instämmer					

Fanns det något du skulle vilja förbättra med den här enkäten?

Du har nu slutfört enkäten. Tack så mycket för att du deltog.
Du kan nu stänga fönstret.

Appendix D

Lärares metoder i klassrummet

Sida 1

Informationen insamlad från denna enkät kommer att användas i forskningssammanhang för att kartlägga en del av lärares metoder i klassrummet. All data är helt anonymiserad och kommer att förstöras efter att forskningsuppgiften är avklarad. Genom att klicka på alternativet 'Jag samtycker' samtycker du till att dina svar får användas till detta syfte. Detta är nödvändigt med hänsyn till dataskyddsförordningen GDPR.

Du får också vid vilket tillfälle du vill maila mig på anthon.brunzell@hotmail.com för att dra tillbaka ditt deltagande i den här undersökningen. *

Jag samtycker

Först och främst innan enkäten börjar, svara i hur hög grad du håller med påståendet:

Jag känner att jag får mycket egen makt över mitt arbete och att mina arbetsuppgifter inte kontrolleras av min arbetsgivare. *

Instämmer inte alls	Instämmer mycket lite	Instämmer mycket
	Instämmer lite	Instämmer nästan helt
Sida 2	Instämmer någorlunda	Instämmer helt

Den här enkäten mäter några av de tänkbara metoder en lärare skulle använda i klassrummet vid olika situationer.

Nedanför kommer flera olika fall presenteras, och du kommer att få svara så ärligt som möjligt på frågan "Vad gör du helst när..." med hjälp av tre olika alternativ per fall. Fallen berör vad du gör på kort sikt, framförallt i klassrummet och inte vad du eventuellt gör på lång sikt.

En eller flera elever gör annat än att arbeta på lektionen eller är på något sätt frånvarande från arbetet. *

Jag informerar eleverna om arbetet i fråga.

Jag informerar eleverna om att deras närvaro och arbete är obligatoriskt.

Jag informerar eleverna om deras insats påverkan på deras betyg.
En klass jobbar mer för en gångs skull, men har ännu inte nått önskad nivå. *

Jag försöker bara ge beröm åt de elever som har det svårast.

Jag försöker inte ge för mycket beröm åt eleverna.

Jag försöker ge beröm åt de flesta elever.

En elev är rastlös under en period av eget arbete och du förstår av elevens signaler att den vill ha hjälp med att komma i fas igen. *

Jag berättar för eleven vad det är för steg den ska ta i det här skedet av arbetet.

Jag försöker få eleven att koncentrera sig på uppgiftsinstruktionerna.

Jag berättar för eleven varför den bör arbeta.

En klass läser ur kurslitteraturen (skönlitteratur, artiklar eller kursbok) på en lektion men läser för långsamt för att lektionen ska hinna med ett till arbetsmoment. *

Jag låter eleverna läsa klart och ändrar eller tar bort det extra arbetsmomentet.

Jag informerar eleverna om att de får läsa klart någon annan gång och går vidare i lektionen.

Jag låter eleverna få lite mer tid än normalt till läsning men ändrar också på det extra arbetsmomentet så att det blir kortare.

En elev visar självmant upp en del av sitt skrivande som den gjort under en lektion, det ser ogrammatiskt och närmast oförståeligt ut. *

Jag berömmer eleven för de delar som eleven skrivit korrekt och berättar för eleven om hur den kan göra vissa förbättringar i texten

Jag visar intresse för arbetet och berättar för eleven om hur den kan göra vissa förbättringar i texten. Jag berömmer

eleven för allt det som eleven skrivit och visar på hur den kan göra vissa förbättringar i texten.

Du märker att en elev har svårt att tala inför klassen och inte vill genomföra sådana uppgifter. *

Jag ger eleven uppgifter som är i mindre omfattning, som att tala inför en liten grupp eller spela in istället. Jag

informerar eleven om uppgiftens betydelse för det slutgiltiga betyget.

Jag behandlar uppgiften som en utmaning för eleven.

Du har en genomgång i helklass. Två elever som koncentrerar sig inte utan pratar med varandra istället. *

Jag fortsätter med genomgången utan att ge en tillsägelse.

70

Jag ber eleverna visa uppmärksamhet och väntar på att de ska tysta ner innan jag fortsätter genomgången. Jag ber

eleverna visa uppmärksamhet utan att vänta på att de ska tysta ner och fortsätter med genomgången.

En elev är påtagligt stressad över en uppgift. Uppgiften har en deadline som eleven är rädd att den inte kommer klara på grund av att eleven är långsam. *

Jag försöker uppmuntra eleven att kämpa för att genomföra uppgiften.

Jag försöker övertyga eleven om att den inte behöver stressa upp sig för mycket inför den här uppgiften. Jag

berättar för eleven att det är normalt att känna som den gör.

En elev jobbar i grupp med ett ämne som den tycker är intressant men du märker att eleven blir besviken på hur mycket gruppen engagerar sig i ämnet. *

Jag ger gruppen extrauppgifter och mer läsmaterial på ämnet.

Jag visar gruppen vad de behöver göra för att jobba lite snabbare.

Jag ger gruppen mer läsmaterial på ämnet.

Eleverna är motvilliga att genomföra en läsuppgift som måste bli klar inom en vecka. *

Jag säger till de berörda eleverna att uppgiften 'ska vara klar inom en vecka'

Jag säger till de berörda eleverna att uppgiften 'bör vara klar snart'

Jag säger till de berörda eleverna att uppgiften 'kan göras klar inom en vecka'

En klass har en skrivuppgift som de ska jobba på hela lektionen. En elev signalerar mitt i lektionen att den får ångest av arbetet och därför inte har ork att skriva hela lektionen ut. *

Jag visar eleven att negativa känslor är normalt i sådana arbeten och att den bör fortsätta ändå. Jag

säger till eleven att den kan göra något annat resterande del av lektionen.

Jag ger eleven tid till att återhämta sig genom att föreslå en paus.

En klass ska välja en egen bok att läsa för ett ämnesövergripande projektarbete. *

Jag visar eleverna flera olika alternativ till läsning inom ämnet.

Jag visar inga alternativ till läsning utan låter eleverna välja helt själva.

Jag visar eleverna några valda alternativ till läsning inom ämnet.

Vid nya arbetsområden som baserar sig på eget arbete (individuellt eller grupparbeten)... *

...ger jag elever mycket ansvar över material och uppgifterna.

...ansvarar jag för material och de uppgifter som eleverna jobbar med.

...ansvarar jag för material medan eleverna får ansvar över uppgifterna.

Finns det något annat du skulle göra när många i en klass har lågt självförtroende och låg motivation? *

Slutligen, finns det något sätt som enkäten kan förbättras? Var det någon eller några frågor som du inte kunde ge ett rättvisande svar på? Motivera gärna varför.

Tom sida

Du har nu slutfört enkäten. Tack så mycket för att du deltog.

Appendix E

Lärare 1

Det främsta att göra vid låg motivation för min del är att träna eleverna i att gilla läget med det tråkiga. Motivation är viktigt för lärande men kanske inte det primära för eleverna vad gäller att hantera sina framtida arbetssysslor i livet då uthållighet nog utgör en viktigare faktor än huruvida man är motiverad till att göra något. Låg motivation kan även vara något man finner hos elever eftersom de inte förstår, men tyvärr kan man inte gå ifrån kursplanen i allt för hög grad. Öppna uppgifter kan vara ett sätt att komma ifrån detta, men det är svårt att ha exempelvis "öppen" läsning med tillhörande frågor där man har förberett material på olika nivåer. Låg motivation och självförtroende kan även bero på det relationella och inte med självaste vad man gör i ämnet heller. Ibland har eleverna inte den tilliten till en och gör därmed inte så mycket på ens lektioner - i sådana fall får man bygga på det istället.

Lärare 2

Anpassa undervisningen för att successivt bygga självförtroende. Anpassa materialet till elevernas intresse och förkunskaper. Prata med dem om vad de kan använda kunskaperna till i framtiden (för att kunna medverka till inre motivation) och vara väldigt tydlig med vad de behöver göra för att klara kursen (yttre motivation).

Lärare 3

Fråga 7. Jag använder mig mycket av kroppspråk och blickar för att kunna fortsätta med en genomgång samtidigt som jag markerar för de som inte arbetar att jag har uppmärksammat dem och har högre förväntningar på dem. Det går till exempel att förflytta sig till den bänk där de som inte är fokuserade sitter, lägga en hand på bänken, eller eventuellt en axel om det behövs.; ;

Fråga 9. Saknar alternativet att enskilt utmana den elev som tycker området är extra intressant.

Lärare 4

Upprätta relationer med eleverna. Arbeta med individuell återkoppling och peppning. Hitta uppgifter som ger dem specifik hjälp med det som de behöver.

Lärare 5

Just på denna skolan är mycket individanpassat. Men att ge mycket beröm och genom det höja motivationen och att göra ämnet/uppgiften rolig. Utforma uppgifter som eleverna kan relatera till.

Lärare 6

Det finns många sätt att arbeta motivationshöjande, t ex att ta vara på det lilla, ofta ge feedback samt att se de små framsteg som görs. Att ta gemensamma grepp och prata om varför ämnet är viktigt, att kunna motivera varför man gör en viss typ av uppgift. Också att konstruera uppgifter som eleverna känner igen ifrån sin egen världsbild. Att färga in uppgifter, t ex när man arbetar på ett yrkesprogram försöka koppla teoretiska uppgifter till elevernas praktiska arbete.