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FACULTY OF SOCIAL AND HUMAN SCIENCES

School of Psychology

**What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of
managed moves?**

by

Patrick Thomas Mahon

Thesis for the degree of Doctorate in Educational Psychology

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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF SOCIAL AND HUMAN SCIENCES

SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Doctorate in Educational Psychology

What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of managed moves?

Patrick Thomas Mahon

Managed moves were introduced by the DfE (1999) in an effort to lower the rising number of permanent exclusions in schools. Abdelnoor (2007) described a managed move as a process whereby a student, typically during a school year, moves from one school to another, or to an alternate education provision, to avoid being permanently excluded. This study follows on from a small scale research project by Trainee Educational Psychologists (Mahon, MacKenzie, Delo, & Foy, 2014), which found that self-determination, as defined by Deci and Ryan (1985), played an important role in students' managed move success. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) identified that when a person's innate needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness were satisfied they experienced intrinsic motivation, which is conducive to optimal learning in an educational setting (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). The first chapter of this study begins with a literature review of the benefits of intrinsic/autonomous motivation in the classroom. The review confirmed that when a student's needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were satisfied in a classroom setting they experienced intrinsic or autonomous motivation. The four main benefits of student intrinsic/autonomous motivation in the classroom consistently found in the literature were willingness to engage, task persistence, increased student well-being and academic achievement. The review highlighted a lack of research on SDT and student exclusions and/or transition. The search was unable to find any studies on SDT and managed moves.

The second chapter responds to gaps identified by the literature review and used an Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) approach to explore the students' experience of self-determination in their managed move. Findings suggest that when students' self-determination needs are met they are more likely to result in a successful managed move, in terms of their increased engagement, both academically and socially in school, resulting in higher academic achievement, positive wellbeing and future aspirations.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, Patrick Mahon, declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of managed moves?

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. Either none of this work has been published before submission.

Signed:

Date: 22/12/16.....

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Definitions and Abbreviations

AM Autonomous Motivation

DfE Department for Education

EM Extrinsic Motivation

EP Educational Psychologist

IM Intrinsic Motivation

LA Local Authority

MM Managed Move

SDT Self-Determination Theory

SIO Social Inclusion Officer

Chapter 1. Self Determination Theory: What are the benefits of intrinsic/autonomous motivation in the classroom?

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Background and purpose of the review

Self Determination theory. Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985) is a model of motivation used to explain human motivation, development and wellbeing that can be applied to multiple domains of a person's life including education, relationships, sports, work and health. The theory originated out of Deci and Ryan's work in the 1980s where they argued that the type and quality of a person's motivation was more important than the amount of motivation when predicting an outcome. Ryan and Deci (2000) described a person's sense of self-determination and motivation as being on a continuum, making a distinction between three different types of motivation on that continuum: intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation. Intrinsic motivation is where a person does something for the sheer pleasure and satisfaction of completing that activity. Accordingly, intrinsically motivated individuals identify as having the greatest sense of self-determination, or autonomy and are at the top end of the motivation continuum (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Amotivated people, or those who experience the least sense of self-determination and lack motivation, are placed at the opposite low end of the continuum (see Figure 1. below). In between these two points of the continuum is extrinsic motivation, where a person's motivation to engage in and complete an activity relies on external regulations. This type of motivation lacks a sense of volition, as people who are extrinsically motivated only engage in an activity to either achieve an outcome, or to avoid a negative consequence.

There are four types of regulation associated with extrinsic motivation: external, introjected, identified and integrated. These four forms of extrinsic motivation are also placed along the continuum according to the level of autonomy associated with it. The first, external regulation, described by Niemiec and Ryan (2009) as the least autonomous type of extrinsic motivation, is where a person engages in an activity solely to gain a reward or avoid a punishment. The second is introjected regulation, where a person engages in an activity to satisfy internal factors, like boosting their self-esteem, or to avoid the guilt of failure. These two forms of

Self-Determination and Managed Moves

extrinsic motivation are considered to be controlled forms of motivation, and are associated with an internal locus of control. In contrast, identified regulation, where a person engages in an activity because mastery of it will lead to a more motivating activity, and integrated regulation, where a person engages in an activity because it fits with their values have been described as the most autonomous forms of regulation and are associated with an internal locus of causality (Niemic & Ryan, 2009).

While intrinsic motivation is considered the highest level of motivation, Haerens and colleagues (2010) argued that individuals are also highly motivated to engage in an activity when their behaviour is based on either personal values or interests. As such, extrinsic forms of motivation, identified and/or integrated regulation are often found in studies to be correlated with intrinsic motivation, otherwise known as autonomous motivation. Although Deci, Koestner, and Ryan's (1999) meta-analysis identified that extrinsic motivation undermines intrinsic motivation, this refers to external and introjected regulations, which are controlling forms of extrinsic motivation. Niemic and Ryan's (2009) review of SDT's applications in education identified the potential importance of controlling forms of extrinsic rewards to initially engage students in subjects they did not like, or found difficult.

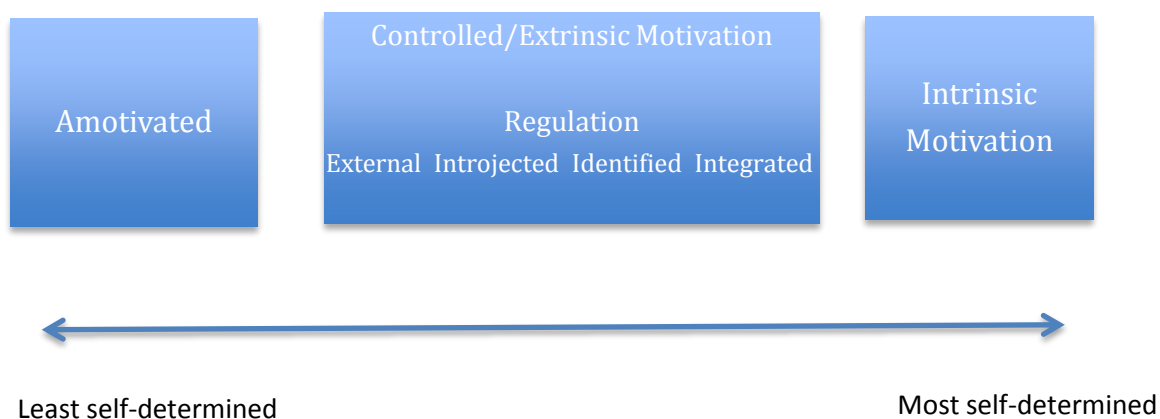


Figure 1. The Self Determination Continuum (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Deci and Ryan's (1985) research in the field of motivation identified three innate psychological needs that must be satisfied in order to achieve intrinsic motivation which results in optimal and development. These three innate needs are relatedness, competence and autonomy. Deci and Ryan (2000) defined relatedness as a person's sense of belonging within their environment and with the people within that environment. In a school this is evidenced by a student's positive relationships with both peers and adults and their engagement in

groups/activities both within the classroom, as well as outside it. Competence was defined as a person's feeling of effectiveness in their interactions with their environment (Deci & Ryan, 2000), in a school this includes the successful engagement with a student's social as well as, academic environment. Finally, Deci and Ryan (2000) defined autonomy as a person's experience of volition in their behavior within these environments. Deci and Ryan (1985) found that people who were intrinsically motivated showed increased engagement and persistence and performed optimally within that activity. In a classroom, students' experience of intrinsic/autonomous motivation to learn resulted in optimal learning performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The importance for a student to experience all three innate needs of self-determination experience intrinsic motivation and its academic benefits was highlighted when compared with studies of student belonging. Baumeister and Leary's (1995) theory of belonging is similar to Deci and Ryan's (1985) definition of Relatedness but their theory only focused on a person's need for belonging and neglected a person's need for competence and autonomy. Baumeister and Leary (1995) reported that students who experienced increased levels of belonging in school also reported increased engagement and academic achievement, however Williams (1990), whose studies of ostracism were used to evidence the theory of belonging, reported that belonging on its own was not enough to explain the results recorded and identified a person's need for self-determination as the missing factor.

While Deci and Ryan (1985) identified that a person must experience the three innate needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness in order for students to internalise their motivation to learn, the majority of SDT studies do not specify a particular order in which these three needs are experienced. The fact that the order of these needs is not specified can be explained by the self-report measures used by the majority of SDT studies, which only measured whether a person experienced all three needs, not the order in which they are experienced. Some studies, like Maulana, Opdenakker, Stroet, and Bosker's (2013) cross cultural observational study, which have found that teacher relatedness was the most important predictor of initial student engagement. This was also reported by Niemiec and Ryan's (2006) review of SDT in education. However, both of these studies reported that relatedness on its own was not enough for a student to internalise their academic motivation, further emphasising the importance of all three needs being met. The longitudinal results from both papers agreed that relatedness promoted students' initial motivation to engage in learning but based on findings from their direct observations and student self-report over time, argued that students also needed to experience competence and autonomy in their learning, in order to internalise and maintain their intrinsic motivation over time.

While self-determination emphasises student autonomy, and students can be intrinsically motivated to engage with their learning prior to entering the classroom, Deci and Ryan (2000) emphasised the importance of the teacher's role in promoting student self-determination by establishing an autonomous learning environment in school, through autonomy supportive practices. To be autonomy supportive is to work in a manner that promotes a person's three psychological needs of SDT, competence, autonomy and relatedness. Niemiec and Ryan (2009) highlighted that teacher autonomy support plays an important role in students' internalisation of the motivation process in schools, so learning becomes part of the students' values. Vansteenkiste and colleagues (2008) explained that teacher autonomy support was not only predictive of student intrinsic/autonomous motivation, it also helped students mediate the reported negative aspects of their course, such as work load and examinations. Niemiec and Ryan (2009) reported a positive correlation between teacher autonomy support and student intrinsic motivation at all levels of education.

Smit, de Brabander and Martens (2014) highlighted that an autonomy supportive environment was not allowing students to do as they pleased but described it as being a well-structured and positive environment. An environment that engaged students academically, socially and emotionally. Sierens and colleagues (2009) identified an important aspect of teacher autonomy support was structuring the learning environment to provide optimally challenging tasks for students. Vansteenkiste and colleagues' (2008) experimental study reported that teachers' communication significantly influenced a student's motivation to engage in a subject regardless of the student's interest in that topic. The authors identified that teachers who provided a positive, intrinsic rationale for the benefits of learning had students who reported to be more intrinsically motivated to engage in that subject and performed better than students whose engagement in learning was extrinsically framed. Studies by Sierens and colleagues (2009) and Autio, Hietanoro and Ruismäki (2011) identified specific aspects of teacher communication style that were an important part of autonomy supportive practice. These included; using clear, non-controlling language to identify guidelines and expectations, offering increased opportunities for student choice and self-direction in their learning, not giving answers but asking for students' opinions and providing positive supportive feedback.

As well as particular teaching methods and classroom management practices, Brewer (2005) identified that a teacher's personal qualities were an important factor in motivating students to continue attending and engaging in class. Qualities identified by students as evident in autonomy supportive teachers included; being friendly, enthusiastic, knowledgeable about their students, open-minded and accepting of their students' ideas. Spanish university students in Doménech-Betoret and Gómez-Artiga's (2014) study reported that teachers who were autonomy

supportive displayed positive thinking styles, were more holistic and used metacognitive approaches to learning. Smit and colleagues' (2014) study identified that students in an autonomy supportive classroom had better teacher-student relationships than in more controlling learning environments, which is important as El, Tillema and van Koppen's (2012) found that teacher-student relationships influenced students' acceptance of their teachers' feedback. Chirkov and Ryan (2001) and Maulana, Opdenakker, Stroet and Bosker's (2013) studies evidenced the benefits of teacher autonomy support practices on student self-determination across cultures.

1.1.2 Aims and Objectives of the literature review

SDT has enormous relevance today given the government's agenda to improve student performance and close the attainment gap in schools (DfE, 2013). Schools are finding themselves under increased pressure to meet test targets which impacts on teaching practices and has been found to lead to more controlling teaching styles rather than SDT related autonomy supportive practices (Harlen & Deakin-Crick, 2002). If autonomy supportive teaching leads to intrinsic motivation to learn then it would be reasonable to suggest that the absence of self-determination could lead to maladaptive classroom behaviours. Research tells us that challenging behaviour is the main cause of school exclusions and impact on school attainment (DfE, 2014). While the empirical study in chapter two will explore the student's experience of self-determination in their managed moves, the aim of this systematic review of the application of SDT in the classroom is to address the potential benefits of intrinsic/autonomous motivation in the classroom. Including studies with students in primary, secondary and university educational settings, this review will also take into account findings from a variety of study designs including cross-sectional, longitudinal, intervention and qualitative. The systematic review will include a critical assessment of the reviewed studies' quality and will consider the efficacy of these studies, as well as the implications of findings for students and schools.

1.2 Method

1.2.1 Data Sources and Search Strategy

The systematic literature search was conducted on 2nd November 2015, and was then updated on 22nd March 2016, to identify published studies on SDT in education using two computer databases PsychINFO via EBSCO, and Web of Science, with search dates set between 1985-2016. These date parameters were chosen as 1985 was the year Deci and Ryan published their first paper outlining Self-Determination Theory. During the initial exploration of the literature a number of key words generated by studies of Self-Determination Theory were searched as well as combinations of key words using AND. The search term "Self-Determination

Theory”, itself initially yielded 13,157 studies. Authors names “Deci” and “Ryan” were removed from the search terms as it limited the variety of studies identified. The final search terms used included a combination of “Self Determination Theory”, “intrinsic motivation” and “education”. When combined the searches yielded 61 studies in PsychINFO and 153 studies in Web of Science at the second search.

In keeping with a pre-defined set of inclusion and exclusion criteria, studies were reviewed for relevance and excluded if they did not meet those criteria. For example, a detailed inspection of the studies identified by these search engines found that 135 studies were related to self-determination and physical education in school, as these studies were not set in a classroom learning context they were removed from the review. During the course of the research eight additional studies were identified through a manual review of references in the publications identified or review papers on Self-Determination Theory. Of the initial 214 papers identified, full texts were retrieved for 57 publications and of these, 28 papers, covering 35 different studies, met the inclusion criteria for this literature review. A flow diagram of the search process is shown in Figure 2.

1.2.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Participants. The search focused on research conducted with students across primary/elementary, secondary/high school and college/university education settings (between ages 4 and 23). This search included both mainstream and special educational provisions.

Study Design. Studies employing quantitative and qualitative methodologies were eligible for inclusion in the literature review. Individual case studies or single subject designs were included in the review but none were found by the search.

Study Context. As this review was related to the application of SDT in the classroom, studies of SDT that did not measure intrinsic and/or autonomous motivation in the classroom were excluded e.g. studies that focused on physical education were excluded.

Outcome variables and analysis. Only studies that measured student self-determination as an outcome in an educational context were included in the review. Self-report measures, teacher and/or clinician reports were all considered for inclusion.

Publication Requirements. Only studies that were published in peer-reviewed journals were considered for inclusion in this literature review. Given SDT’s international application, overseas articles that fit the inclusion criteria were included as long as the article was published in English. Unpublished and/or non-peer reviewed works such as dissertations, book chapters,

abstracts and conference proceedings were excluded from consideration. Academic review papers that did not present original work and meta-analysis studies of SDT were not included in this literature review.

Data Extraction and Synthesis. The data extracted from the 28 eligible papers included: study design, descriptive information of participants (including age, gender and stage of education), descriptive information about the study (including methods, content and duration), outcome measures and key results. Studies are organised by design and presented in order of outcome. A full table of all included papers can be reviewed in Appendices A-D.

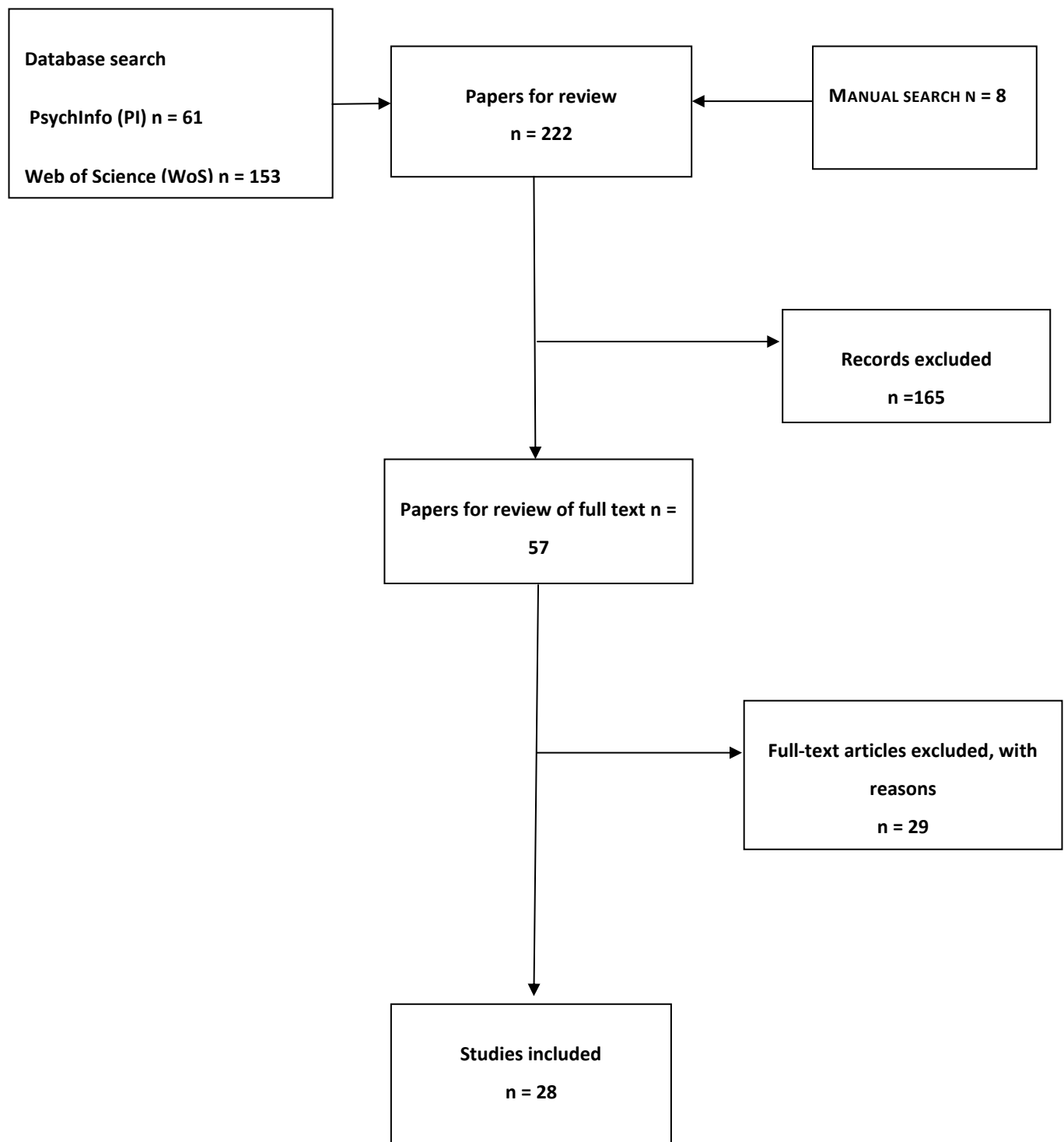


Figure 2. Flow chart of inclusion and exclusion of papers from the systematic review.

1.3 Quality Assessment

The quality of the eligible studies was assessed using Downs and Black's (1998) checklist. This assessment consisted of 27 items, split across five areas including: Reporting, External Validity, Internal Validity (bias), Internal Validity (confounding selection bias). Booth, Papaioannou and Sutton (2012) advised against the use of scoring systems, like this one, to measure the quality of the individual studies. While the studies were not scored, the checklist was used to produce an overall summary of the strengths and weaknesses of the identified studies as reported below.

Reporting. The studies clearly described the main aims, hypotheses, measures used, processes and key outcomes of their research. However, descriptions of participant characteristics varied greatly between studies. While all reported the numbers of participants involved, information around gender, ethnicity and other demographic data varied between studies. The majority of longitudinal studies reported participant attrition rates over the course of their research but only a few acknowledged/calculated the impact of this on their findings.

External Validity. The cross sectional, longitudinal and intervention studies included large participant sample sizes in their studies. All the studies recruited participants from only mainstream educational provisions and there were no studies from special educational provisions. While reporting of demographic information about specific samples varied between studies, what is known is that the study samples were carried out across 14 different countries. The participant samples came from a variety of different social and cultural environments including capitalist and communist states. The variety of self-report measures between studies makes it hard to compare study results, but studies did consistently report similar findings. Teachers did oversee experiments and questionnaire completion in the majority of studies, which may have implications for consistency of intervention fidelity. All studies took place in the participants' own school environment and while this makes for a more natural environment, it will have had implications on the consistency of implementation between studies, depending on time of day it was carried out, the teachers, things going on in school that day.

Internal Validity. Out of the 34 studies, all studies, except Sweet, Guthrie and Ng (1998), used at least one evidence-based self-report measures. The self-report questionnaires used Likert Scales to measure the different study outcomes. The self-report measures used were assessed for reliability and validity, for example the Academic Motivation Scale has been translated and assessed for reliability across different cultures and languages (Barkoukis, Tsorbatzoudis, Grouios, & Sideridis, 2008) and was found to have satisfactory levels of internal consistency and temporal stability, as was the scale's construct, concurrent, and predictive validity. However, eight studies used adaptations of evidence-based measures and four studies used bespoke measures alongside

these other measures. These Self-report studies used factor analysis to explore the reliability, and construct validity of these adapted measure. As discussed previously, Valås and Søvik's (1993) study used Harter's (1981) scale for measuring student motivation. This self-report's validity has been questioned due to its polar measure of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This means that a person can be either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. Harter and Jackson (1992) themselves acknowledged that measurements of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation as being polar opposites led to people being categorized as being intrinsic, or extrinsic, giving the view that motivation was trait-like, in that you either have it or you don't. As our understanding of motivation has developed, studies have recognised that people's motivation profile was not oriented to one type of motivation or the other but was a complex and changing profile made up of different types of motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000). This is reflected in Deci and Ryan's (2000) self-determination continuum (see Figure 1). In addition to this measure, Valås and Søvik's (1993) study used other measures of student motivation hence the decision to include it in this review.

The assessment periods reported by the intervention studies reviewed were relatively short with the longest being 13 weeks and the shortest being one day. Six of the seven studies had autonomy supportive conditions and a teacher directed condition, and one was based on a reward/no reward condition. Where teachers were asked to lead a particular intervention condition, the success of teachers adhering to this consistently was not measured or reported. All intervention conditions used a randomisation procedure with motivation orientation being the main criteria for group choice. All intervention studies used single blind participant procedures. Double blind procedures were not relevant for these intervention studies.

Power. The majority of studies did not report power.

1.4 Results

The database search identified a total of 28 papers with a total of 35 studies for consideration in this literature review, including fifteen cross-sectional, ten longitudinal, seven interventions and three qualitative studies. A full description of the studies can be found in Appendix A-D.

1.4.1 Cross Sectional Studies

Study Characteristics. A total of 15 cross-sectional quantitative studies were identified for inclusion in this review. All studies took place in mainstream educational settings across ten different countries, including USA, Russia, Germany, Canada, Belgium, Norway, Greece, China, South Korea, Holland and Spain. Of the studies that reported the gender of participants, 47% were males and 53% were females. The participant sample size of the studies ranged from 68

participants up to 3475. The study samples went across primary, secondary and university settings and included three studies in primary, ten in secondary and two from university settings. One study (Skinner & Chi, 2012) included children in primary and secondary settings but these were separate groups and the study did not examine the transition between schools/years. The study's participant sample had an age range between 7 years and 23 years old. Nine of the fifteen studies' student samples came from one school, or university only. The other six studies recruited students from between two and ten school/university settings. All studies set out to measure student self-determination and motivation, only six of the studies specifically focused on the effect of teacher autonomy support on student self-determination and motivation. Further details of the cross sectional studies can be found in Appendix A.

Measures. All studies relied on self-report measures of self-determination and motivation. Fourteen studies relied on student feedback and only one relied on teacher perceptions of student motivation (Sweet et al., 1998). The 15 studies used a total of 28 different self-report measures. While all studies measured student experiences of autonomy, relatedness and competence, some studies also measured other variables such as well-being, engagement, achievement, teacher influence, peer influence, parent influence and confidence. Only three studies used measures other than self-report questionnaires, such as student academic results as a measure of achievement, and one of these studies also used IQ measures. It has to be noted that three studies (Bieg et al., 2013; Skinner & Chi, 2012 and Sweet et al., 1998) used bespoke self-report questionnaires and six studies used adapted self-report measures where sub-sections of existing evidenced based assessments had been taken and adapted to meet the needs of the study. The most common motivation measures used were the Self-Regulatory Styles Questionnaire (Ryan & Connell, 1989), which was used by six studies, and the Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993), which was used by three studies.

Results. Of the 15 cross sectional studies, 14 reported that when the three basic needs of Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT were met students reported experiencing intrinsic or autonomous motivation. In one study, El and colleagues (2012), found that meeting a student's competence and relatedness needs was predictive of intrinsic motivation but not autonomy. Ryan and Deci (2000) described an autonomy supportive environment as one that promotes the student's three psychological needs of SDT resulting in optimal learning. Students in 12 of the 15 cross sectional studies reported that intrinsic and autonomous motivation (a combination of intrinsic and identified and/or integrated forms of extrinsic motivation) were highest when they experienced greater autonomy in the classroom. Although one study by Doménech-Betoret and Gómez-Artiga (2014) reported that teacher autonomy support had a weak effect on intrinsic motivation, it was

still significant. The authors noted that autonomous teaching was a new practice in Spanish universities and they indicated that the resistance to this practice may explain this result.

Teacher's practice was identified as an important part of facilitating the students' sense of autonomy in the classroom. Sweet and colleagues' (1998) study found that rather than a cooperative peer learning environment being responsible for the increased student sense of self-determination, it was teacher autonomy support. This finding was based on teacher reports and not student self-reports, which may open this finding up to bias, however the other studies that relied on student self-reports and were not open to this bias also identified the important role of the teacher autonomy in supporting student self-determination. Teacher practices that have been shown to be significant in terms of increasing students' sense of autonomy are feedback and scaffolding (El, Tillema & van Koppen, 2012). They also noted that more controlling (extrinsic) forms of teacher support such as proximity and monitoring can influence students' sense of relatedness with their teacher but did not affect changes in intrinsic motivation. Bieg and colleagues (2013), in keeping with SDT literature, found that other extrinsic motivators, such as rewards and punishments, negatively impacted student motivation. Lavigne, Vallerand, and Miquelon (2007) identified that even students who were already motivated to engage in a lesson identified their teachers who were more supportive of their autonomy as helping to further develop their competence in that subject. Valås and Sjøvik (1993), reported that teachers' autonomy support significantly impacted the motivation of students regardless of their self-belief in their academic ability, IQ or previous achievement. However, Valås and Sjøvik (1993) also reported that students who had a high academic self-concept still reported high intrinsic motivation regardless of whether their teacher was perceived as controlling. While 14 of the studies focused on the classroom our understanding of autonomy support was further developed by findings from Utvaer's (2014) study which found that autonomy support from any significant adult in the school environment, not just the teacher, helped develop intrinsic or autonomous motivation in that young person. It is important to note that studies, like Jang and colleagues (2009; Study B) have also shown that when their participants experienced relatedness on its own, but not autonomy and competence, it was not sufficient and students reported having an unsatisfying learning experience.

Intrinsic motivation has various academic and wellbeing benefits. Nine of the 15 studies explicitly reported that meeting the students' basic needs of SDT increased motivation and in turn their engagement in that lesson. However, one study (Lavigne, Vallerand, & Miquelon, 2007) implied increased engagement through their reported association between intrinsic or autonomous motivation and persistence but did not directly report on engagement. The contradiction between why some studies found conflicting evidence that intrinsic motivation was

associated with student engagement benefits can be explained by either the focus of a particular study, or how the authors reported the results. Zhao and colleagues (2011) reported that it was curiosity not enjoyment that significantly affected student exploration behaviour and resulted in student reported experiences of flow in the classroom. The majority of studies identified that these benefits are specific to the classroom environment in which they are experienced. However, in the cross sectional studies only Skinner and Chi's (2012) study found that motivation generated through the autonomy support of one teacher can help students to generalise this motivation across to other subjects. This contradiction could be explained by the fact that 10 of these studies were based in secondary schools and students had different teachers for each subject therefore consistency of teacher autonomy support practices could not be guaranteed between classroom environments as every teacher has their own style of teaching practice and some teachers will use controlling teaching practices and others will be more autonomy supportive. It may just be that the students in Skinner and Chi's (2012) study had teachers who all used autonomy supportive practices. However, this result was more likely due to the fact that Skinner and Chi's (2012) results were all recorded in subjects that were science-related and if a student is motivated by one subject they are more likely to be motivated in the other.

While Skinner and Chi (2012) reported that increased student engagement in one area of study positively impacts engagement in other areas of school, this was not reflective of findings from other secondary school studies, where intrinsic motivation and engagement was specific to that environment. As discussed above, this contradiction may be related to the study design in terms of the relationship between the classes that students were asked to report on.

The majority of studies reported on the relationship between motivation and engagement but less than a third reported on task persistence, in terms of students' ability to remain focused on their learning when it got difficult, which is a relevant piece of information for school staff and Educational Psychologists. Four studies reported that intrinsic or autonomous motivation was associated with student persistence. It makes sense that Lavigne and colleagues (2007) found that greater level of student perceived competence, predicted higher levels of academic persistence. As a student experiences success they are more motivated to continue. Reports on persistence were not always specific to the classroom environment and Skinner and Chi (2012) reported that students in their study who experienced greater self-determination in a subject reported their intention to persist with it beyond school by pursuing a career in that field. As this was a cross sectional study there was no data on how many students did so.

If a student is motivated to engage and persists when tasks get difficult, it could be expected that they would also report greater levels of academic achievement than students who

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were not as motivated. However, only six studies reported an association between intrinsic and autonomous motivation and academic achievement across different subject areas. This does not mean that the students in the other studies did not also experience academic achievement, it is just that the focus of those studies was on other aspects of self-determined motivation in the classroom. Five of these studies found a positive association even when students' previous achievement was controlled for. Utvaer (2014) also found that even students with poor grades and high absence rates in their early secondary school education could still succeed if they experienced the three needs of SDT. Only three of these six studies used the students' academic performance to evidence academic achievement. Two other studies used teacher reports of achievement and one relied on students' self-report measures. Student performance was the strongest measure of achievement as they are not open to bias, unlike teacher reports and student reports in particular.

Ryan and Deci's (2000) theory of self-determination identified that the more self-determination a person experiences the greater their sense of wellbeing. Of the six studies that measured academic confidence and self-belief all six reported a positive association between students whose basic needs of SDT were met and high academic self-belief/confidence. Seven of the studies also reported an association between greater perceived self-determination and a greater sense of well-being. This finding was reported in less than 50% of the studies, but of the studies that measured it, 100% found a positive association. Most studies generally reported on increased intrinsic/autonomous motivation being associated with increased self-esteem, or enjoyment. This was reported cross culturally, where Bieg and colleagues (2013) reported that autonomous motivation was associated with lower anxiety as well as greater enjoyment in learning in both American and German secondary student samples. Jang and colleagues (2009; studies 1A and B) reported that when the three psychological needs of SDT were satisfied, Korean students reported experiencing a satisfying learning experience and high self-esteem but when all three needs were not experienced students reported low self-esteem.

Three studies reported on SDT and school attendance. Two of these studies found that students who reported an increased sense of self-determination in a specific field of study also reported an intention to continue with their education and pursue a career in that area. While it makes sense that students who were highly motivated showed increased engagement, persistence and experienced academic achievement were more likely to continue with their learning, the sample size was too small to draw definite conclusions. One cross sectional study (Utvaer, 2014), taking it from the perspective of a lack of motivation, reported an association between student amotivation and school dropout, or change of course. The study also identified the other serious implications associated with school dropout, such as being bullied, drug abuse,

criminal behaviour, and personal and health-related problems. None of the cross sectional studies explored transition or exclusion.

The findings show that if a student's self-determination needs are met, then they will experience intrinsic/autonomous motivation regardless of their cultural background. Findings reported by Chirkov and Ryan's (2001) study give weight to the theory that SDT needs are innate, as even students in a communist society, a state controlled environment, reported experiencing lower self-esteem, life satisfaction and self-actualization when the three needs of SDT were not experienced and greater well-being when they experienced autonomy support. It could be argued that if self-determination was not an innate need then people who live in a controlled society would be used to the control and as such not experience the negative effects when a sense of self-determination was not experienced.

Summary. A total of 15 cross sectional studies were included in this review. These studies all used some form of self-report to measure self-determination across primary, secondary and university settings. All of the studies found an association between intrinsic/autonomous motivation and students' experience of a combination of the three needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness. Of the 15 studies, 12 studies made up of both teacher and student reports, found that teacher autonomy support was significantly associated with student intrinsic/autonomous motivation. While one study found that extrinsic teaching practices can positively impact students' sense of relatedness, it was not found to impact intrinsic motivation. Only one study (Utvaer, 2014) explored and found an association between intrinsic motivation and the autonomy support of a significant adult other than the teacher. The study's design and perhaps the question asked by this review may explain this finding. No benefit that was found to be associated with increased intrinsic/autonomous motivation was agreed by all studies. This again is reflective of the aims of a particular study and in some cases the reporting of the findings. Increased engagement was reported by nine of the studies. Only one study (Skinner & Chi, 2012) reported that engagement, as a result of increased intrinsic motivation, generalised across classroom settings. This was identified as indicative of the data collection design of this study as well as the others. Only six studies reported academic achievement to be associated with increased self-determination. Out of the six studies that measured student wellbeing, all reported a positive association with increased intrinsic/autonomous motivation. None of the studies explored transitions but three looked at school attendance following transition and found that school attendance was positively associated with satisfaction of the three needs of SDT.

1.4.2 Longitudinal Studies

Study Characteristics. A total of 10 longitudinal studies were identified for inclusion in this review. All studies took place in mainstream educational settings across six different countries, including UK, Canada, Belgium, Norway, Holland, South Korea and Indonesia. The ten studies had a collective student participant sample of 9093 and 20 teachers. Of those studies that reported the gender of participants, 47% were male and 53% were female, the gender of 9% of the total participant sample was not identified. The participant sample size of the studies ranged from 59 participants up to 4498. The time scales for these studies ranged from one school year (Maulana et al., 2013; Ratelle et al., 2007) to six years (Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014). The study samples went across primary, secondary and university settings and included one study in primary, eight in secondary and three from university settings. One study (Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014) went across both primary and secondary settings and another study (Kyndt et al., 2015) went across secondary and into university. The study samples had an age range between eleven and twenty years of age. Of the ten studies only four (Kyndt et al., 2015; Busse & Walter, 2013; Jang & Reeve, 2009 and Valås & Sjøvik, 1993) reported the number of schools that students were recruited from, which ranged from one school in Jang and Reeve's (2009) study to 10 in Valås & Sjøvik's (1993). The only study that did not report drop-out rates was Valås and Sjøvik (1993) and only Jang and Reeve (2009) reported on the impact of the drop-out rate on their findings. Five studies carried out assessments at two time points. Maulana and colleagues' (2013) study carried out the most assessments with observations at 12 different time points across the duration of their study. Four of the 10 studies explored the association between student experience of the three needs of SDT and motivation in the classroom. Three studies directly examined the relationship between teacher autonomy support and student motivation. Four studies explored the association between student intrinsic motivation and school adjustment. Further details of longitudinal studies can be found in Appendix B.

Measures. The nine studies used a total of 12 different self-report measures with little commonality between the measures used. Two studies (Maulana et al., 2013; Kyndt et al., 2015) used the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ; Ryan & Connell, 1989). Four studies from Kyndt and colleagues (2015) and Ratelle and colleagues (2007; three studies) used the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS; Vallerand, Blais, Briere, & Pelletier, 1989). While the reliability and validity of these two questionnaires has been well established and these measures have been used frequently, Harter's (1981) scale for measuring student motivation used by Valås and Sjøvik (1993) does not have the same level of reliability. As discussed earlier, previous studies into motivation used this scale to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, but as researchers' understanding of motivation has developed, the reliability of this measure has changed and it is no longer

considered an acceptable measure by most researchers. This is discussed in more detail later in the review. Two studies used adaptations of established measures and one study used a bespoke measure (Busse & Walter, 2013). The use of different measures makes direct comparisons problematic. Similarly, half of the studies used either an adapted or bespoke measure, raising further questions about reliability and validity.

Results. Of the 10 longitudinal studies, all reported that when a student's three basic needs of SDT are met they reported experiencing intrinsic/autonomous motivation. Seven studies reported a direct relationship between an autonomous learning environment and student motivation. While the importance of the teacher in establishing an autonomy supportive environment has been previously discussed, it was also reported in longitudinal studies. Maulana and colleagues' (2013) study highlighted that teacher autonomy supportive practices were impacted by factors within the school and changed across the school year. The authors found that teachers' autonomy supportive practices became more directive and controlling toward the end of the school term. This finding was in keeping with Niemiec and Ryan's (2009) review of SDT in education, where the authors highlighted that teachers who reported feeling less autonomy in their role as a teacher, relied more on extrinsic strategies and were less creative in their teaching practices. Maulana and colleagues' (2013) study, which included both observational and self-report measures, found that teachers who reported greater autonomy over their teaching of the curriculum reported increased intrinsic motivation and practiced in a more autonomy supportive manner. The teachers in this study also reported a decrease in intrinsic motivation toward the end of the school semester. The researchers identified this period as a time when teachers reported greater fatigue and identified that their focus at the end of the school terms was on completing school curriculum (extrinsic) goals, which resulted in them using more controlling teaching practices. The authors identified that autonomy support increased again at the beginning of the new semester. While the observed change of teaching style at the end of school terms impacted students in the mixed ability classes by reducing motivation, students in the high ability class reported that autonomous motivation remained high.

The two longitudinal studies (Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014; Kyndt et al., 2015) that spanned educational settings reported that students' experience of autonomous motivation support changed between settings. Students in these studies reported a decreased experience of autonomy, and an increase in controlled motivation in secondary as opposed to experiences in primary and university levels. Greater autonomy support was reported by students in primary school (Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014) which decreased as they moved through secondary school. Students in Kyndt and colleagues' (2015) study reported that their experience of autonomy support increased again when they moved from secondary school into university, where they

reported experiencing more controlling forms of motivation. Students in Busse and Walter's (2013) study identified that increased curriculum challenges coupled with a lack of appropriate teaching support can impact on student sense of motivation, even in a university environment where students reported a greater sense of intrinsic/autonomous motivation compared with secondary school students.

Five of the studies reported an association between student experience of intrinsic/autonomous motivation and increased engagement and persistence in lessons. While this is only half of the studies, it must be taken into consideration that seven studies reported increased achievement and increasing achievement, one could argue, requires increased classroom engagement. This discrepancy between reported achievement and engagement may be related to either the reporting style, or perhaps the measures used in the study.

As mentioned above seven studies found an association between student experience of intrinsic/autonomous motivation and increased academic achievement. Of these studies, Ratelle and colleagues' (2007) third study found that increased academic achievement was experienced by students with a combined autonomous/controlled motivation profile not just intrinsic motivation. This highlighted that students were motivated to achieve not only because they enjoy the subject but because they value learning and appreciate that engagement, in perhaps less motivating subjects, will allow them to access more motivating activities in the future. Mouratidis and colleagues (2013), in keeping with other studies of SDT, identified that students in the high intrinsic aspiration group focused more on mastery approach goals than grades and this approach was associated with greater achievement. While the motivation focus for achievement may be different between students with intrinsic motivation and autonomous motivation, both groups recorded higher levels of achievement than their peers who were extrinsically motivated or amotivated. While SDT studies do not claim that academic achievement is only experienced by those with high intrinsic/autonomous motivation, what this study and others did find was that students with intrinsic/autonomous forms of motivation reported experiencing fewer negative effects as a result of efforts, as discussed below. While other studies have focussed on the need for all three SDT needs to be met for there to be an impact on academic achievement, Jang and colleagues (2009) found that only increased competence was associated with the students' perception of academic achievement.

Five studies reported an association between students' experience of intrinsic/autonomous motivation and their well-being. These studies reported that students who reported a greater sense of self-determined motivation also expressed greater enjoyment of lessons, and or less anxiety, compared with students who reported extrinsic/amotivated

motivation (e.g. Mouratidis et al., 2013). Where a student's focus was on performance-approach/extrinsic goals, they experienced greater test anxiety than students who focused on intrinsic/mastery-approach goals.

Four longitudinal studies reported on academic adjustment and/or attendance. The first and third of Ratelle and colleagues' (2007) studies reported that students with an intrinsic/autonomous profile were more adaptive and more likely to persevere in school than students with an extrinsic/amotivation motivation profile. Overall their studies identified that all three needs play an important role in academic adjustment in different ways. They found perceived competence satisfaction most important in students' adjustment to school demands as well as their affective and physical states but that autonomy and relatedness were more important for social adjustment.

Two studies (Kyndt et al., 2015; Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014) explored students' sense of self determination and motivation across transitions. Both of the transitions reported on were naturally occurring transitions moving from primary to secondary, and from secondary to university education. Although neither study examined transition as a result of exclusion, or a Managed Move, Ratelle and Duchesne (2014) found that the number of transitions a student experiences negatively impacted on their experience of autonomy support, and in turn their sense of school adjustment. These studies along with Ratelle and colleagues (2007) found that the more a student perceived their SDT needs to be met in their new school, the better their adjustment within that school, in terms of their social, emotional and academic needs. Higher academic adjustment was also related to the probability of that student staying in school.

Summary. A total of 10 longitudinal studies were included in this review. All studies used at least one self-report measure. All 10 studies reported that meeting the three needs of SDT was associated with intrinsic/autonomous motivation. Autonomous support was identified as being positively associated with increased intrinsic/autonomous motivation. Two studies spanned the transition across educational settings, one primary to secondary and the other secondary to university. Both of these studies found that students' experience of self-determination significantly decreased in secondary school in comparison with the other two settings. Another study also identified that teacher autonomy support decreased across a term as completing curriculum goals replaced mastery focused teaching. Half of the studies reported increased engagement and persistence and seven of the studies reported an association between increased intrinsic motivation and academic achievement. Five studies found student wellbeing positively associated with intrinsic/autonomous motivation. Four studies examined SDT role in school transition and adjustment, however none of these studies were related to transitions as a result

of exclusion, like a managed move. Three studies identified that the three needs of SDT were associated with different aspects of student adjustment following transition but all three needs were required for a positive school adjustment.

1.4.3 Intervention Studies

Study Characteristics. A total of seven intervention studies were identified for inclusion in this review. All studies took place in mainstream educational settings across five different countries, including USA, Belgium, Holland, Germany and Australia. Of the studies that reported the gender of participants, 44% were male and 56% were female, 18% of participants' genders were not identified. The sample size of the studies ranged from 59 participants up to 886. The time scales for these studies ranged from one session (Hänze & Berger, 2007; Smit, de Brabander, & Martens, 2014) to 13 weeks (Black & Deci, 2000). The studies' participant samples went across primary, secondary and university settings and included two in primary, three in secondary and two from university settings. No studies went across settings. Three studies were teacher led interventions, only one was researcher led, two teacher and researcher led and one student led. The study sample had an age range between 11 and 20 years of age. The number of sessions ranged from one session (two studies) up to 13 sessions (Black & Deci, 2000; $M = 5$). Five of the studies used different study conditions based on autonomous or controlled learning environments. Four of these interventions (Grolnick & Ryan (1987); Hänze, & Berger, (2007); Mittag, Bieg, Hiller & Melenk, (2009) and Smit, de Brabander, & Martens, (2014)) examined student self-determination and learning across two classroom conditions, a teacher directed classroom and a co-operative classroom. Grolnick and Ryan's (1987) study also divided the co-operative condition between a teacher autonomy supportive condition and a student co-operative learning condition. Vansteenkiste and colleagues (2008) examined student learning motivation in relation to how teachers framed an activity. The authors had two conditions, an intrinsic goal framing and an extrinsic goal framing condition. Children were randomly assigned to either condition regardless of their own personal motivation orientation i.e. whether they were intrinsically, or extrinsically motivated to engage in the first place. Hagger and Chatzisarantis' (2011) study had two conditions, a reward condition and a no reward condition. Students were asked to complete a three dimensional block matching puzzle and their engagement with the activity was observed. Black and Deci's (2000) was the only intervention study with one condition. This study explored university students' engagement with student led tutorial groups and its impact on their attainment. Participation in the groups was completely voluntary. Control conditions would not be suitable for studies of self-determination in the classroom as all teachers have a teaching style, either autonomous, controlling, or a mix of both, which they use to deliver

the curriculum in their classrooms. Further details of the experimental studies can be found in Appendix C.

Measures. The seven intervention studies used a variety of self-report questionnaire measures, with the only overlap coming from two studies that used the General Causality Orientations Scale (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and three other studies using the Learning Self-Regulation Questionnaire (Ryan & Connell, 1989), which was the most commonly used self-report measure across all study designs. While on the surface this appears like a good level of commonality between intervention design study measures used by two thirds of intervention studies, these are just two measures from a total of 13 different self-report measures used by the seven studies. The intervention studies did not rely on self-report only and six of the seven studies used a combination of measures. Four used academic performances, two used observational measures and one used attendance reports. It is noteworthy, that although teachers were involved in the implementation of four of the studies, no teacher report measures were used.

Results. All seven studies reported that when students perceived that their three needs of self-determination were met, they reported feeling more intrinsically/autonomously motivated. All studies reported that students in autonomy supportive environments reported feeling more self-determined. However Black and Deci (2000) identified that students' sense of self-determination prior to starting that course moderated the effect of autonomy support by instructors on student performance. Students with a low sense of self-determination when they began an academic course reported that autonomy support had a greater impact on their performance than students who reported a high level of self-determination on entering the course. Hagger and Chatzisarantis (2011) also recorded a similar effect in the low autonomy support condition, where students who reported being intrinsically orientated prior to being put in the reward/controlling condition were not affected by the extrinsic controls and spent longer on the task than students who reported a control orientation. Mittag, Bieg, Hiller and Melenk (2009) reported that not only the teacher but the school and the curriculum impacted on student sense of self-determination and motivation. The authors found that the most positive effects reported by their German student sample were recorded in Gymnasium schools, these schools are for high achieving students going on to university, whereas the most negative effects on students' reported achievement were recorded in students attending Hauptschules. These schools are typically for students with lower grades and attendance at this school can make it harder for them to attend university. Students in this system are allocated which type of school they attend on the basis of ability, and therefore it is possible that acceptance and motivation will vary as a result of an externally made decision.

All of the studies reported increased student engagement in the autonomy supportive group in comparison to the controlling environment students. This increased engagement also included better learning behaviour by autonomy supported students. Not only did students in the autonomy support conditions engage better, they also engaged for longer than was required (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2011). Both Vansteenkiste and colleagues' (2008) and Grolnick and Ryan's (1987) studies found that students in autonomy support conditions showed better quality learning in their post-intervention assessments, in terms of their greater understanding of the concepts underlying their lessons, in comparison with extrinsic motivation conditions. Black and Deci (2000) found that when students were autonomously supported they showed greater self-regulation in their study.

Five studies reported increased task persistence as a result of experiencing intrinsic/autonomous motivation. Six of the seven studies reported that experiencing intrinsic/autonomous motivation resulted in increased student academic achievement. One study did not report academic achievement as it was not part of its design. Hänze and Berger (2007) found that students with low academic self-confidence in particular reported greater competence in the autonomy supportive cooperative learning setting in comparison to the teacher led condition. While this particular student population excelled in this condition, overall this study did not find a difference between the two conditions in terms of their academic performance, unlike the other four studies.

Four out of the seven studies reported that students who reported increased intrinsic/autonomous motivation also reported increased wellbeing in terms of their increased enjoyment of the task. One of these studies (Black & Deci, 2000) reported that students' perceptions of increased self-determination resulted in a significant decrease in anxiety over the school term. Vansteenkiste and colleagues (2008) reported that how an activity was framed could either enhance, or undermine student enjoyment of learning by changing their perception of the learning activity and their motivation toward it, regardless of their own motivation orientation. Participants in the autonomy supportive condition of Grolnick and Ryan's (1987) study also reported feeling less pressure and therefore enjoying their learning more.

Only two of these studies reported on the impact of the school environment on a student's school adjustment. Smit, de Brabander and Martens (2014) reported that boys in autonomy supportive conditions recorded less non-permitted absenteeism than boys in the controlling environment. Black and Deci (2000) reported that student self-determination was directly related to student intention to drop out of the course. Greater self-determination

enhanced student adjustment, as indicated by significant increases in their perceived competence, interest/enjoyment and a significant decrease in anxiety during the school semester.

Summary. A total of seven experimental studies were included in the systematic review. All seven reported an association between students' reported experience of the three needs of SDT and an increase in their intrinsic/autonomous motivation. All seven studies reported an association between teacher autonomy support and increased self-determination and intrinsic/autonomous motivation. Only one study (Mittag, Bieg, Hiller & Melenk, 2009) reported that autonomy support extended to include the environment and curriculum. One study found that a student's prior motivation orientation mediated the effect of autonomy support, with those students who reported lower self-determination before the intervention reporting that autonomy support had a greater impact on their performance, than students who reported higher self-determination (Black & Deci, 2000). All seven studies reported increased engagement on task and five studies reported students showed increased persistence when their SDT needs were met. Six of the seven studies reported increased academic achievement was associated with increased self-determination and intrinsic/autonomous motivation. One study did not report academic achievement simply because it did not record it. Four studies reported that an increased sense of wellbeing was associated with students' three needs of SDT being met. Only two studies reported on student school adjustment. The studies found that students who reported increased intrinsic/autonomous motivation had lower rates of school absenteeism.

1.4.4 Qualitative Studies

Study Characteristics. A total of three qualitative studies were identified for inclusion in this review. Two were part of mixed measures studies reported above (Busse, & Walter, 2013; Sweet et al., 1998). All studies took place in mainstream educational settings across three different countries, including UK, USA and Finland and included one study in primary, one in secondary and one from a university setting. The three studies had a collective student participant sample of 16 students and six teachers. Student participants comprised eight males and eight females. The teacher participants' gender was not identified. The sample size of the studies ranged from four participants up to 12. The student study sample had an age range between 15 and 20 years of age. Further details of qualitative studies can be found in Appendix D.

Measures. All three studies were interview based but the teacher sample from Sweet and colleagues' (1998) study were asked to review a video of their teaching session with an identified pupil and were interviewed about it afterwards using an interview schedule that consisted of four multi-part questions. Each participant in Busse and Walter's (2013) study completed five interviews in total over the course of the school year.

Results. All three studies reported that an autonomous learning environment directly impacted on student sense of intrinsic/autonomous motivation. As previously discussed teachers in Sweet and colleagues' (1998) study identified teacher autonomy support rather than a peer co-operative environment as being responsible for increased motivation, which could be interpreted as a biased position. One student study (Autio, Hietanoro, & Ruismäki, 2011) identified the whole classroom environment, including its resources, as having an impact on motivation not just the teacher. The two student studies reported an increased engagement in lessons as a result of experiencing increased intrinsic/autonomous motivation. Two studies reported that the experience of intrinsic/autonomous motivation directly impacted on student academic achievement. Students in Busse and Walter's (2013) study also reported increased wellbeing through greater enjoyment in lessons and a decline in persistence when their SDT needs were not being met by the teachers and curriculum.

Summary. Three qualitative studies were included in the literature review. Of these, two were part of mixed measures studies reported earlier. The participant sample included a mix of teachers and students. Only one was a stand-alone study. All three studies identified teacher autonomy support as positively impacting on student experience of intrinsic motivation. The two student studies reported that they experienced increased engagement in lessons as a result of experiencing intrinsic/autonomous motivation, which positively impacted on their academic achievement. One study (Busse & Walter, 2013) also reported positive wellbeing when SDT needs were met and a decrease in motivation and persistence when they were not.

1.5 Discussion

1.5.1 Summary of evidence

Out of the 35 studies considered, 32 found that when a student's needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were satisfied in a classroom setting, pupils/students experienced intrinsic or autonomous motivation. Four main benefits for students were consistently found in the literature, these included, a willingness to engage (23 studies), persistence with a task even when it increased in difficulty (17 studies), increased well-being (17 studies). Increased academic achievement was reported in 21 studies. While it is difficult to say with complete certainty that increased self-determination was solely responsible, there was a consistent association found across the majority of reported studies. The importance of an autonomy supportive classroom environment in promoting the three needs of SDT, resulting in intrinsic or autonomous motivation, was reported by 29 studies. In all these studies the teacher was identified as a key figure in the promotion of these three needs. The findings of this systematic review are in keeping

with the reported benefits of increased self-determination made by Niemiec and Ryan's (2009) review of SDT in education.

Findings consistently reported that an autonomy supportive classroom environment promotes autonomy, competence and relatedness, which positively impacts on intrinsic, or autonomous motivation, which in turn impacts on student achievement. Educational psychologists are increasingly working systemically with schools, as well as with individual teachers and students, and findings from this systematic review identify a clear role for EPs in working with all stakeholders, to highlight the benefits of autonomy supportive teaching practices, described above, as well as drawing attention to the implications of extrinsic controls on student motivation. The findings also highlight the importance of looking at teachers' own motivation in the light of results from Maulana and colleagues' (2013) study, which suggest that the school system impacted not only on pupil motivation but on teacher motivation and practice also.

1.5.2 Future Studies

This review showed that there is a lack of studies that address the importance of autonomy, competence and relatedness in school transitions, which are a time when one might expect these needs to be particularly high, particularly transitions that occur as a result of exclusion, e.g. managed moves. A Web of Science search for SDT, intrinsic motivation and exclusion resulted in only one study. No studies were found that explored managed moves from an SDT perspective. Studies of SDT tend to focus on the positive aspects of intrinsic motivation, yet one finding that came out of nine of the studies was the positive impact intrinsic, or autonomous, motivation had on a student's attendance. This included either their intention to remain in school, or their intention to drop out. Students who reported to be motivated to engage had good relationships with and within school and experienced a sense of competence and achievement. He or she would be motivated to continue and more likely to remain in school, compared with students who reported extrinsic motivation or amotivation. As discussed above, studies like Skinner and Chi's (2012), which looked at motivation and school attendance reported that students who experienced intrinsic, or autonomous, motivation reported their intentions to pursue a career in that field of study where they experienced that autonomy. This suggests that the impact of intrinsic and/or autonomous motivation extends beyond school.

Reflective of the studies in this review and in the field of SDT study in general, school transitions were not widely explored by researchers. Some studies have explored the impact of intrinsic motivation on a student's natural transition, such as primary to secondary school and their adjustment in their new school (Ratelle et al., 2007). They identified a positive association

between students who reported being intrinsically motivated and school adjustment and persistence following their transition to secondary school. The researchers also found that when their new school did not satisfy students' needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness they were more likely to have poor attendance and/or drop out. Black and Deci (2000) identified a student's attitude toward their learning, even before they enter the classroom, as predictive of their intention to drop out. Both Black and Deci (2000) and Smit and colleagues' (2014) studies identified an autonomy supportive learning environment as being predictive of student rates of school absence and school dropout and school attendance was a risk factor for exclusion and managed moves (DfE, 2014). The difference between school dropout and exclusions/managed moves is that school dropout is student led and exclusions/managed moves are school led. Although there is a lack of research on SDT's impact on school transitions, the evidence base for the impact of intrinsic motivation and school transitions is small but growing. There is, however, a real gap in the SDT literature on transitions following exclusion, such as a managed move, which is a special type of transition. This gap in the literature makes the present research on SDT and managed moves an important addition to the evidence base.

1.5.3 Limitations of findings

The greatest limitation of the study sample was their reliance on self-report measures. As Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, (2003) note, self-report measures can increase the risk of method bias, which includes all forms of response bias. However, it can be argued that the essence of SDT means that only a person themselves can truly evaluate their own experience of self-determination, making self-report a valid measure in keeping with the theory. Other measures like behavioural observations require the researcher to impose their perception of the participant's sense of self-determination. While self-report measures may be in keeping with the theory of self-determination, it is the variety of self-report measures used that makes direct comparison between studies difficult. A comparison between different measures would have strengthened the findings, but only four studies used mixed measures. Given the international spread of the studies it is perhaps not surprising that researchers used a variety of different measures that were appropriate for that particular population. However, the adaptation of evidence based measures in keeping with the cultural backgrounds of that student sample, adds further methodological challenges in terms of ensuring reliability and validity, as does developing bespoke measures as some studies have done.

The understanding of intrinsic motivation has changed over time and motivation captured by the self-report measures in earlier studies of SDT may reflect an outdated conceptualisation of motivation. Only one of these studies was included in this review. Valås and Sjøvik's (1993) use of

Harter's (1981) measure of intrinsic motivation may have biased their findings, however the results were strengthened by their use of a variety of evidence including other self-report measures, student IQ and achievement scores, as well as other demographic information.

While the sample sizes were a strength of the studies reviewed, it was noted that some studies did not report their attrition rates. This is an important omission when you consider that Black and Deci (2000) reported an attrition rate of over 50%, which is even more significant given that this is a study on motivation. While this study calculated the impact of attrition based on data recorded at different time points, results of studies that did not report on attrition rates had to be carefully considered.

While the majority of studies identified the classroom environment as important in promoting student autonomy support, the literature search highlighted that SDT studies in schools focused more on the teacher and less on the role of other adults within the school system, such as teaching assistants, pastoral staff and year heads, who also play an important role in meeting the students' SDT needs. The lack of studies on the impact these adults make may be because the roles of other key adults are specific to the UK school system and very few studies identified were British. Also there was a lack of information on the impact of peers on student motivation in a cooperative learning environment.

Overall, SDT literature has been applied to a wide range of different cultural student populations but not to studies of students with learning disabilities. This is perhaps surprising in the light of US policy in the early 1990's which led to funded projects to specifically promote self-determination for students with learning disabilities, in response to reports on poor outcomes for this group.

1.5.4 Strengths of findings

The evidence from these studies was based on large sample sizes and has been replicated internationally across ethnic and socio-economic factors at all levels of education. While the research initially came from a core group of researchers, including Deci and Ryan, the area has grown with a wider group of researchers studying this field, which strengthens the findings from concerns of bias.

A real strength of this review was the consistency of results, despite the different measures used. Overwhelming evidence from the studies reviewed confirmed Deci and Ryan's (1985) initial findings that when a person's three needs of SDT were met, it was predictive of intrinsic, or autonomous motivation and resulted in optimal performance.

The review also gave weight to Deci and Ryan's (1985) proposal that Self-Determination Theory and its three components, competence, autonomy and relatedness are innate universal human needs. Given that Self-Determination Theory promotes intrinsic or autonomous motivation, on the surface as a theory it may be more suited to open societies, as opposed to authoritarian societies where external regulation is the norm and the focus is on obedience and group conformity, rather than autonomous values. It has been argued that in these societies less value would be placed on autonomy, and results from studies of the links between competence, autonomy and relatedness and motivation in these countries would not be as strong as in more open societies. This has not been the case, as the application of SDT in schools has been replicated world-wide as evidenced by the international spread of studies in this review. In particular, Chirkov and Ryan's (2001) study in both collectivist (Russian) and capitalist (American) countries reported that while opportunities to experience self-determination were markedly different, the response when the three needs of self-determination were met were similar regardless of the culture, or society. Research by Maulana and colleagues (2013) on student-teacher relationships in schools in individual and collectivist societies identified that teachers in capitalist societies viewed the student as an autonomous person, and teachers in a collectivist society looked on the student as an extension of the class group. Despite these differences students from the collectivist society population still reported high levels of autonomous motivation. These studies highlight the important inter-relationship between the three needs of SDT and it also shows that people, regardless of culture, have an innate drive for self-determination.

1.6 Conclusions

The majority of studies reported that when a student's needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were satisfied in a classroom setting, students experienced intrinsic or autonomous motivation. The four main benefits of student intrinsic/autonomous motivation in the classroom consistently found in the literature were: willingness to engage, task persistence, increased student well-being and academic achievement. Strengths of the studies included consistency of findings internationally, as well as across cultural and socio-economic populations at all educational levels. The literature review highlighted an over-reliance on self-report measures to gather data. The review also highlighted inconsistencies in reporting of findings, with studies neglecting to report power and attrition rates. The evidence base in the review highlighted a lack of research on SDT and student exclusions and/or transition. The search was unable to find any studies that examined SDT and managed moves.

Chapter 2. What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of managed moves?

2.1 Introduction

2.1.1 School Transitions

Every year in the UK, children in the school system are required to transition from one school to another. Some transitions are expected (e.g. transitioning from primary to secondary school) while other forms of transition are not expected (e.g. a managed transition between schools during a school year) and as unexpected transitions occur less often they are less understood. The empirical research evaluating the impact of transitions has focused mainly on the key education related transitions between the key stages and the transition between year groups. Less research is available on the impact of another education related transition, managed moves.

2.1.2 Managed Moves

Fixed-term and permanent exclusions were introduced in the 1986 Education Act. Following a dramatic increase in the number of permanent exclusions in the 1990s, managed moves were introduced by the Department for Education (DfE; 1999) as part of their social inclusion document highlighting new initiatives to lower the number of permanent exclusions. Abdelnoor (2007) described MMs as a process whereby a student, typically during a school year, moves from one school to another, or to an alternate education provision, to avoid being permanently excluded. The Department for Children, Families and Schools (DCFS; 2008) described managed moves as an initiative that allows a pupil to have a fresh start at a new school with the full cooperation of all parties involved, including parents, schools and the local authority (LA). Findings by Gazeley (2010) supported the claims that schools employed managed moves due to government pressure to reduce the number of permanent exclusions.

The Managed Move Process

Managed moves are an alternative to permanent exclusions. The managed move process may be initiated for a number of reasons including; a breakdown in the relationship between the child and school, continuous breaking of school rules, putting other children at risk, or refusal to attend. Although managed moves were introduced by the government, schools are not required to follow statutory guidelines for implementing them. Abdelnoor's (2007) managed move guidance is the most comprehensive guidance available for schools. Abdelnoor (2007) identified that a successful managed move process was achieved through a series of collaborative meetings

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with all the key people involved with the young person including, school staff, parents, the young person and any external agencies. Ideally a trained member of staff from the young person's current school would be appointed to co-ordinate the managed move process, facilitate the meetings and act as a mediator between all parties. Abdelnoor (2007) emphasised reconciliation where possible and advocated the use of a solution focused approach to the process rather than being to punish and blame, to explore the possibility of making amends so the young person could continue in their current provision.

If reconciliation was not possible then the focus would change to supporting the young person to move on to a new placement in a planned way and to the satisfaction of all parties. The DfES (2008) emphasized that any agreements reached should be done so voluntarily, with the full cooperation of all parties involved, including the young person, parents, governors and the local authority. Once a managed move is agreed with another school provision, further meetings should be arranged by the co-ordinator from the original school to include staff from the new school provision, to plan the transition. Abdelnoor (2007) recommended that these meetings should be attended by the Headteacher of the new school, the class tutor, the child and parents. The focus of these meetings is to identify the student's needs and how the school will meet them. Bagley and Hallam's (2015) study on managed moves highlighted the importance of information sharing between schools for managed move success. An integration plan should be established at these meetings, outlining the integration process, including social, emotional and academic supports (Abdelnoor, 2007). The DfES (2008) called for managed move integration plans to include a "full support package" for the young person but neglected to specify what this support package should incorporate. Vincent and colleagues' (2007) study of a successful managed move programme identified that a managed move integration should be done in consultation and agreement of all stakeholders. The authors emphasised the importance of the receiving school being flexible in terms of their curriculum and supports in order to ensure the student experiences inclusion and a fresh start. This flexible curriculum could include an adjusted learning programme, individualised school timetable and therapeutic supports.

Each managed move includes a trial period at the new school provision. The DfE (2008) recommended that this trial period should be between two weeks and one school term, with most schools settling on a six-week trial period. To ensure a successful trial period, ideally the receiving school and student agree on targets for the young person to meet. If the young person does not meet the targets set they can be moved back to their original school, or to another educational provision. These targets can include academic and behavioural targets. While Abdelnoor (2007) agreed with the need for students to be held accountable for their actions, he recognised that to set targets without providing appropriate supports would set the young person

up to fail. Once the young person completes their trial period the managed move is considered a success.

2.1.3 Pupils at Risk of Permanent Exclusion

The limited body of research tells us that managed move students are at risk of permanent exclusion. A three-year DfE (2014) Exclusion Trial, in 180 schools across 11 LAs identified having had a managed move was a risk factor for permanent exclusion. Others risk factors included; poverty, behaviour, previous exclusion, difficult home situation, poor attainment, poor attendance, other agency involvement, Youth Offending Team involvement, health issues including substance misuse, and/or being a looked after child. Poor behaviour in school was the most common reason to receive a permanent exclusion (DfE, 2014). In the 2010/11 academic year, 24.7% of fixed term exclusions (FTE) in secondary schools were due to persistent disruptive behaviour (DfE, 2013) followed by verbal and threatening behaviour against adults (21.6%) and pupils (18.7%; DfE, 2012). This is the same group of children who experience MMs. Students in Years 9 and 10 represent over 50% of all exclusions (DfE, 2012). Exclusion data from 2013 identified a gender difference in the number of school exclusions, with 128,540 boys receiving one or more FTEs, compared to 45,740 girls, which equated to 3.4% (boys) and 1.3% (girls) of the total school population (DfE, 2013). Pupils with special educational needs (SEN; both with and without statements) were over eight times more likely to be permanently excluded than those pupils with no SEN (DfE, 2010). SEN pupils are over-represented in the exclusion data. In the 2010/11 academic year 7,540 secondary school students with an SEN statement and 72,710 pupils with SEN but no statement received one or more FTE in comparison to 68,650 students without SEN that were excluded (DfE, 2013). Also over represented are certain ethnic groups including Black Caribbean, Roma/Gypsy and Irish traveller and students eligible for Free School Meals are four times more likely to be excluded (DfE, 2013).

2.1.4 Implications of Permanent Exclusions for Young People

A reduction in permanent exclusions would be a positive step considering research strongly suggests that exclusions do not address the underlying causes of student behaviour that led to the exclusion and can even make things worse (DfES, 2004). Many excluded students are out of school for long periods (Michail, 2011), impacting on their educational and social development (Cohen et al., 1994). A high number of permanently excluded students simply disappeared from the educational system (Blyth & Milner, 1993). The Centre for Social Justice (2007) identified educational failure as a pathway to poverty, reflecting the Audit Commission's (1999) findings that poor academic attainment and permanent exclusions were associated with unemployment. Harris, Vincent, Thomson and Toalster (2006) highlighted that permanent

exclusions can result in stigma, alienation and rejection for both the student and family. Exclusions can place pressure on family incomes and relationships when parents miss work to deal with their excluded child (Munn, Lloyd & Cullen, 2000). Compared with their peers excluded young people were more likely to live in deprived neighbourhoods and reported higher levels of anti-social behaviour and drug use (McCrystal, Percy, & Higgins, 2007). Hall-Lande, Eisenberg, Christenson and Neumark-Sztainer, (2007) also found links between school exclusion and social isolation, substance abuse and mental health problems. This group was found to have less communication with their families than professionals working in the criminal justice system (McCrystal et al., 2007) as permanent exclusions are associated with involvement in anti-social behaviour and crime (Hemphill et al., 2014) and 83% of boys in the criminal justice system had been permanently excluded (Challen & Walton, 2004; Brookes, Goodall, & Heady, 2007). Excluded students were reported to have committed up to 50% more offences in the year after their exclusion than in the year before (Audit Commission, 1996). Permanent exclusions have serious long term consequences for young people and managed moves were introduced to stop young people ending up on this path.

2.1.5 The Impact of Transition

While managed moves help avoid permanent exclusion, there are consequences associated with any school transition. Galton, Gray and Ruddick, (1999) identified that up to two out of five pupils, without any additional difficulties, failed to make expected academic progress during the year after their transition between primary and secondary school. The same transition for vulnerable students was an underlying cause for their negative behaviour, which escalated over time (Trotman, Tucker & Martyn, 2015).

Managed moves are a special kind of school transition, experienced by a minority of vulnerable students, with little regulation and/or advice for schools around supporting this transition. If a school fails to address the underlying issues that caused the young person's exclusion, that student can be left with a sense of rejection and failure, exacerbating the original problems (Eastman, 2011). Managed move students can experience long periods out of school waiting for a school to accept them, impacting students' academic ability and self-efficacy in their new setting (Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Inaura, 2007). Students who reported a negative self-concept, with the stress of school transition were more likely to experience depression and/or express challenging behaviour (Robinson, Garber, & Hillsman, 1995), negatively impacting peer relationships, classroom interaction and attainment (Seidman et al., 1994). Social exclusion following transition can result in impaired self-regulation and increased aggression (Crescioni & Baumeister, 2009). It can also impact cognitive functioning and decrease persistence and attention (Baumeister & colleagues, 2005). Exclusion Trial attainment data (DfE, 2013) evidenced

that only 1.3% of these students achieved five or more A to C grades, compared to their peers. This is in keeping with Felner, Primavera and Cauce's (1981) study of transitions and attainment, which found that the more transitions a student had, the worse the impact on their academic performance. This is concerning in light of the recent teacher survey (DfE, 2013) that showed over 40% of students who experience managed moves were again at serious risk of exclusion from their new school. Without appropriate support the managed move student can end up in a vicious cycle where transition impacts on behaviour, which impacts on social inclusion and attainment and increases their risk of further exclusion.

2.1.6 Effective Managed Move

A review of the managed move literature provided only three relevant studies. Two of which related to Harris, Vincent, Thomson, and Toalster's (2006) exploration of the Coalfields Alternatives to Exclusion (CATE) strategy, a local managed move initiative for secondary school pupils at risk of permanent exclusion. The findings were based on exclusion statistics and interviews with a variety of stakeholders including school staff, parents and pupils. Participants identified a fresh start in a new school was a key to change and helped students avoid the feeling of rejection and alienation associated with permanent exclusion and perceived reputation. The study highlighted the importance of quality relationships, additional learning support and responding to the individual pupils needs, which resulted in a successful move. It also highlighted the importance of information sharing between all parties (Vincent, Harris, Thomson, & Toalster, 2007). These findings were in keeping with Bagley and Hallam's (2015) study of managed moves, based on interviews with professionals in one English LA. The researchers also identified the importance of early intervention and pastoral support around the transition. The study highlighted that poor information sharing between schools, and unhelpful narratives around the young people impacted managed move success. A weakness of these studies are the small participant samples, making it difficult to generalise their results to the wider population. The issues highlighted by the studies as important for a successful managed moves were in keeping with Abdelnoor's (2007) recommendations, as well as what psychology tells us is important for successful transitions.

2.1.7 Managed Moves Challenges

The lack of an agreed definition of managed move success is a major challenge. Typically, LAs define managed move success as the student's successful completion of a trial period in their new education provision following transition (Osler & colleagues, 2001). Lown (2007) defined a successful integration as the pupil still being in the school for at least three terms, in reality it is much shorter with the DfE (2008) recommending between two weeks and one school term. In contrast to the LA definitions, students in Thavarajah's (2010) study identified that any definition

of success needed to include non-school factors, such as parent and peer support. This highlights how managed move success is dependent on who defines it and without a collaborative definition it is open to interpretation.

Families should be allowed to make an informed choice on the managed move without the implied threat of permanent exclusion if they do not agree (Abdelnoor, 2007). Inaura's (2007) survey of families' experiences of managed moves found that parents and children felt they had no option but to accept the managed moves when the alternative was a permanent exclusion.

Good managed moves should be transparent, with information shared between all stakeholders and decisions made with the full cooperation of all parties (Abdelnoor, 2007; DfES, 2008). Poor information sharing can create academic discontinuity and impact a school's ability to set a curriculum to meet that student's learning needs, setting them up to fail (Fouracre, 1993; Harris et al., 2006; Bagely & Hallam, 2015). This balance of information is reflected in what we know of successful transitions for vulnerable pupils, that a timely exchange of information between schools allows the managed move student's new school to appoint key people to support the student's social and institutional adjustment, setting the curriculum at an achievable level and identifying interests to ensure engagement and belonging (Evangelou et al., 2008).

The lack of managed move research is not surprising considering LAs are not required to collect data on managed moves making it difficult to measure the impact of managed moves on academic outcomes. Using school enrolment data as an indicator of managed move success, Parsons (2009) found that of five high and three low excluding UK LAs in comparison to the national mean of 0.11% (2004-05), 45% of managed moves students had successfully remained in their new school, 30% were considered partially successful, as they were on dual placement and 25% were unsuccessful as the student returned to their original school. Since the introduction of managed moves the number of permanent exclusions has decreased from 12,300 in 1997/98 to 5,740 in 2009/10 (DfE, 2010). This correlation suggests that managed moves should be considered successful. This raises the question, if managed moves were successful in decreasing the number of permanent exclusions, why are exclusions numbers rising again? Last year, for the first time in eight years the DfE (2015) reported a rise in exclusions for the 2013/14 academic year. Although slight, it stands out from the downward trend of the last 10 years. It is even more concerning that these numbers do not take into account the increase in the number of unofficial exclusions, highlighted by the Centre for Social Justice (2011). Currently the responsibility for the excluded students' education provision lies with the LA but changes mean that schools are taking on increased responsibility for this (Eastman, 2011). Done well this can be a positive move as schools that were given the responsibility for excluded students' education provision resulted in positive

joint working between all stakeholders through fair access panels, enhanced quality assurance and service level agreements for alternative education providers (DfE, 2014). However, changes in legislation such as The Education Act (2011), which removed the right for parents to appeal to an independent panel against their child's permanent exclusion, can result in some schools abusing their authority over exclusions by implementing unofficial exclusions such as, internal exclusions and time off-site but on roll, to protect their exclusion statistics (Eastman, 2011). Making it difficult to define when a managed moves has taken place and accurately judge its success.

Managed moves are not nationally regulated nor are LAs required to collect managed move data (Abdelnoor, 2007). This lack of regulation and guidance on managed move practices means that schools may be exacerbating the issues that created the problems in the first place (Harris et al., 2006). While most schools carry out good managed move practice (DfE, 2014), the DCSF (2008) reported that some schools had engineered managed moves to move challenging students, whilst avoiding a permanent exclusion on their records. The Centre for Social Justice (2011) highlighted their concerns over the lack of quality managed move practice, inconsistency and unfairness in carrying out managed moves, which may explain the reported rise in exclusions.

2.1.8 Self-Determination and Managed Moves

Rejection affects a person's sense of belonging and their need for control (Williams, 2007). This suggests the effects of exclusion are associated with student's self-determination. A small-scale research project (SSRP) conducted by first year Trainee Educational Psychologists explored managed moves from the student's perspective (Mahon, McKenzie, Delo, & Foy, 2014). This qualitative study interviewed eight secondary school aged students who had received a managed move within the previous academic year to explore their experience of the managed move process. The main themes that emerged from the data collected included a lack of student autonomy in their managed moves, positive teacher relationships and perceived academic competence (Mahon et al., 2014). This indicated that self-determination, as defined by Deci and Ryan (1985), played a role in students' successful managed move transition. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) states that when a person's innate needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness are satisfied they experience intrinsic motivation, which results in optimal learning (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Studies found that intrinsically motivated students experienced increased interest, engagement and enjoyment in their learning (Hänze & Berger, 2007), achieved better academically (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009) and reported greater well-being (Vansteenkiste et al., 2004) compared with students who experienced controlled motivation. This suggests that if the receiving school in a managed move promoted a student's self-determination needs, students would be intrinsically motivated to engage in their new school environment, resulting in a successful managed move.

2.1.9 SDT and Transition

Few SDT studies have explored its role in school transitions, exclusions, or managed moves. Studies of SDT and school transitions reported that intrinsic motivation decreased immediately following a school transition but in an autonomy supportive environment quickly recovered and was positively associated with school adjustment and persistence (Ratelle et al., 2007; Gillison, Standage, & Skevington, 2008; Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014), regardless of socio-economic status (Grobler, Knight, Lens & Lacante, 2014). Students who reported less autonomy support from teachers and school staff reported lower intrinsic motivation, which was associated with school drop-out (Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997). Studies are limited but results tentatively suggest that if students' self-determination is supported they will experience intrinsic motivation to engage and persist in their new environment.

2.1.10 Self-Determination and the School Environment

Vincent and colleagues' (2007) and Bagley and Hallam's (2015) studies identified the importance of developing the students' relatedness to school by making managed move transitions welcoming and nurturing, through identified staff with whom the young person could confide in, teachers who are willing to work to the student's needs and promote peer relationships. This gives the student a sense of self-determination to ensure managed move success. This reflects SDT studies, which identified the importance of the teacher in establishing an autonomy supportive environment to meet the students' self-determination needs (Maulana et al., 2013) and promoted positive learning behaviour, (Smit, de Brabander, & Martens, 2014), even students with lower academic self-concept (Hänze & Berger, 2007). An autonomy supportive environment is a cooperative one that focused on mastery and self-directed learning (Reeve & Lee, 2014). It also avoided controlling motivators like monitoring, rewards and punishments that stifled students' motivation to learn (Ryan & Brown, 2005).

2.1.12 Research Rationale

In light of the recent rise in the number of exclusions for the first time in eight years (DfE, 2015), this study is a timely exploration of the managed move process from the young person's perspective. The aim of this qualitative study is to extend the findings of the SSRP (Mahon et al., 2014) discussed above, by exploring the impact of managed moves on secondary school students' academic progress and their experience of self-determination throughout the process.

The gap in the literature, addressing the relationship between SDT and school exclusions and/or transitions combined with the growing evidence base for the impact of intrinsic motivation on school adjustment, makes the present research on SDT and managed moves an important addition to the literature base.

2.1.13 Research Aims

This study aims to contribute to the existing literature on managed moves and self-determination by exploring managed moves from the student's perspective. Themes identified as important to a successful managed move will help to inform the school managed moves process and potentially increase the number of successful managed moves, benefiting schools nationally. This study will address the following research questions:

1. Did the students experience a sense of self-determination as a result of their managed move?
2. If so, what impact did that have on their academic engagement and progress?
3. What factors of a managed move would the student identify as being important for schools to consider?

2.2 Method

2.2.1 Design

Qualitative methods were employed to explore the relationship between the three components of self-determination theory (autonomy, motivation and relatedness) and the experience of managed moves from the students' perspective. Patton (1990) identified that semi-structured interviews provided an opportune method to gain an in-depth understanding of the participants' managed move experiences. A critical realist epistemological position allowed the researcher to report the participants' description of their subjective experience, with an understanding that the subjective experience was influenced by broader social and environmental structures which impacted upon those meanings (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was used to analyse participant data as it allowed an in-depth exploration into the participants' experience through a self-determination filter. Brocki and Wearden (2006) identified that theoretical preconceptions are recognised by IPA, as Smith (1999) acknowledged the difficulty of being entirely inductive in analysis. Green, Payne and Barnitt (2004) argued that a theory driven approach did not prevent other themes emerging from their data.

I aimed to recruit a participant sample size of six, based on Smith and Osborn (2007) who identified between one and six participants as an appropriate sample size for IPA. Thus, a sample size of three reflected the general consensus among IPA research that favours fewer participants, with an emphasis on greater depth of analysis (Reid et al., 2005). Smith and Osbourne (2003) acknowledged that IPA sample size was contextual and must be based on the richness of data, judged on a study-by-study basis. Using Francis and colleagues (2010) data saturation model, the

stopping criteria was set at three, if no new themes emerged. The final number of three participants reflected a balance between achieving data saturation without losing subtle inflections of meaning in a larger data set (Collins & Nicolson, 2002). This research's participant sample comprised of both male and female secondary school students had experienced a managed move. The complete list of inclusion/exclusion criterion is listed below (Table 1).

Table 1. Participant Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

Criteria
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mixed Gender• Age Range (11-16 years old)• No more than one student per school• Experienced a managed move within the last twelve months• Completed managed move at least one school term prior to recruitment• Sample included those who have succeeded in their managed move (registering at new school) or failed (returned to original school, or gone on to another school)• Pupils who had been permanently excluded after a managed move, or were going through a managed move at the time of recruitment were not included in the sample due to ethical considerations.

2.2.2 Participants

All three participants were recruited from different secondary schools within one LA in the South of England. Given the vulnerable nature of this participant population, recruitment was conducted through the LA Social Inclusion Officers (SIO) and School Inclusion staff. Schools were asked if they had students in attendance who had experienced a managed move and met the inclusion criteria. A maximum variation, purposive sample was used to gain the richest data from a small set of participants and only one student per school was allowed to participate, providing a variety of managed move experiences. The three participants included two boys and one girl from years eight, ten and eleven (see participant pen pictures below).

2.2.3 Measures

Semi-structured interviews were used to elicit the participants' experiences of managed moves. Smith and Osborn (2003) identified that semi-structured interviews allowed participants to actively engage and direct the interview to areas the interviewer may not have considered. The interview schedule (see Appendix M) included various open-ended questions relating to the participants' managed move experience. Smith and Osborn (2007) emphasised a dynamic approach to IPA research and questions posed to participants were also driven by the dialogue to develop a richer picture of the participants' experience.

The interview schedule had 23 main questions and used prompts where necessary to ensure all areas of a topic were covered, without constraining the participants' flow. In preparing the question route, a draft version of Interview schedule was distributed to three Educational Psychologists (EP) and three SIOs for comment. Following this process, changes to the wording of seven questions were made to ensure its understanding by participants and avoid leading questions. Participants were also asked for feedback on the questions and they indicated that they had understood the questions, despite the age gap between them.

2.2.4 Procedure

To ensure this research was carried out in accordance with the British Psychological Society Code of Ethics and Conduct (BPS, 2009) and Health and Care Professions Council (HCPC) guidelines, ethical approval was obtained on 8th February from the University of Southampton's Psychology Ethics Committee and Research Governance Office (see Appendix J). Following ethics approval, the Local Authority Social Inclusion Officers (SIO) provided secondary schools with participant inclusion criteria and study information sheets. Three schools identified students that matched the inclusion criteria, also taking into account that student's history and current wellbeing. When suitable participants were identified, schools distributed the study information sheets and consent forms to parents/guardians ($n = 4$) to ensure informed consent along with the contact details of the researcher if parents had any further questions. Three parental consent forms were returned, and following receipt of consent, the young person was approached by school inclusion officers independent to the project, to assess their interest in taking part. This resulted in three young people agreeing to participate in the research. The researcher arranged a meeting with the young person at their school to explain the study in detail and answer any questions they had. If happy to proceed they were asked to read and sign a consent form. All ethical issues, such as confidentiality, anonymity, informed consent and right to withdraw were addressed. Prior to the interview participants were engaged in small talk to develop rapport (Ajmal & Rhodes, 1995). Following the interview participants were debriefed and all ethical issues reiterated. Participants were provided contact details of the researcher and a designated school staff member if any concerns or distress were experienced. Interviews were audio-recorded then transferred to an encrypted computer. The recording was then transcribed verbatim and all identifying information was removed (e.g., names, schools). The original recording was deleted once the anonymised transcription process was complete.

2.3.1 Approach to Analysis: Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA)

To explore the experience of managed moves in relation to self-determination theory, the semi structured interviews were analysed using IPA. Hardy, Leahy and Thomas (2001) described phenomenology as the study of subjective experience. Smith's (1996) qualitative analysis method explores how a person ascribes meaning to their experiences of interactions with their environment (Smith, Jarman, & Osborn, 1999). Larkin, Watts and Clifton (2006) acknowledged that the researcher will never be able to access a participant's exact experience due to the influence of their own perceptions. IPA's objective is to gain a description as close to the participant's experience as possible. While IPA analysis is grounded in the participant's transcript, it also goes beyond the text with a level of data interpretation.

2.3.2 Analysis Procedure

Smith and Osborn's (2007) methodology for analysing qualitative data using IPA was employed (see Table 3. below). The analysis explored each case thoroughly until a detailed analysis had been achieved before moving to the next case. Only when all cases had been examined, analysed, and interpreted, did cross-case analysis occur. As IPA incorporates a subjective interpretative framework, it is unlikely that two researchers would come to an agreement on the analysis, rendering inter-rater reliability inappropriate for this method. To remain true to the participant's experience and avoid researcher knowledge and preconceptions biasing the identification of transcript themes (Joffe & Yardley, 2004), one participant was asked for feedback on preliminary interpretations (Smith, 1999) and an independent professional working in the area of managed moves was approached to review the analysis and interpretations (Clare, 2002).

Table 2. Data Analysis Process (Smith & Osborn, 2007)

Stage	Process
1	<p>Familiarization with the data.</p> <p>I achieved immersion through reading and rereading several times to develop familiarity with the data. I also listened to audio of the interview as I made initial notes on nuances, meanings and comments.</p>
2	<p>Phenomenological Coding</p> <p>I then chunked the transcripts in units of meaning.</p>
3	<p>Interpretive coding</p> <p>I then examined the data for patterns, contradictions, metaphors and other insights into what each data unit meant for the participant.</p>
4	<p>Identification of Themes</p> <p>I then documented the emerging themes in the other column. These themes consisted of psychological interpretation. Phrases were noted to evidence findings.</p>
5	<p>Clustering Themes</p> <p>Themes were listed chronologically on a separate page and then ordered/clustered together as subordinate concepts and were checked against the text. A table of themes was developed, accompanied by the identified subordinate themes. Participant page and appropriate line number was used as an identifier for each theme.</p>
6	<p>Supervision/Review</p> <p>A set of participant phrases to support the emerging themes was compiled and discussed in supervision and with placement supervisor.</p>
7	<p>Apply to Next Case</p> <p>I repeated this process separately for each participant.</p>
8	<p>Integrative Analysis</p> <p>I then compared themes across cases. Transcripts were reviewed again with any new themes that came out of the other participants' transcripts. A final table of superordinate themes was compiled and reduced.</p>
9	<p>Constructing a Narrative</p> <p>I then plotted the themes through the managed move process and included quotes were into the write up.</p>

2.3 Results

Table 3. Pen Portraits of Participants (All names have been changed for confidentiality)

Name	Gender	School Year	Managed Move Details
Kevin	M	11	Kevin is a key stage four student who experienced a managed move at the end of the 2014/15 school year. The managed move was agreed between both school and parents following a fixed-term exclusion. Kevin himself did not want to move schools as he didn't want to leave his friends. At the beginning of September 2015, Kevin transitioned from his original school to a different secondary school provision. Following a six-week trial period at the new school, it was decided that this placement was not working out for either the student, or the school and Kevin transitioned back to his original school in October 2015. Kevin has flourished since moving back to his original school and has engaged well in lessons, he is working harder and is seeing the results of that in his grades. When he returned he took up cooking classes and enjoys it so much he has aspirations to become a chef when he leaves school. While this would be considered an unsuccessful managed move by local authority standards, both school and Kevin agree that the process was successful in helping him to understand what was important for him in his life, including his learning but especially his friends.
Phillip	M	8	Phillip is a key stage three student who experienced a managed move at the beginning of the 2015/16 academic year. His managed move came about as the result of several behavioural incidents in lessons following the breakdown in his relationships with some teachers. At risk of permanent exclusion it was decided by his school that a managed move would give him the fresh start he needed. Phillip was out of education for over 2 months while he waited for a place in a new school. During this period he was rejected by several schools until he was accepted by his current school. Phillip has completed his trial period at his new school and has indicated that he is enjoying being there. He feels he has good relationships with all adults in this school and described his lessons as enjoyable and fun. When he leaves school he would like to be a Mechanical Engineer and is taking classes that are related to that subject. Although he left a lot of friends in his previous school he has still managed to keep in touch with them. The local authority, the school and Phillip himself agree that it was a successful managed move, however Phillip regrets being out of education for so long.
Lacey	F	10	Lacey is a key stage four student who described herself as being angry all the time for no reason when she was in her original school. She received a managed move as a result of ongoing difficulties with peer and adult relationships, including shouting and challenging people who she disagreed with in lessons. Lacey's father initiated her managed move to avoid her being excluded. Lacey's stepbrother had previously received a managed move between these two schools so she knew what was involved. Lacey moved directly from one school to her current school without any gap in school attendance. Lacey discovered following the managed move that people she had considered her friends in her original school were not actually her friend and she lost a lot of friendships following the move. She successfully completed her six week trial period after only four weeks. Lacey described liking her new placement and has developed positive relationships with all adults there. While she has made friends, as a result of her past experience, she can be slow to trust new people. The local authority, school and Lacey herself agree that it was a successful managed move.

2.3.1 Findings

Three master themes came from the data analysis including; self-determination, motivation and impact of self-determination. The participants' experience of the interaction between the master themes of self-determination and motivation and the subordinate theme of participant well-being will be presented before, during and after their managed moves. The final master theme of impact of self-determination as experienced by the participants will then be presented. Themes and sub-themes are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Themes and Sub-Themes

Master Themes	Sub-ordinate Themes
Self-Determination	Autonomy
	Competence
	Relatedness
Motivation	Intrinsic
	Extrinsic
	Amotivation
Impact of self-determination	Self-Concept
	Well-Being
	Engagement
	Learning Behaviour
	Academic Achievement
	Aspiration

2.3.2 Self-Determination before the managed move

Relatedness. Prior to their managed moves participants experienced positive and negative interactions of the needs of self-determination in three ways, academic performance, relationships (with staff and peers) and classroom behaviour. All participants experienced negative school environments, pre-managed move. No participant identified what created this situation but all experienced difficult relationships with their teachers. Phillip's description of this relationship as "formal" and being spoken to "as a student", hinted at the tension in the

relationship. All felt they had “naughty” reputations, which tainted their interactions with some teachers, who they felt were being “unfair”, “quite harsh” (Phillip), judgemental, critical and unwilling to give them a chance if they made a mistake. Participants, unable to control themselves, responded with “crazy”, “stupid” (Kevin) and “naughty” (All) behaviour that resulted in “loads of fights and arguments” (Lacey) with their teachers, and in Lacey’s case, some peers as well.

“I hated my English teacher in my last school and used to always argue with her all of the time. I’d be doing so much work in an assessment and someone would say something, I would turn around and say “shh” and she would start shouting at me” (Lacey, 308-312)

Participants did have the social skills to engage, they all identified good relationships with some teachers and close friends. Despite participants experiencing difficulties over time, only Kevin received any form of emotional support. Despite not wanting the support, “she helped me” and was one of his few positive adult relationships there.

Competence. Lacey and Phillip described themselves as eager to learn. They identified that the negative relationships and distractions “talking too much” within the classroom environment and the lack of teacher encouragement impacted on their ability to engage and progress. Lacey experienced a negative self-perception “I think I’m really dumb”, which resulted in low self-efficacy “I’m always thinking I can’t do it”. Having their motivation to learn curtailed by the extrinsic regulation in the class environment participants were unable to control their behaviour.

“I would get annoyed with people like shouting and screaming or something, because in lessons when they’re talking and I’d be angry I would just turn around and be like, “shut up” and just get really angry” (Lacey, lines 374-378)

Kevin did not indicate why he behaved the way he did. His description of his difficulty in managing his behaviour was like an out of body experience, his “crazy behaviour”, or someone not in control, and he felt he was beyond help.

“That naughty that you have to, like, teachers can’t handle me anymore so I had to go”
(Kevin, 14-16)

This description coupled with his close relationship with his peers hinted at a negative group dynamic within that classroom and his expression of shame and the fact he would “regret it for the rest of my life”, acknowledged his responsibility in creating this environment. Kevin’s strength of feeling was such that he was unwilling to explore this period in his interview. Participants’

inability to manage their emotions and behaviours in class impacted on their learning and resulted in their eventual managed moves.

Autonomy. From judgemental teachers “having a go” (Lacey) at them over little things, to receiving “bad achievement points” and being “on report a lot” (Phillip), the participants’ experience of a controlling teaching environment was not supportive of their SDT needs.

All participants experienced some positive adult and peer experiences but overall they reported a negative reciprocal interaction between the three needs of SDT in their schools. This impacted on their emotional and behavioural regulation, which further increased controlling teacher behaviours and resulted in their managed moves.

2.3.3 Motivation prior to the managed move

Phillip and Lacey experienced a conflict between their motivation to learn and controlling teacher practices. This frustrated their self-determination needs and in turn, their intrinsic motivation. While school used extrinsic regulation like “E-merits” and “bad achievement points” (Phillip) as motivation for behaviour change, all participants reported they had the opposite effect leaving them with amotivation.

2.3.4 Well-Being.

The participants’ lack of self-determination and motivation experienced in these classes was reflected in their negative well-being, in particular shame and regret.

“I wouldn’t like to move school, not because this school’s bad, because I wish I didn’t do it in the first place”. (Phillip, lines 357-359)

Kevin experienced a sense of shame for something he “will regret for the rest of his life”. Lacey went further and revealed a sense of self-loathing when asked what she disliked about the school, “I kind of disliked how I was there”. Overall students experienced low self-determination, little motivation and negative wellbeing in their pre-managed move school.

2.3.5 Self-Determination during the managed move process

Participants experienced their managed move in two stages, the transition process and the school induction. Participants experienced a limited amount of autonomy in their managed move transition and relied on their families and school staff members to act in their best interests.

Autonomy. Participants’ experience of autonomy in their managed moves depended on being proactive and controlling information. Lacey’s father proactively pushed for a managed move before her school had excluded her.

“I would have been kicked out and my dad didn’t want that on my thing so that’s why he wanted me to move”. (Lacey, lines 26-28)

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The “naughty” stigma associated with managed move students influences a school’s decision to accept a pupil, avoiding it gave Lacey more autonomy.

“I got a letter because (managed moves school) accepted me, but then the (original) school obviously was like, “oh yeah she’s bad”, or whatever and they said we want to put you on a managed move here, but I was accepted anyway” (Lacey, 494-497)

Not acting early Kevin and Phillip were excluded, then quickly put on a managed move, which caught them by surprise.

“I just came in one day and they said we are thinking of moving schools”
(Kevin, lines 56-57)

Given a choice between a managed move and a permanent exclusion, there was no real choice. Their sense of powerlessness was reflected in their use of the term “have to” move. Their lack of autonomy was summed up by the irony of their experiences. Phillip wanted a managed move but had to wait, and Kevin did not want one but got one. Kevin took the only choice he had and disengaged from the managed move process.

“I didn’t really mind where I went. (sighs) Yeah, I really didn’t care”. (Kevin, lines 111-112)

Kevin’s experience of apathy was evident in his behaviour, “I just backed my Dad’s decision”. This reflected his lack of control and motivation.

Relatedness. This was an important part of participants’ managed move experience. This is unsurprising considering a managed move is a transition, which involved varying degrees of rejection, change and loss. All experienced rejection, particularly Phillip whose experience of isolation while at home waiting to be accepted was made worse by school’s lack of information sharing with home.

“but this school was the one that let me in” (Phillip, lines 57-58)

Kevin and Lacey lost “really good” friendships. When school ignored Kevin’s plea that “it would be bad” to leave his friends, his sense of helplessness and apathy reflected an experience of grief, or loss. Lacey, unlike Kevin was rejected by some of her friends.

“I thought they were really close and then once I moved I realised they’re not”
(Lacey, lines 326-327)

This impacted their motivation to make new friends in their new schools, Kevin, out of loyalty, and Lacey, out of distrust.

“I just really couldn’t be bothered to make new friends, but I did, because I had to”.
(Kevin, lines 95-97)

School approaches to participants' induction experiences conflicted and set Phillip and Lacey up for success, but failed Kevin. Kevin's school focused on his academic competence but his social inclusion was neglected and didn't give him the sense of belonging he needed, "as soon as I got in... I just didn't belong". Kevin, overwhelmed by the "massive" size of the school, was isolated by the lack of support "I didn't know how to get my way around". Even in the classroom Kevin "sat alone", isolated from peers. This confirmed his bias against the move and impacted on his self-determination.

"It's a new school, new everything. I didn't know what to do" (Kevin, lines 306-307)

Phillip and Lacey felt welcomed in their school on a personal level by key adults and peers, giving an immediate sense of security and belonging in their new schools.

"They are really friendly and they are really supportive". (Lacey)

This eased the sense of isolation and rejection experienced during their managed moves.

"At my old school, people used to make me feel hurt and that so then obviously they knew that and they said if anyone's ever being mean or anything, they would say talk to anyone, Miss" (Lacey, lines 113-116)

Competence. Participants relied on adults during the managed move process and induction to experience any sense of competence, or self-determination. The adversity experienced across the managed moves revealed the unconditional bond between participants and their families. Phillip and Kevin's transition experiences revealed the reality of the managed move, that schools' ultimately have the final decision.

2.3.6 Motivation during the managed move process

Managed moves are an extrinsic regulation controlled by schools, which impacted on Kevin and Phillip's self-determination and motivation. Phillip was initially motivated but the rejection and isolation experienced impacted on his motivation and wellbeing. All participants experienced extrinsic regulations in the form of behaviour and attendance targets during their trial period but Phillip and Lacey's happiness at being somewhere they felt accepted meant it didn't affect them and Lacey, was "so eager" to engage in school that her six-week trial period ended after four weeks.

Not being listened to, Kevin experienced amotivation and disengaged from the managed move process.

“I didn’t want to do it because all of my friends are all here and I’ve known them for ages and then I just really couldn’t be bothered”. (Kevin, lines 94-96)

Kevin’s experience of amotivation was expressed by his apathy toward the managed move process, leaving any decisions up to other people.

“I didn’t really mind where I went but I just didn’t want to go” (Kevin, 70-71).

His philosophical description of the managed move, where “everything happens for a reason”, reflects a person who, rather than take charge of their own actions, left it up to chance, or some higher order. This philosophical outlook occurred throughout his transcript.

2.3.7 Well-being

The managed move is a transition and with any change there is a sense of uncertainty, which impacted participants’ well-being.

“I was upset but I was happy because I wanted a change but I didn’t want it to be like that” (Lacey, lines 91-92)

During their managed moves, participants experienced mixed feelings, including happiness, excitement, sadness, belonging, rejection, apathy, motivation, regret, isolation, “bored”, nervousness and anxiety. Phillip and Lacey were “excited” to have a “fresh start”, but were also sad because they would miss their friends. Lacey’s experience of peer betrayal made her distrustful and cautious of making friends in her new school, which conflicted with her social nature being “a chatterbox”.

“I can make friends easily but I couldn’t trust them easily” (Lacey, lines 145-146)

All participants experienced rejection from their original school as a result of the move but Phillip experienced several.

“There was a few schools, but some of them rejected, or didn’t, yeah, just didn’t work” (Phillip, lines 56-57)

This period of “waiting”, resulted in isolation, boredom and as time went on, anxiety. Phillip’s positive school experience masked the impact of earlier negative feelings. Describing his managed move allowed Phillip to process his recollections and his repetition of the phrase “I was out of school a long time”, and his tone of voice reflected his underlying insecurities.

Kevin’s reaction to his managed move and leaving his friends was akin to a person going through the cycles of change, a mix of disbelief, apathy, or being stuck in a rut.

“A few of the friends were really good friends and it was bad to leave them”

(Kevin, lines 97-98)

His experience brought him to a low point.

“I needed to be taught a lesson”. (Kevin, line 491)

That was the catalyst for positive action to change.

“Realising I was naughty and needed to do something about it” (Kevin, lines 276-277)

Phillip and Lacey experienced high and low self-determination in their managed moves, which was reflected by their sense of well-being. Kevin lacked self-determination throughout his managed move and reported negative well-being. Realising his need to take responsibility for change, was associated with a sense autonomy, motivation and self-belief in his ability to affect change.

2.3.8 Self-determination after the managed move: A fresh start

All participants' experienced greater self-determination following their managed moves. Phillip and Lacey put this down to having “a fresh start”. This highlighted the burden their previous “naughty” reputation. People now treated them differently, which gave them the freedom to be themselves.

“I think I was always respected (at managed move school) because they didn't know what I had done”. (Kevin lines, 451-452)

Autonomy. Participants' experience of greater choice and support in lessons was reflective of autonomy support, and also benefitted their competence and relatedness. Kevin's age and managed move experience meant his self-determination was not as reliant on adults to experience it. Being younger, Lacey and Phillip had limited curriculum choice and were more reliant on adult autonomy support, which addressed the underlying emotional insecurities resulting from their previous experiences. Lacey's low self-confidence benefitted from teacher encouragement to engage and persist in lessons.

“The teachers are like “oh yeah you can do it” even when I'm just there like, I know I can't, I'll still carry on doing it”. (Lacey, lines 358-360)

Teacher autonomy support gave Lacey and Phillip encouragement to engage on their terms.

“If I feel like I don't want to go to lesson or I can't concentrate in lesson or something she'll either say, “oh come and work in here, bring your work here”, because its much quieter out of lesson then inside lesson so I can actually get on with it”.

(Lacey, lines 290-293)

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All participants acknowledged their experience of teacher autonomy supportive practices in lessons in their new schools, or in Kevin's case being back in his original school following his move. They described the positive impact of teacher autonomy support on their motivation to engage in those lessons. This experience made them feel teachers were finally working in their best interests and wanted them to learn. A good example of autonomy support in practice was when Lacey's teacher asked for her opinion in lessons, which caught her off-guard, like it had never happened before.

"In English the other day she (teacher) wrote something up on the board and we were writing it down and she kept asking what ways do you guys really like to learn and I was like I learn quite a lot by just reading from the board and writing exactly the same thing down, because, I don't know I just process it better and then I don't know, just her asking us how we learn, she wants us to do better so by her asking that kind of, they are really supportive and that". (Lacey, lines 246-254)

This experience of autonomy support had a positive impact on student motivation to engage

"Where it's now more options maybe that also kind of, it affects my ways towards the lessons" (Lacey, lines 259-260)

Participants were not rejected by teachers when they lost their composure in lessons and were not punished like before. Being allowed to make mistakes without teachers overreacting removed the fear of failure, giving participants the confidence to engage with their learning.

"At the old school, the teachers could sometimes be, a bit more formal, quite harsh really whereas here they are more supportive" (Phillip, lines 245-248)

Relatedness. The experience of nurturing autonomy support from adults allowed Phillip and Lacey to "feel more comfortable" (Phillip) engaging with their teachers and by extension their learning.

"If I'm finding it hard I can just go and talk to them more". (Phillip, lines 255-256)

There was no longer the unequal power balance previously experienced.

"He would talk to me as a student but also talk to me as a normal person"
(Phillip, lines 211-212)

Phillip's experience of autonomy support in his new school gave him the sense of acceptance and belonging he needed but did not receive in his previous school.

"They know what type of person I am and I do the same about them" (Phillip, 322-323)

The way Lacey and Phillip were now treated by all adults gave them a real sense of being understood and cared for giving them a sense of belonging in their schools.

“I’ll be walking down the corridor the Headteacher, she’ll be like “are you ok” and I’m like “yeah” and then she knows if I’m upset, she knows if anyone’s upset and she’ll just talk to them for a bit. The other day I was upset and she was asking me if I was ok and that, and then it was lunchtime when she saw me again and she was asking me if I felt better and that. So it makes you feel cosy” (Lacey, lines 206-213)

Kevin also experienced autonomy support and relatedness with some adults but being back in his original school he did not experience a fresh start, as some teachers were unwilling to forget his past and he experienced distrust and close monitoring by them. Regardless of his progress, he had to work harder than the other participants to win teachers over.

“P: But what I don’t like is that I have teachers that know what I’ve done and they always keep any eye on me....

I: What do you mean by keep an eye on you?

P: Like just in case I done anything, like if I do one thing then I go straight out. I’m labelled as naughty” (Kevin, line 251-258)

Kevin’s sense of belonging and happiness was not from adults like Lacey and Phillip, it was from his friends. It was through them that he experienced a sense of belonging and identity.

“P: I don’t need to be welcome in this school. I know I am welcome.

I: How do you know?

P: I just walk up to my friends and if they say hi, I know” (Kevin, lines 181-184)

This loyalty to friends made it unlikely that his managed move would have worked, regardless of what the managed move school put in place, as it would only be better “if my friends came” with him.

Lacey’s previous experience of peer betrayal, “made me feel hurt”. She was friends with most people but only trusted “a really small circle”. Overcoming this insecurity, Lacey was motivated to help other students who experienced similar difficulties.

Competence. As a result of their experience of autonomy and relatedness participants were engaging in lessons, “concentrating” more, “working harder” and experiencing “enjoyment” and “getting good grades”, which increased self-determination and allowed them to contemplate positive future aspirations.

“I think teachers are starting to see what I actually can do and not the bad me”.

(Kevin, lines 326-327)

Summary. It could be argued that Kevin was the most self-determined of the three participants, as Lacey and Phillip relied on adult gatekeepers to support their experience of self-determination. Without his friends from his original school, Kevin was forced to forge his own identity outside that of the group. Motivated to return to his original school meant taking responsibility for change and gave him the self-belief to be his own person, or as he put it “I’ve grown up”. When Kevin moved back to his original school, he no longer required the level of adult support as Phillip and Lacey.

“I think it’s (the managed move) been positive, because I’ve gone to a negative place and taken myself out of it and put myself in a positive” (Kevin, lines 507-509)

This increased autonomy continued when he was back with his friends. Being older Kevin benefitted from greater curriculum choice. Taking up cooking gave Kevin something he was good at, truly enjoyed and was not reliant on others for, as he actively engaged with it in school and at home. It motivated him to engage in school, experiencing pride in getting good grades to achieve this goal and gave him aspirations beyond school.

“Yeah and I realised I was good at it (cooking) and I enjoyed it. I want to try and make a career out of it”. (Kevin, lines 370-371)

Phillip and Lacey also identified future aspirations and enjoyed engaging in lessons that helped achieve them. Although personally motivated to engage with these lessons Phillip credited his teachers’ autonomy support for his enjoyment of them, which meant this joy was vulnerable to teacher changes. Lacey also enjoyed engaging in lessons of her choice and, like Phillip, she credited the teacher’s autonomy support and enthusiasm for her motivation to learn and worked hard in lessons to repay her teachers’ support. Although both Phillip and Lacey experienced self-determination, it was reliant on adult support.

2.3.9 Motivation after the managed move

Intrinsic. The autonomy support Phillip and Lacey received from teachers and Kevin’s engagement in cooking, as well as peer support, meant that all participants experienced greater self-determination post-managed moves and all reported a positive outlook for their future. They were particularly motivated to engage with those lessons that were “quite useful” for their future aspirations, regardless of how difficult they were, which is indicative of intrinsic motivation. Lacey’s experience in lessons of her choosing perfectly summed up the reciprocal nature of motivation and its interaction with self-determination.

“Where it’s now more options, maybe that also, kind of, it affects my ways towards the lessons, because where I have my options what I actually want to do, I kind of, and teachers know that you actually like that subject and because they like that subject and they know that you like it as well, you have more of a bond, between you”.

(Lacey, lines 259-264)

While this indicates an intrinsic orientation, Lacey’s extrinsic motivation to do well to repay her teachers’ support suggests an autonomous motivation.

“I’ve to do that person proud because they are trying their hardest to get me to do well”

(Lacey, 466-467)

Compare this to how Kevin “loves to cook” and he does it regardless of whether it is school related, or at home where he “cooks for (his) parents all the time”, indicates self-determination and intrinsic motivation. He was so motivated by it that it has become part of who he is as a person.

Extrinsic motivation. Although intrinsically motivated to be a chef, Kevin identified the threat of being excluded motivated him. These competing motivations meant that Kevin experienced the positive wellbeing highs associated with intrinsic motivation in his cooking but also the anxiety that went with the extrinsic threat of exclusion hanging over him. The actual threat of being excluded again was probably no different for any participant but was not experienced by Phillip or Lacey as they changed schools they were not reminded of their past reputation. Kevin’s report of teacher distrust may just be his own insecurities being projected onto his teachers.

“I have teachers that know what I have done and they always keep an eye on me”.

(Kevin, lines 251-252)

The fear of exclusion and the sense of being monitored by some teachers meant he was never able to fully let his guard down and completely enjoy his school experience, unlike Phillip and Lacey.

2.3.10 Well-being.

In their current schools all participants experienced greater self-determination, motivation and positive wellbeing, particularly Lacey and Phillip, who reported that the positive effects of having a “fresh start”, being unburdened of previous reputations and the negative environments has “been really good”. They experienced greater freedom in lessons, enjoyed school more, had

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“a better attitude to learning”, experienced greater freedom, trust, respect, happiness, acceptance, competence and belonging, or as Lacey described it feeling “Cosy”.

Lacey still experienced low self-confidence carried over from her managed move experience that impacted on her engagement, but the encouragement she received from key adults gave her the security she needed and confirmed she was right to move schools.

“I would just turn around and be like “shut up” and just get really angry even though there’s nothing to get angry about because I’m always like that. But at this school I can just be myself and just get on with my work”.

(Lacey, lines 376-380)

Kevin’s sense of belonging with friends was tempered by the distrust from teachers and the fear of exclusion hanging over him that he seemed resigned to.

“I don’t want to go on another managed move” (Kevin, line 410)

In the end there was a sense of hope as the experience made him “a better person”. School was “getting better by the day” and teachers were “starting to see what I actually can do and not the bad me” and he was “closer to my friends”. All participants felt their managed move was a success and were confident about the future.

2.3.11 Impact of Self-Determination

This master theme highlighted the experiences of change that occurred, as a result of increased self-determination across participants’ managed moves. While the change could be put down to the managed move itself, it was the support they received, which promoted their competence, autonomy and relatedness that affected change. Participants experienced positive changes to their self-concept, academic engagement, learning behaviour, academic achievement and aspiration.

Self-Concept. This is the way a person perceives themselves. Most participants experienced a positive change in their self-concept following their managed moves, where they moved from a negative sense of self pre-managed move, to someone who was closer to their ideal self, post-managed move. Kevin described himself prior to the managed move in terms of his behaviour. He felt that managed moves were for “naughty” students and described his behaviour as “crazy” and “mad” to the point that “teachers can’t handle me anymore”. Kevin’s reflections on what led to his managed move made him realise “I was so naughty I needed to do something about it”. Kevin did change his behaviour and wanted to distance himself from his past self but going back to his original school meant he was confronted with his previous reputation by some teachers, “I’m

labelled as naughty”. This meant he did not achieve the fresh start like Phillip and Lacey. Kevin regretted how he behaved and was working hard so people recognised him for who he is now and “not the bad me”. Kevin’s became agitated when asked to clarify a point about his negative behaviour and emphasised he “was not like that” anymore. He was less defensive when speaking about his ideal future self as a chef. Despite the managed move not being a success in the conventional sense, the managed move gave him the space to experience greater self-determination and make the most of his opportunity when he was allowed back.

Lacey’s classroom experiences pre-managed move made her “think I’m really dumb” and this made her want to give up. She also had difficulties with some peers who “used to make me feel hurt”. It impacted not only on her sense of competence but also on her emotional wellbeing. Lacey, described herself as someone who would;

“Get really angry even though there was nothing to get angry about because I am always like that”. (Lacey, lines 377-379)

This resulted in lot of fights with teachers and peers. Lacey identified herself with her behaviour, “bad”, creating a sense of self-loathing, “I kind of disliked how I was there”. Even though she couldn’t explain exactly why, she knew that she was “a lot better at this (new) school”. Autonomy supportive relationships with school staff changed her self-perception and she reported being quieter, more focused and motivated. Although she still experiences some self-doubt, it is less than before. Lacey is now motivated to help others going through the same thing.

“I always try and do what’s best for other people, obviously where I’ve had a managed move I’ve been in bad situations and if there’s year nine’s messing in class I want to tell them not to because it’s so much harder”. (Lacey, lines 438-442)

While Kevin and Lacey experienced personal change, Phillip’s managed move experience was more about achieving group connection and being part of a school environment again. His previous school which was “quite harsh”, coupled with being “out of school for quite long” during his managed move had a negative impact on Phillip’s sense of relatedness. He described the positive school experience now in terms of relationships, where his teachers “talk to me as a normal person”. Phillip repeatedly mentioned being treated as a normal person, which indicated not only a negative self-perception but also the lack of inclusion within his previous school environment. In terms of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (1943), Phillip was somewhere between the Love/belonging and Esteem levels and not yet at the Self-Actualisation stage, unlike Kevin and Lacey.

Engagement. This related to participants' engagement in lessons both before and after the managed move. It was linked to self-determination, motivation and wellbeing, as well as participant learning behaviour, academic achievement and aspiration. Lack of engagement through their challenging behaviour in their original school was the reason for receiving a managed move, just as engagement in their managed move schools resulted in success. Kevin's lack of engagement in his managed move school resulted in, at least from his perspective, the successful return to his original school. While he did not state it, one could argue that Kevin's lack of engagement was, either consciously or subconsciously, a way of ensuring the managed move failed in order to get back to his friends.

Adult autonomy support was an important factor in student engagement "they actually really help you". It involved relatedness but was much more as it promoted competence and autonomy as well. Examples of autonomy support included making lessons accessible, supporting emotional regulation, flexible teaching, non-judgemental, positive and providing choice.

"Just her asking us how we learn, she wants us to do better" (Lacey 250-253)

This promoted autonomy and competence, creating a motivation to engage so teachers could "see what I actually can do".

Learning behaviour. This refers to participants' behaviour in lessons that either promoted or detracted from their engagement in lessons. Previous difficult relationships with some teachers resulted in "naughty" behaviour in lessons prior to their managed moves and impacted on engagement and learning.

All students improved their classroom behaviour following their managed moves once they were away from the previous negative relationships and experienced increased self-determination. They now "worked harder", "concentrated better", were more positive, were willing to "ask the teacher" for support and accept teacher advice, and they persisted with tasks even though they still experienced some difficulties. Lacey felt she was "quieter" in lessons and Kevin felt he was more assertive.

The factors participants identified that motivated positive behaviour change included; having a "fresh start" (for some), autonomy supportive environments and positive relationships with school staff including, teachers, pastoral support, tutors, year heads and even head teachers, all played an important role in this change. A greater choice in curriculum meant students were motivated to be there. All these things helped boost participant self-determination and intrinsic motivation. Kevin was also extrinsically motivated to learn through fear of being excluded again, which caused him anxiety.

Academic Achievement. All participants experienced significant improvement in their school work following their managed move. All directly reported an improvement in their behaviour, relationships with their teachers and experiencing autonomy support, directly benefitted their work.

“I think teachers are starting to see what I actually can do” (Kevin, lines 323-324)

Phillip was proud that he produced more work, it was “neater” and of “a lot more quality”. Although students did not report on academic achievement in their pre-managed move school, all agreed their work was much better now.

Aspiration. Unlike Kevin, there was nothing to suggest that Lacey and Phillip’s aspirations were as a result of their managed moves. All reported how their families strongly emphasised the importance of their education, so it was possible participants had these learning aspirations regardless of their experience of self-determination in their current schools.

“Now I’m at a solid school. They (parents) just say work your hardest”.

(Kevin, lines 393-394)

Given their difficulties in their pre-managed move schools it may have been difficult to focus on their future at that time. Now they are in environments supportive of their self-determination and are enjoying studying subjects that directly relate to their future goals, they are better placed to consider their futures. All participants had a sense of hope for the future when they left school.

2.4 Discussion

This research explored three questions related to the participants’ experience of a managed move. Did the participants experience a sense of self-determination as a result of their managed move? What impact did the increased sense of self-determination have on their academic engagement and progress? What factors of a managed move do students identify as being important for schools to consider?

2.4.1 Did the participants experience a sense of self-determination as a result of their managed move?

The answer to this question is complicated by the social context. The managed move process is itself an extrinsic regulation, where students have limited autonomy and schools make the final decision. Lacey experienced greater self-determination as she moved schools before being excluded, which avoided the stigma associated with exclusion and allowed her family more

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control of the process, including the passage of information between schools, thus avoiding what Bagley and Hallam (2015) described as “unhelpful narratives” between schools that influence their decision to accept managed move students.

Although all participants experienced increased self-determination following their managed moves, the school environment is a controlling system that is imposed on students, limiting their ability to be completely self-determined. Depending on the participants’ age, a lot of decisions were made for them by gate-keepers, like parents and teachers. Evangelou and colleagues’ (2008) recommendations for regular school transitions identified having greater choice in the curriculum was important for transition success, but the amount of choice participants had depended on their age and curriculum stage. Being older, Kevin’s key stage allowed greater curriculum choice, significantly increasing his self-determination. Phillip being younger had less choice and relied on teachers to promote his self-determination.

The fresh start experienced post-managed move gave participants freedom from their negative reputations but did not guarantee greater self-determination, or managed move success. Autonomy support experienced was a better indicator of increased self-determination and managed move success. This reflected literature review findings, particularly Jang and colleagues’ (2009) findings that secondary students whose SDT needs were met through autonomy support following transition, experienced greater intrinsic motivation that maintained over time, whereas Kevin experienced too much autonomy, and not enough competence or relatedness in his managed move school to experience self-determination and he wanted to leave. This reflected Vallerand, Fortier and Guay’s (1997) motivational model of school persistence, which identified that in the absence of adult autonomy support, students experienced amotivation, impacting on engagement. Although Kevin experienced only limited self-determination back in his original school, he experienced enough, in certain areas like cooking, to motivate him to positively engage across lessons. While this reflects Skinner and Chi’s (2012) findings with a mainstream student population that intrinsic motivation in one setting can influence motivation in other lessons, it was not reflective of the literature review findings.

All students experienced increased self-determination following their managed moves, however the level of self-determination was dependent on a number of school factors including; key stage, school resources and adult autonomy support.

2.4.2 What impact did the increased sense of self-determination have on participant academic engagement and progress?

Greater self-determination experienced resulted in increased motivation to engage, work harder and persist when challenged. Similar results were found in the literature review and reflected findings in Niemiec and Ryan's (2009) review of SDT in education, particularly the links between teacher autonomy support with self-determination and engagement. Participants experienced learning behaviour changes, which coincided with greater self-determination that supported engagement and persistence, such as better self-regulation, concentration, seeking help and accepting feedback. While these behaviours have been reported by individual SDT studies, like El, Tillema and van Koppen (2012) they were not reported by the majority of SDT studies. It is possible these behaviours reflect a minority of students and would not register in large-scale studies.

Increased self-determination experienced in post-managed move schools led to increased enjoyment and motivated students to learn. As such they reported greater academic achievement in the quality and quantity of their work. All participants identified positive future aspirations for when they leave school and reported greater enjoyment in lessons helping them to achieve it. The identification of future aspirations and drive towards achieving them was highlighted by Ku, Dittmar and Banerjee (2012), who reported that those mainstream secondary school students who engaged in study for intrinsic aspirations achieved better academically, compared to students whose motivation was materialistic, or extrinsic. Only Kevin identified that his aspiration had developed since his managed move. Phillip and Lacey may have had their aspirations in their previous school but only through the self-determination experienced post-managed move are they on track to achieving them.

Participants' increased self-determination correlated with better wellbeing and positive classroom attitude. This is reported by most SDT studies since Deci and Ryan (1985) first reported it. Although the positive impact of greater self-determination on the wellbeing of vulnerable students is a particularly notable finding considering Robinson and colleagues' (1995) finding that the stress of transitions to secondary school for students with a negative self-concept can result in depression and/or challenging behaviour. Students' experience of wellbeing was not all positive. Kevin reported positive wellbeing when cooking but feared being excluded. Ratelle and colleagues' (2007) study acknowledges self-determination is a state not a trait and as such it changes from one context to the next, as do the associated outcomes like wellbeing.

Kevin and Lacey's reported self-concept change has not been widely reported by SDT studies. Through their experience of greater self-determination, both identified a positive change

in their self-perception, in keeping with their ideal self (Rogers, 1957). Valås and Sjøvik (1993) were unique in reporting a change in student self-concept associated with satisfaction of their self-determination needs.

This study cannot say for certain that other factors did not also play some part in the participants' reported changes. An argument could be made that considering the participants' reported investment in their new school placement, they may have been keen to report improved outcomes. Going on participants' reports alone, their experience of greater self-determination following their managed moves motivated them to engage with their learning and experience personal development, resulting in a positive outlook for the future.

2.4.3 What factors of a managed move would participants identify as being important for schools to consider?

As discussed, participants' experiences highlighted the importance of information sharing and making informed choices for managed move success. Participants also identified the "naughty" stigma associated with managed move students, which placed them under suspicion, limiting their autonomy. In a systemic sense it was a barrier to their inclusion. Graham, Truscott, Powell and Anderson (2016) found reframing helped remove the stigma, which allowed the student to truly experience a fresh start.

Reflective of Kevin's unsuccessful managed move, schools need to consider the student's views in a managed move and what support is required to increase the chances of managed move success. This includes non-academic factors, like peer support, reported by students in Thavarajah's (2010) study.

The school induction process played a role in managed move success or failure. Kevin's induction emphasised academic support, in keeping with Galton, Gray and Ruddick's (1999) study on attainment across transitions but the lack of social support contributed to his managed move failure. Lacey and Phillip's induction emphasised their social and emotional needs through the support of adults and peers, which was in line with Ratelle and Duchesne (2014) and Evangelou and colleagues' (2008) good transition practice for vulnerable young people, which stressed the importance of identified key people to support the students' social and institutional adjustment. This established a sense of security which Bomber (2007) identified as important for young people that have experienced rejection and transition.

The importance of adult autonomy support to participants' successful managed moves was in keeping with the evidence base for transitions (Harris et al., 2007; Evangelou et al., 2008), which emphasised a flexible approach to working with vulnerable young people. Aspects that

participants emphasised to encourage participation and learning included; making learning fun, flexible teaching styles, providing choice, listening to student opinions and problems, being non-judgemental and promoting social engagement. These factors were reported by Niemiec & Ryan (2009) as promoting SDT needs. Lacey experienced self-determination as a result of the autonomy support she received, but she was also extrinsically motivated to repay teachers for their support, which conflicts with Deci and Ryan's (2000) SDT and may reflect her difficult pre-managed move experience.

2.4.4 Implications for Educational Psychologists (EP)

While none of the young people in this study received any input from an EP at any stage of their managed moves, the study highlighted a role in managed moves for EPs at four levels; the individual, the school, multi-agency and local authority/national level.

At the individual level, Cameron (2006) identified a preventative role for EPs in the managed move process, where they can apply their training in problem solving models to clarify the underlying issues leading up to a managed move and mediate a resolution. Despite the fact that all three participants identified that the difficulties that led to their eventual managed move developed over time, only Kevin, received any pastoral support prior to his managed move.

Once a managed move has been decided, the new SEN Code of Practice (2014) calls for the views of the young people and their parent/carer to be central throughout the process and all decisions to be informed by these views. EPs are trained in the use of personal construct psychology models (Kelly, 1955) to elicit the students' voice. Also, EPs' experience of personal construct psychology (Kelly, 1955) and solution-focused thinking helps them to bring together information and advocate for the young person in meetings family, school and other agencies to ensure their needs are understood and supported, making the managed move a positive experience. O'Regan (2010) also called for managed move criteria to include screening for learning difficulties where the young person has not been previously assessed. EPs are already carrying out this role in schools.

At a school level, Atkinson, Regan and Williams (2006) highlighted the importance of EPs' collaborative work with schools to promote effective managed move practices. Wagner (2000) emphasised the benefits of EPs using systemic consultation at organisational level in schools to promote an understanding of the impact of managed moves on vulnerable young people and the importance of SDT for students to ensure a successful managed move transition and sustained integration beyond the initial trial period. Collaborating with senior staff within schools would ensure a holistic view of provision for pupils undergoing integration following a managed

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move. This includes developing re-integration packages for managed move students to ensure their social, as well as academic needs are being met appropriately.

This research has highlighted several areas for EPs to provide training to whole school staff including;

- The impact of transition on students, particularly managed move students.
- How school support staff can meet the emotional/social needs of managed move students.
- Training for all school staff on the importance of SDT in schools, in particular how teachers can apply autonomy support practices (discussed in Chapter One) in the classroom to promote student self-determination and intrinsic motivation.

At the multi-agency level, Farrell and colleagues (2006) identified the role of EPs in bringing coherence to multi-agency working. This includes identifying needs, facilitating meetings and coordinating delivery of service across groups of professionals from different backgrounds. With consideration of what Fallon, Woods and Rooney (2010) identified as an inequality of resources within the current traded service model, EPs could maximise their impact by attending Local Authority panels that oversee managed moves. Within this setting EPs can promote multi-agency working and apply their knowledge of psychology to ensure that the particular needs of managed move students are matched with schools that can meet those needs.

EPs also have a role to play at a local authority and national level. As discussed in the introduction, a student who is permanently excluded is more likely to end up in the criminal justice system. While it is difficult to put an exact figure on the cost of exclusions as there are a lot of hypothetical and hidden expenses associated with it, the New Philanthropy Capital (NPC; 2007) estimated that permanent exclusions from school cost the government in the region of £650 million per annum. These figures do not even take into account what Daniels (2011) described as the social cost of exclusion, where young people are excluded from their family and community as a result of their exclusion. Given these findings and considering the current financial climate, it is in the government and local authorities' best interests to ensure that managed moves are working, to prevent young people being permanently excluded. The EP's role in education as well as their training in research practices means they are best placed to carry out research within the local authority to review current managed move practice in schools and disseminate their findings on managed move best practice to schools and local authorities nationally through publication of their findings.

2.4.5 Strengths of the Study

This study gave voice to a student population not represented in the limited managed moves evidence base. The IPA process allowed the researcher the flexibility to explore the participants' experiences and draw out themes and conclusions, which could not be achieved through quantitative measures. The study has added to the evidence base for managed moves, with practical applications for schools involved in managed moves both as the excluding school and the receiving school. The study also highlighted the importance of teacher support practices in promoting managed move success. In particular the participants highlighted how teacher autonomy supportive practices previously identified helped to develop the participants' sense of self-determination in their managed move schools.

The reported change in participants' self-concept associated with their experience of self-determination following their managed move has not been widely reported in existing SDT literature.

2.4.6 Limitations of the study

The small sample size and the difference in managed move practice between schools means the results cannot be generalised to a wider population.

Given the vulnerable population sample, recruitment of participants was not completely managed by the researcher and school staff were responsible for identifying and initially approaching the students. The researcher is unable to say whether students were approached on the basis of their willingness to engage, or ability to articulate their experience, which may bias against more vulnerable students.

Although the interview schedule explored the whole managed move process it also had a self-determination focus, which may have limited participants' responses and despite my best efforts to draw out the participants' whole experience using questions and probes potential unforeseen factors may have been missed.

Despite steps taken to limit bias in this research, such as using reflective diaries, supervision and increased analysis, as outlined in Appendix Q and the Reflexivity Section (2.4.8), IPA acknowledges that it is impossible for a researcher to be completely non-biased given their training and prior knowledge.

2.4.7 Future Research

A potential follow-up study could explore the experiences of managed move students across different LAs, or compare student, family and school managed move experiences. A quantitative questionnaire study across a larger sample would allow findings to be generalised nationally. The self-concept change experienced by participants is not widely reported by SDT literature and would benefit from further research.

2.4.8 Reflexivity

Gillham (2005) identified that the participant is always 'constructing' themselves in what they say, which changes through interaction and reflection. Through our interview interaction I affected how participants responded and their version of their managed move experience changed as a result. A good example of this was Phillip's experience of isolation when he was waiting to be accepted by a new school. During the interview Phillip initially brushed over this period but my questions/probes of this time period saw him reflect and actively reconstruct his initial recollection of events and he provided a deeper insight into that period.

Shaw (2010) emphasised that the interviewer cannot be completely impartial in their view of the participants' experiences, given their own knowledge and experiences. I was aware my professional role and training could affect how I responded to interviewees, so to minimise my influence and maintain reliability during the interview process I constructed an evidence based semi-structured interview schedule with prompts to ensure a degree of uniformity of questioning across the interview process. During the interviews I adopted a non-judgmental position, used open body language, provided opportunities to ask questions and informed participants of their rights. Also, given my knowledge of SDT and managed moves literature, a level of self-awareness and reflection was required when prompts were used to ensure information was sought to develop a better understanding of the participants' experience and not to confirm, or deny any hypotheses. I worked in keeping with what is known in IPA as *epoché*, or bracketing (Patton, 1990) whereby I suspended my judgement to limit my influence. Also, at the end of each interview I checked my initial interpretations of the participants' experiences with them to ensure it was true to their experience. While the semi-structured interview schedule and prompts helped to limit my influence, IPA encourages flexibility in the interview process to follow up on participants' responses in order to capture the participant's whole experience. I was aware that this could potentially result in researcher bias. For example when interviewing Kevin, my first participant interview, I was aware that I actively followed up on a response Kevin gave that evidenced an experience of self-determination. To ensure I used probes in a balanced manner I reviewed the audio recording of my use of questions and probes in each interview. Also after each

interview I recorded my reflections in a reflective diary, which I reviewed prior to the analysis process. Any concerns of potential bias noted in the reflective diaries were checked against the audio recording and written transcripts. I also brought any issues/concerns from the interview and analysis process to supervision to ensure I was limiting my influence on the participants' experiences.

To avoid researcher bias during the data analysis process I reviewed my reflective diaries beforehand and closely followed the IPA guidance on data analysis. I immersed myself in the data by reading the transcripts and listening to the audio recordings several times before making any initial notes and any interpretations made were strongly evidenced by the participants' own reported experiences. As well as self-reflection, supervision was important to highlight potential bias and limit my influence on the analysis process. I used supervision to discuss my interview and analysis practice, emerging themes from my analysis and how to address potential areas of bias in my interpretation. A good example of using supervision to reflect on and change my practice was when the three factors of self-determination emerged from my initial analysis of Kevin's transcript. Concerned about potential bias due to my prior knowledge of SDT I brought the themes to supervision and identified the need for additional analysis than was required by IPA to limit bias and increase transparency. To do this I recorded the number of times each participant mentioned a theme (see Appendix Q) and used extra quotes in the results section to evidence each interpretation. I also drew up a table of quotes on each theme from each participant (see Appendix P). I also provided an in-depth outline of my analysis process (see Appendix N). In keeping with IPA beliefs, I acknowledge that despite my best efforts to limit my influence, my views, values and beliefs will have some impact upon the interpretation, which may have unintentionally shaped the analysis (Creswell, 2007). I also acknowledge that a different researcher, with different experiences may interpret the data differently.

2.5 Conclusion

When students experienced increased self-determination following their managed moves they were motivated to engage in lessons, persisted and had greater academic achievement. Their experience of greater self-determination following their managed move transition resulted in a positive self-concept change, improved wellbeing and positive aspirations for the future. While these findings were in keeping with the evidence-base for SDT, what is unique about this study is that it has been reported by a student population not previously represented in SDT literature. Participants' experiences suggested that if their self-determination needs are supported during their induction into their new school it will increase the likelihood of managed move success. This study identified that students have limited autonomy within the managed

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move process and school system. As such their self-determination may be reliant on the autonomy support of key adult figures. EPs have a role in disseminating the impact of managed moves and SDT to schools.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Literature Review Cross Sectional Studies

Study Reference	Study Design	Target Sample	Outcome Measures	Key Results
Koludrović, M., & Ercegovac, I. R. (2015).	Cross Sectional Quantitative self-report study examining various aspects of academic motivation of future preschool teachers, primary school teachers, and secondary school teachers	566 Belgian university student primary school teachers. 2 groups depending on year of study. Years 1-3 were undergraduate (n=336) and years 4-5 graduate (n=230). Gender not specified.	Measures Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand et al., 1992)	1. There was a significant difference in intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. 2. IM was significantly higher values at the graduate level compared to the undergraduate level (when student work was focused on placement practice and cooperative work compared with academic exams. 3. Highest scores were obtained for autonomous motivation. Lowest scores were for amotivation.
Utvaer, B.K.S. (2014)	Quantitative self-report study	405Norwegian Health and Social Care students in upper secondary school.	Measures The Aspiration Index. Measures of intrinsic and extrinsic life goals. The Aspiration Index was found to be a valid and reliable measurement in a Scandinavian population. A factor analysis explored the dimensionality, reliability, and construct validity of the measure.	1. Results showed that intrinsic goals encouraged meaningfulness in all subjects, whereas extrinsic goals were associated with a sense of meaninglessness in vocational subjects. 2. IM motivated students to persist in that area of study. 3. Amotivation was positively related to drop out and change of study program. 4. Intrinsic motivating subjects had a greater impact on students' confidence and persistence than subjects that were extrinsically motivating. 5. Results found that students with poor grades and much absence from lower secondary school could still succeed in upper secondary school if their education in school and placements were interesting and they received autonomy support from significant adults. 6. A lack of motivation, being bullied, drug abuse, criminal behaviour, and personal and

				health-related problems was associated with school dropout
Bieg, Rickelman, Jones, Waldemar, & Mittag (2013)	cross-sectional study examined cross-national differences of how students' motivation and learning emotions are related to teachers' care	<p>870 American and German eighth grade students 425 eighth-grade students (211 male and 200 female; 14 did not report gender) from 30 English language arts classes in the United States and 445 eighth grade students (215 male and 230 female) from 27 German language classes in Germany</p> <p>age of the American students ranged from 11 to 16 (M = 13.7)</p> <p>German students from 12 to 16 (M = 13.8)</p> <p>Non-random sample. Principals of schools in questions identified eighth grade teachers who were invited to participate on a voluntary basis.</p>	<p>Measures</p> <p>Demographic variables age, gender and grade level.</p> <p>Motivational Self-regulation Questionnaire for Adolescents (MoS-A, Bieg & Mittag, 2005), which is a modified version of the Self-Regulation Questionnaire – Academic by Ryan and Connell (1989)</p> <p>Perceived Autonomy Support (Roder & Kleine, 2007)</p> <p>Perceived domain specific self-efficacy (Jerusalem & Satow, 1999).</p> <p>Perceived Teachers' Care (Saldern & Littig, 1987)</p> <p>Instruction-related emotions (interest, learning enjoyment and anxiety; Laukenmann et al. (2003)</p> <p>Bespoke Learning enjoyment and Anxiety questionnaires.</p>	<p>1. All motivational styles were rated significantly higher in the US sample, although with small effect sizes.</p> <p>2. American students perceive themselves to have more autonomy than their German colleagues.</p> <p>3. American adolescents reported more autonomous motivation, interest, domain specific self-efficacy and anxiety, and higher levels of autonomy support.</p> <p>4. German students were less motivated by extrinsic reward or punishment than their American counterparts</p> <p>5. Participants' autonomy support was associated with autonomous motivation, interest and learning enjoyment.</p> <p>6. Autonomy support was positively linked to optimal instructional related feelings, as measured by interest and learning enjoyment</p> <p>7. German students with high perceptions of teacher autonomy support showed significantly less anxiety than students with low perceptions of teacher autonomy support.</p> <p>8. Both countries students who perceived a high level of autonomy support from their teachers showed significantly more interest and more learning enjoyment</p>
Jang, H., Reeve, J., Ryan, R. M., & Kim, A. (2009)	<p>Cross sectional Study 1A Explored whether greater SD leads to increased enjoyment of learning.</p> <p>Study 1B</p>	<p>Study 1A 142 (95 boys and 47 girls) ninth-grade students from a, South Korean secondary school</p> <p>Study 1B 134 South Korean secondary school students (84 boys and 50 girls)</p>	<p>Study 1A</p> <p>Student essay task</p> <p>Study 1A and 2A used an adaptation of Sheldon et al.'s (2001) measure was used to assess classroom learning</p>	<p>1. When the three psychological needs of SDT were satisfied Korean students' reported experiencing of a satisfying learning experience and was also associated with student reported positive affect in terms of high self-esteem and high stimulation.</p> <p>2. Students' reported that when they experienced</p>

			experience, SDT and positive affect.	relatedness but not autonomy and competence they reported having an unsatisfying learning experience. 3. When all three were not experienced they reported high negative affect in that they reported low self-esteem and stimulation.
Jang, H., Reeve, J., Ryan, R. M., & Kim, A. (2009)	Study 2 Explored south Korean students experience of autonomy support in the classroom and its association with motivation, achievement, engagement, quality of work and positive affect across one semester.	256 (138 girls and 118 boys) South Korean secondary school 10th-grade students from Seoul.	Self-report measures The Learning Climate Questionnaire (LCQ; Williams et al., 1996) The three psychological needs of SDT, was measured using the Activity-Feelings States Scale (AFS; Reeve & Sickenius, 1994). Miserandino's (1996) engagement questionnaire Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire (ASRQ; Ryan & Connell, 1989). Mood Rating Scale (MRS; Diener & Emmons, 1984) The students end of semester results was used to measure Academic achievement	1. Students' perception of their teachers as autonomy supportive was positively associated with each of the three psychological needs. 2. Autonomy and competence were associated with all outcomes, and relatedness also contributed to some outcomes. 3. Greater SD through the three needs of SDT was positively associated with achievement, engagement, intrinsic motivation, quality of work and positive affect.
Jang, H., Reeve, J., Ryan, R. M., & Kim, A. (2009)	Study 3 Like study 2 this study also explored South Korean students experience of autonomy support in the classroom and its association with motivation, achievement, engagement, quality of work and positive affect across one semester.	272 (147 girls and 125 boys) South Korean 10th-grade students	Self-report measures The Learning Climate Questionnaire (LCQ; Williams et al., 1996) was used. Activity-Feelings States Scale (AFS; Reeve & Sickenius, 1994). Miserandino's (1996) engagement questionnaire The Academic Self-Regulation	1. Greater autonomy through the three needs of SDT was positively associated with; Engagement, Intrinsic motivation and Positive affect but not Achievement. 2. Cultural and parental influences did not correlate with the SDT variables model.

	<p>This study also explored how sociocultural variables predict South Korean students' positive functioning and high achievement.</p>		<p>Questionnaire (ASRQ; Ryan & Connell, 1989).</p> <p>Mood Rating Scale (MRS; Diener & Emmons, 1984)</p> <p>Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, and Gelfand's (1995) was used to assess students' collectivistic orientation.</p> <p>A bespoke measure was used to assess cultural expectations for high achievement.</p> <p>The Parental Expectations scale from the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990) was used to measure Parental expectations for high achievement.</p>	
<p>Lavigne, G. L., Vallerand, R. J., & Miquelon, P. (2007)</p>	<p>A cross sectional study to explore in impact of student autonomy on persistence in science education</p>	<p>728 10th-grade French-Canadian students (349 boys and 367 girls; 12 did not indicate their gender). Participants' mean age was 15.14 years (SD=.45) recruited from three Montreal public high schools</p>	<p>Self-report questionnaire based on an adapted version of the Self regulatory Styles Questionnaire (Ryan & Connell, 1989)</p> <p>Researcher administered.</p>	<p>1. A direct link was found between student perceptions of competence and intentions to pursue a science education, where higher levels of perceived competence predicted higher levels of persistence intentions.</p> <p>2. Teacher autonomy support associated with student perceptions of competence and autonomy, which resulted in student autonomous motivation and persistence</p> <p>3. Students with high intentions to pursue a science education reported significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation and identified regulation and lower introjected regulation and amotivation than</p>

				students with low science intentions.
Chirkov, V. I., & Ryan, R. M. (2001)	Explored whether autonomy-support had a positive effect on self-motivation and well-being	236 secondary school students 43 boys and 77 girls from Russia, and 49 boys and 67 girls from the United States. Russian students ranged from 14 to 17 years old (mean = 16.13 years), and U.S. students ranged from 16 to 19 years old (mean = 17.10 years) Recruitment on a volunteer basis.	Perceptions of Parental Autonomy-Support and Control Questionnaire (PAS; Robbins, 1994) Perceptions of Teachers' Autonomy-Support and Control Questionnaire (TAS; Robbins, 1994) Self-Regulation Questionnaire-Academic Domain (SRQ-A; Ryan & Connell, 1989) Psychological well-being assessed using an adapted self-report questionnaire made up of 4 validated questionnaires.	1. Both samples perceived autonomy-support predicted greater academic motivation and well-being 2. Russian students were higher than US students on intrinsic motivation but lower than them on autonomous and identified extrinsic regulation. 3. Russian adolescents perceived parents and teachers as more controlling than U.S. students 4. Russian students also reported lower self-actualization, self-esteem, and life satisfaction compared with U.S. students 5. While both parents and teachers influenced school motivation but only Teacher autonomy-support was linked in both student samples with students' intrinsic motivation.
Valås, H., & Sjøvik, N. (1993). Study 1	Quantitative Cross sectional study Self-report related to mathematics to examine the effects of the math teacher's controlling strategies (as perceived by the students) on students' intrinsic interests for math, their achievements, and their self-concept in math	171 year 7 students (88 boys, 83 girls) and 164 year 8 students (93 boys and 71 girls). All randomly selected from 10 Norwegian secondary schools.	IM for Maths Using Harter's (1981) IM versus EM in the classroom questionnaire Academic self-concept Using Harter's (1982) Self-perception Profile for Children. Math Achievement Student perception of teacher autonomy support using Decharm's (1976) Origin Climate Questionnaire IQ SES	1. Perception of teacher control significant impact on IM, even when controlling for IQ, achievement and self-concept. Self-concept directly affected IM. (0.8) Achievement in Maths sig correlation to IM in Maths
Sweet, A. P., Guthrie, J. T., & Ng, M. M. (1998)	Quantitative and qualitative study explored teacher perceptions of students' intrinsic motivation for reading	68 randomly selected American primary school teachers rated reading motivation of 374 students (grades 3-6). Gender not specified.	Focus group developed a 31 question reading motivation questionnaire	1. Teacher perceptions of IM and AM positively associated with academic achievement. 2. Teacher autonomy support increase student SD and reading achievement.

				<p>3. High achieving and IM students required less EM compared with lower achieving students, who required greater EM</p> <p>4. Social interaction/cooperative learning did not increase student motivation. (qual and quant evidence)</p>
<p>Guay, F., Chanal, J., Ratelle, C. F., Marsh, H. W., Larose, S., & Boivin, M. (2010).</p>	<p>Quantitative Self-report examined motivation across different school subjects</p>	<p>425 French-Canadian children (225 girls, 200 boys) from Years 1, n=121), Grade 2 (N =126), and Grade 3 (N = 178 of three primary schools.</p>	<p>Self report questionnaires</p> <p>An adapted version of the Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand et al., 1989)</p> <p>Academic Self-concept. An adaptation of the Academic Self-Description Questionnaire (Marsh, 1990)</p>	<p>1. Gender differences, girls have higher IM and AM for reading and writing than boys. Boys have higher IM for maths than girls.</p> <p>2. Children report differentiation of motivation affects across grades and subjects.</p> <p>3. SDT and IM sig for reading.</p> <p>4. Conditions for IM decreases as children get older.</p>
<p>Zhao, L., Lu, Y., Wang, B., & Huang, W. (2011)</p>	<p>Quantitative Observation and Self-report study to investigate how perceived autonomy support, perceived relatedness and competence affect high school students' intrinsic motivations (enjoyment and curiosity) to use the Internet</p> <p>Limitations, rural population not all students had access to internet. Only looked at IM not EM.</p>	<p>3475 (1575 male, 1800 female) Chinese students from ten secondary schools.</p>	<p>Enjoyment and Self-efficacy measures adapted from Hsu and Chiu (2004)</p> <p>Curiosity measures adapted from Huang (2003)</p> <p>Concentration measures adapted from Koufaris (2002) and Novak, Hoffman, and Yung (1998)</p> <p>Peer influence measured with adaptation of Martins and Kellermanns (2004)</p> <p>Exploratory behavior adapted from Novak et al. (2000)</p> <p>teacher/parent support adapted from (Taylor & Todd, 1995) and (Igbaria et al., 1996)</p>	<p>1. Only teacher support found to significantly influence students' IM. Parental support doesn't positively influence intrinsic motivation.</p> <p>2. Both enjoyment and curiosity resulted in reported flow experience which further predicted student exploration behaviour</p>
<p>El, R. P., Tillema, H., & van Koppen, S. M. (2012).</p>	<p>Quantitative Study using self-report investigate the influence of</p>	<p>1008 students in 53 classes from 10 Dutch secondary vocational schools</p>	<p>Student IM measured using the interest/enjoyment subscale of the</p>	<p>1. Competence and relatedness had a positive influence on both immigrant and Dutch students' intrinsic</p>

	ethnic differences on student motivation when learning from formative feedback		<p>intrinsic motivation inventory also autonomy and relatedness subscales of the IMI (IMI; McAuley, Duncan, & Tammen, 1989)</p> <p>The 3 SDT needs measured using: The competence subscale (Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981)</p> <p>Student Feedback evaluation using: Student for Learning Questionnaire (SAFL-Q)</p>	<p>motivation, but not autonomy.</p> <p>2. The 3 SDT needs were influenced by teacher feedback/scaffolding for both groups.</p> <p>3. Teacher proximity and monitoring only influenced relatedness.</p>
Skinner, E. A., & Chi, U. (2012).	<p>Quantitative</p> <p>Exploration of Intrinsic motivation and engagement in garden-based education.</p>	<p>310 American year 6 primary and year 7 secondary school students, ages 11 to 13. Gender not specified.</p> <p>All from one school made up of 55% ethnic minorities.</p>	<p>Teacher- and student-report questionnaires on engagement, learning, achievement, academic self-perception, competence, autonomy, relatedness and intrinsic motivation. Collected at one time point</p> <p>Classroom Engagement measuring four dimensions: behavioral engagement, emotional engagement, behavioral disaffection, and emotional disaffection (Skinner, Kindermann, & Furrer, 2009)</p> <p>Student Perceptions of Control Questionnaire (Skinner, Wellborn, & Connell, 1990)</p> <p>Adapted version of the Self regulatory Styles Questionnaire (Ryan & Connell, 1989) to measure IM and motivation and orientation</p>	<p>1. Correlation found between 3 SDT needs and student IM to engage in learning.</p> <p>2. Increased SD and IM directly impacted on student and teacher engagement and was predictive of learning and achievement</p> <p>3. A positive correlation between engagement and students' academic self-perceptions relatedness, competence, IM and SD.</p> <p>4. Students with IM were more engaged in the lesson and were more likely to be engaged in other science lessons and in school and vice versa.</p>

			<p>Student achievement based on grades</p> <p>Engagement measured using Teacher and student reports of student science engagement</p> <p>Control Beliefs scale of Student Perceptions of Control Questionnaire (SPOCQ) (Skinner et al., 1990)</p> <p>Multiple Regressions were used to Explore student IM and engagement</p>	
Doménech-Betoret, F., & Gómez-Artiga, A. (2014).	Quantitative self – report study examined the relationship among students' and teachers' thinking styles, student psychological needs (autonomy, competence and relatedness), and their reports of intrinsic motivation	266 university students from one Spanish university. 214 females and 51 males	<p>Self-report measures</p> <p>Teacher and Student thinking styles measured using The Thinking Styles Inventory, Doménech (2007)</p> <p>Basic Psychological Needs Scale developed by Ilardi, Leone, Kasser, and Ryan (1993)</p> <p>IM measured using the EME Vallerand et al., (1989), The original French version of the AMS.</p>	<p>1. Teacher thinking styles had a significant positive effect on students' SDT needs Teacher autonomy support increased student SD.</p> <p>2. Students' SDT needs have a significant positive effect on students' intrinsic motivation.</p>

Appendix B. Literature Review Longitudinal Studies

Study Reference	Study Design	Target Sample	Intervention	Outcome Measures	Key Results
Valås, H., & Sjøvik, N. (1993). Study 2	Longitudinal Assessed at same point one year apart.	171 year 7 students (88 boys, 83 girls) and 164 year 8 students (93 boys and 71 girls). All randomly selected from 10 Norwegian secondary schools.		Self-report Measures IM for Maths Using Harter's (1981) IM versus EM in the classroom questionnaire Academic self-concept Using Harter's (1982) Self-perception Profile for Children. Math Achievement Student perception of teacher autonomy support using Decharm's (1976) Origin Climate Questionnaire IQ SES	1. Perception of Teacher control at time one impacted IM. 2. Perception of Teacher control at time two impacted Self-concept and achievement for both groups. 3. Students with high self concept had higher IM even when teacher was perceived as controlling
Busse, V., & Walter, C. (2013).	Longitudinal mixed-methods study quantitative and qualitative (questionnaires and interviews). Longitudinal study of motivational changes in university students and their causes	59 First year students in two UK universities, Uni A 38, Uni B 21 (ages 18-20 years). 12 interviews gender M = 20, F= 37, 2 Missing 12 interviews gender not specified	Limitations: small scale study, only 2 schools, specific sample.	Measures: Bespoke questionnaire based on literature and pilot study. Semi-structured interviews N=12.	1. Student learning decrease over the course of the year associated with decrease in IM and self-efficacy, particularly at the middle of the school year. 2. Decrease in IM correlated with low confidence, decreasing enjoyment, and declining engagement in learning tasks. 3. Curriculum reported to impact on motivation.

Maulana, R., Opdenakker, M. C., Stroet, K., & Bosker, R. (2013)	Longitudinal study over one school year) Observational and self-report study investigated changes in two components of teacher-student relationships (teachers' involvement vs. rejection) and examined links with students' academic motivation during the first grade of secondary school	Ten Dutch and ten Indonesian teachers (65 % female, 35% male) from 24 secondary school classes in their respective countries. Participants included 337 (51 % girls) Dutch and 376 (52 % girls) Indonesian students aged 11-13 years.	Video recording limitations 1 camera, missed interactions. Sample size small.	Measures Video observation 12 times across the school year. Four videos for each class were selected randomly and coded on teachers' involvement versus rejection. A total of 713 students (52 % girls) completed four-wave measures of their academic motivation after each video observation. Self-report measures of academic motivation using an adaptation of the Academic Self-regulation Scale (Ryan & Connell, 1989), translated into their respective languages according to the International Test Commission guidelines.	1. Teacher autonomy support higher in Dutch than Indonesian classes 2. Teacher rejection was slightly lower in Dutch than Indonesian classes 3. The level of teachers' involvement decreases in keeping with school terms, in relation to the need to complete school tasks by the end of the semester. 3. Experienced Dutch Teachers were less autonomy supportive with experience. Student motivation 4. Controlled motivation increased over time, while perceived autonomous motivation decreased. Teachers' behaviour and academic motivation changes over first year of secondary education. 5. Autonomous motivation in high ability classes remained high in comparison to their peers in mixed ability classes.
Mouratidis, A., Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W., Michou, A., & Soenens, B. (2013).	Quantitative; Self-Report Questionnaire study examined the academic correlates of secondary school students' intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations and the type of aspirations that they perceive	886 Belgium Secondary School Students, 290 male and 590 female students (along with six students who missed reporting their gender)		Life Goal Aspiration Scale (Kasser & Ryan, 1996) A 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all true of me) to 5 (very true of me). Perceived parent-	1. Students with high intrinsic aspiration scored higher on mastery approach goals, effort regulation, and grades than other students and lower on performance-approach goals and test anxiety.

	their parents to promote to them.			<p>promoted intrinsic-extrinsic aspirations</p> <p>Recorded at 3 different intervals</p>	<p>2. Intrinsic aspirations covaried with mastery-approach goals over a 1-year time interval, while extrinsic aspirations covaried with performance-approach goals and test anxiety in the same period</p>
<p>Kyndt, E., Coertjens, L., van Daal, T., Donche, V., Gijbels, D., Van Petegem, P. (2015)</p>	<p>Longitudinal study (25 months, from final year of secondary school to second year of university)</p>	<p>630 (3704 initially) students from 32 Belgian secondary schools, 15 vocational, 17 mainstream. Gender not specified</p>		<p>Data collected at 5 time points over 25 months.</p> <p>SDT Motivation self-report. Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ; Ryan & Connell, 1989)</p> <p>Academic Motivation Scale (AMS), by Vallerand et al. (1992).</p> <p>ANOVA analyses</p>	<p>1. Average students' autonomous motivation increased across the five measurement moments. With a large increase following transition and a continuous increase after.</p> <p>2. Controlled motivation was reported to be higher in secondary school than university. Particularly in the final year and through transition with a slight but not significant increase after. This decreases toward the end of year 1.</p> <p>3. Student Amotivation higher in secondary school, particularly in the final year.</p>
<p>Ratelle & Duchesne (2014)</p>	<p>Longitudinal study examined the developmental patterns of perceived psychological need satisfaction (PNS) of SDT from the end of primary school to the end of secondary school and their impact on school adjustment.</p>	<p>609 Canadian students (277 boys, 332 girls) were surveyed annually over a 6-year period, from the end of primary school until the end of secondary school.</p> <p>Participants were randomly selected by the Quebec Ministry of Education. Selection was stratified on the basis of</p>		<p>To measure psychological needs sub scales of Perceived Self-Determination in Life Domains Scale (Blais & Vallerand, 1991)</p> <p>Perceived Competence in Life Domains Scale (Losier, Vallerand, & Blais, 1993)</p> <p>Need for Relatedness Scale (Richer & Vallerand, 1998)</p>	<p>1. Trajectories varied in shape, composition, and magnitude such that some students reported increasing PNS over time while others reported stable or decreasing PNS</p> <p>2. Students reporting higher levels of PNS, either stable or increasing also reported higher levels of academic, social, and personal-emotional adjustment at the end of secondary school.</p>

		gender, geographic representation (rural or urban), and socioeconomic status		<p>Academic achievement was measured using a self-reported academic achievement in math and French at one time point only (T6). These measures were scored on a 1–100 scale</p> <p>To measure school adjustment an adaptation of the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ; Baker & Siryk, 1989)</p> <p>Anxiety was measured using a sub scale of the Revised Children’s Manifest Anxiety Scale (RCMAS; Reynolds & Richmond, 1978)</p> <p>MANCOVA used to analyse adjustment.</p>	<p>3. PNS in school fluctuated in a heterogeneous fashion for all three psychological needs across adolescence.</p> <p>4. Results supported the importance, for all three needs, of distinguishing among trajectories of PNS for predicting social, academic, and emotional–personal adjustment.</p> <p>5. Sense of SDT PNS fluctuates at school from the end of primary until the end of secondary. (Authors reported changes in school context including the number of transitions as impacting on this)</p> <p>6. Girls were generally found in the most positive trajectories (i.e., they reported higher satisfaction of needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness across the high school years).</p> <p>7. Students whose need for competence is initially less satisfied can experience high levels of academic adjustment years later if they perceived increasing satisfaction of this need throughout these years satisfaction of the need for competence might promote students’ academic adjustment by increasing students’ autonomous motivations while decreasing</p>
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					<p>controlled motivations</p> <p>8. Perceived competence satisfaction from moderately low to high over this 6-year period was beneficial for students' adjustment to school demands as well as their affective and physical states, but not so much for their social interaction. students needs for autonomy and relatedness might therefore be more important for social adjustment than perceived competence</p> <p>9. Students reporting higher levels of PNS, either stable or increasing, reported higher levels of academic, social, and personal-emotional adjustment at the end of high school.</p> <p>10. Satisfaction of the 3 needs is associated with achievement and adjustment</p> <p>11. Improved competence associated with increased school adjustment to school demands and their reported affective and physical state.</p>
Jang, H., Reeve, J., Ryan, R. M., & Kim, A. (2009)	Study 4 Longitudinal study Explored whether south Korean students experience of autonomy support in the classroom was associated with motivation, achievement, engagement, quality of work	175 South Korean secondary school students (out of the original 209 participants represented a retention rate of 84%) (74 girls and 101 boys) Split	Data was collected at three time points across the semester, One month into the semester, in the middle of the semester, and one week before the end	Self-report Measures To assess perceived teacher autonomy support the Learning Climate Questionnaire (LCQ; Williams	<p>1. Teacher autonomy support was predictive of meeting the 3 needs of SDT.</p> <p>2. Competence and autonomy was significantly associated with engagement, intrinsic motivation and positive affect.</p>

	and positive affect.	across Korean, English, and math class. Researchers reported that attrition rate did not affect final outcome.	of the semester.	et al., 1996) was used. The three psychological needs of SDT, was measured using the Activity-Feelings States Scale (AFS; Reeve & Sickenius, 1994). Miserandino's (1996) engagement questionnaire was used to assess engagement. Intrinsic motivation, was measured using the intrinsic motivation scale from the Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire (ASRQ; Ryan & Connell, 1989). The Mood Rating Scale (MRS; Diener & Emmons, 1984)	3. Only competence was associated with achievement. 4. Teacher relatedness was associated with these outcomes.
Ratelle, C. F., Guay, F., Vallerand, R. J., Larose, S., & Senécal, C. (2007).	Study 1 This study examined the association between student motivation profile and academic adjustment.	4,498 Canadian secondary school students (2,262 boys, 2,224 girls, 12 unspecified) Their mean age was 14.97 years	Participants were recruited in classrooms and asked to complete a questionnaire.	The Academic Motivation Scale (AMS; Vallerand, Blais, Brière, & Pelletier, 1989) Affective and cognitive functioning was measured using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons,	1. An autonomous motivation profile was considered to be adaptive as these students, experienced the most positive academic outcomes (e.g., better school satisfaction, a higher probability of staying in school, and lower distraction and anxiety.

				Larsen, & Griffin, 1985)	
				School dropout via the school register one year after the initial questionnaire was administered.	
Ratelle, C. F., Guay, F., Vallerand, R. J., Larose, S., & Senécal, C. (2007).	Study 2 This study examined the association between student motivation profile and academic adjustment.	942 secondary school students from the Quebec City, Canada, area (524 girls, 417 boys, 1 unspecified). Their mean age was 13.75 years	Participants were recruited in classrooms and asked to complete a questionnaire. At the end of the school year, measures of achievement and absenteeism were obtained	The Academic Motivation Scale (AMS; Vallerand, Blais, Brière, & Pelletier, 1989) Academic achievement and absenteeism obtained from school report cards.	1. Unable to determine whether having an autonomous profile is more adaptive than having a combined profile because no autonomous profile in either sample.
Ratelle, C. F., Guay, F., Vallerand, R. J., Larose, S., & Senécal, C. (2007).	Study 3 This study examined the association between student motivation profile and academic adjustment.	410 Canadian first-year university students (226 women, 184 men). Mean age was 18.58 years	Participants were recruited in classrooms and asked to complete a questionnaire. At the end of the school year, measures of achievement and absenteeism were obtained	The Academic Motivation Scale (AMS; Vallerand, Blais, Brière, & Pelletier, 1989) Academic achievement and persistence obtained from report cards and enrolment data.	1. Motivational profiles context sensitive 2. Achievement was the same for students who reported an IM profile and those who reported AM. 3. IM students was predictive of academic perseverance.

Appendix C. Literature Review Experimental Studies

Study Reference	Study Design	Target Sample	Intervention	Outcome Measures	Key Results
Hänze, M., & Berger, R. (2007)	Experimental intervention study Investigated the method of instruction in both between-subject factor and within-subject factors.	137 German secondary school students, from eight 12th grade physics classes.	This was a between-subjects design for the method of instruction with the study topic as a control. Two classroom settings 1) co-operative and 2) teacher directed. factor.1 Classes were assigned randomly to either learning condition The cooperative group were asked to learn a segment of a lesson to present to their group. The one off teacher led experiment took place over 4 hours. All groups had 2 hrs of instruction on the topic. Then completed a questionnaire on their experience. They then had 2hrs working in their respective conditions and again filled in the questionnaire	Measures academic self-concept scale Hoffmann, Häußler, & Peters-Haft, 1997) Learning experience questionnaire adapted from Prenzel et al., (1996) Academic performance pre- and post-experiment physics tests. MANOVA Stats reported	1. No overall difference found in academic performance between groups. However cooperative Jigsaw groups did better in area they were asked to focus on compared to same segment in teacher led condition but not as well on areas taught by other students or teacher. Students' academic performance on their own expert segments (M = 72%) was better than their performance on tutored segments. jigsaw classroom students performed worse on the segments of the learning materials that they had learned about from fellow group members than students who had been taught the material through the traditional method of instruction 2. Jigsaw groups reported greater IM, more cognitive activation and involvement in lessons, and more interest in the topic. 3. Students with low academic self-concept reported greater competence in the Jigsaw setting.

Black and Deci (2000)	Experimental study to investigate the effects of students' course-specific self-regulation and their perceptions of their instructors' autonomy support on adjustment and academic performance in a college-level organic chemistry course.	137 University chemistry students at one American university. No demographics where provided.	<p>Participants were randomly assigned to a study groups consisting of six to eight members per group</p> <p>Groups met for student facilitated workshops weekly for 13 weeks.</p> <p>Attendance was high (M 11.8 weeks attended, SD 1.8, range 5 – 13)</p> <p>Participation was voluntary and wouldn't go toward grades.</p> <p>Attrition 289 originally filled out assessments, 137 complete sets of data. Over 50% attrition rate.</p>	<p>General Causality Orientations Scale (Deci & Ryan, 1985) assessed autonomy</p> <p>The Learning Climate Questionnaire (Williams & Deci, 1996) assessed autonomy support;</p> <p>The Learning Self-Regulation Questionnaire adapted from (Ryan & Connell, 1989) assessed learning behaviour</p> <p>The Perceived Competence Scale (adapted from (Williams & Deci, 1996);</p> <p>Interest/Enjoyment measure (also adapted from Williams & Deci, 1996)</p> <p>An anxiety inventory; and a Grade-Orientation scale was constructed for this study.</p>	<p>1. Autonomy supportive environments led to improved academic achievement</p> <p>2. Autonomy was associated with course drop out.</p> <p>3. Autonomous motivation did predict course performance, in terms of higher course grades.</p> <p>4. Students' perceptions of autonomy support resulted in significant increases over the semester in students autonomy, self-regulation in their study, enhanced adjustment as indicated by significant increases in perceived competence and interest/enjoyment and a significant decrease in anxiety during the semester</p> <p>5. Initial students autonomy moderated the effect of autonomy support on performance. Students who entered the course with low internalized autonomy had significantly better performance if the course instructor supported autonomy in the course. However, the performance of students with high initial internalized autonomy was not improved by perceptions of autonomy support by instructors.</p>
Vansteenkiste, M., Timmermans, T., Lens, W., Soenens, B., & Van den Broeck, A. (2008)	Experimental Quantitative Study to examine whether goal framing satisfying of basic psychological needs and impact on learning and performance.	70 female and 68 male 5 th and 6 th grade Belgian students	<p>Two stage experiment.</p> <p>1. Questionnaire to assess personal motivation orientation (intrinsic/extrinsic)</p> <p>2 conditions (1 intrinsic goal framing, 1 extrinsic goal framing)</p> <p>Children were randomly assigned to either</p>	<p>Likert scale measures of IM and EM perception,</p> <p>An adaptation of Kasser and Ryan's (1996) Aspiration Index</p> <p>Test performance (assess conceptual and rote learning)</p> <p>Observational Persistence (opt to take work home)</p>	<p>1. Intrinsic goal framing was positively predicted autonomous motivation and conceptual learning.</p> <p>2. Meeting the 3 SDT needs predicted student persistence</p> <p>3. Persistence was predicted by placement in either the IM or EM group</p> <p>4. Intrinsic goal framing can enhance, or undermine student in terms of valuing the activity, persistence, enjoyment and conceptual learning, irrespective of the students own intrinsic, or extrinsic motivation.</p>

			<p>condition that either matched or mismatched their personal goal orientation.</p> <p>Text reading task, tested on text, option to bring work home.</p>	Teacher led experiment.	
Hagger, M. S., & Chatzisarantis, N. D. (2011).	Quantitative experimental study tested the hypothesis that individual differences in autonomy or control causality orientation would moderate the undermining effect of rewards on intrinsic motivation.	80 Australian university undergraduate students (40 autonomy orientated and 40 control orientated)	<p>Psychology undergrad Students asked to complete a SOMA three-dimensional block matching puzzle</p> <p>2 group conditions : Reward (£1 per puzzle solved) and No reward.</p> <p>Students who volunteered to participate in the study got course credit</p> <p>2 stages 94 weeks apart) 1 initial screening assess causal orientation.</p> <p>Equal number of autonomy supportive and control oriented students were invited to take part in the experiment. Not random selection.</p> <p>Experimenter led.</p>	<p>Self-report measures General Causality Orientations Scale (GCOS) for selection purposes.</p> <p>Task perception= 2 item questionnaire.</p> <p>Observation measures= time spent on activity during free time following completion of the original task</p> <p>Report stats</p>	<p>1. The reward condition reported feeling more controlled than the no reward condition.</p> <p>2. Reward condition perceived the task as being more boring than the no reward condition</p> <p>3. Control-oriented participants in the reward condition spent significantly less time on the task during the free-choice paradigm than those in the no reward condition. Even in controlling environments autonomy orientated students will persist longer.</p> <p>4. Autonomy-oriented participants in the reward condition did not differ in time spent on the puzzles compared with those in the no reward condition. No difference in IM between settings.</p> <p>5. Those with an autonomy orientation in the reward condition spent longer on the puzzles compared with those with a control orientation</p> <p>6. Causal orientation has a bigger effect on IM than rewards setting.</p>

Smit, K., de Brabander, C. J., Martens, R. L.(2014)	Quantitative self-report comparison study of teacher and student centred learning environments	<p>230 Dutch pre-vocational secondary school students, across 17 classes from 1 school. 58% males, 42% females.</p> <p>Age of students ranged from 15-18 yrs (M=16.1)</p>	<p>Two settings:</p> <p>1. Teacher led classroom (123 students, 75M, 48F) across classes Class sizes ranged from 9-21 students (M= 16)</p> <p>2. A student cooperative classroom activity. 107Students (62M, 4F) across 9 classes. Class sizes ranged from 7-22 students (M= 13.7)</p> <p>Students not randomly assigned.</p> <p>Study facilitated by the researchers and the teacher.</p> <p>One session (25-40 min).</p>	<p>One-off Measure:</p> <p>The Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (validity of the IMI was tested by McAuley et al. 1989) With an adapted additional scale for perceived organisational competence.</p> <p>Attendance measures</p> <p>Average vocational subject grades for one school year</p>	<p>1. The learning environment had a significant effect on relatedness</p> <p>2. Students, perceive more autonomy, relatedness and competence in the Student Learning Environment (SLE), compared with the students in the Teacher-led environment (TLE)</p> <p>3. Students in the SLE report more pleasure and effort</p> <p>4. Students in the SLE also perceive more relatedness with teachers</p> <p>5. Boys in SLE demonstrated less non-permitted absenteeism than boys in the TLE.</p> <p>6. Achievement, no significant differences between learning environments</p>
Mittag, Bieg, Hiller & Melenk, 2009)	Experimental study the benefits of autonomy supportive classroom on German language classes.	<p>353 German Eight grade-students from 20 schools (50% male/female) Average age was 13.6 years (range of 12 - 17 years old).</p> <p>Researchers reported no significant difference caused by the high attrition rate.</p>	<p>Two conditions:</p> <p>1. Autonomy supportive (experimental group)</p> <p>2. Teacher directed (Control condition, which included nine classes of 165 students)</p> <p>353completed all time points (out of 467 students)</p> <p>Each group received 12-13 lessons over a four week period.</p>	<p>Measures</p> <p>Academic Pre and post intervention learning tests for each session.</p> <p>Self-report questionnaires Autonomy support in the classroom (modified Scale by Röder & Small, 2003)</p> <p>Care (abbreviated version by v. Saldern and Littig, 1987)</p> <p>Love of Learning (Laukemann, Glasses-Zikuda, Mayring & of</p>	<p>1. In comparison with the control group, the treatment group showed positive effects on teachers' care, students' attitude toward learning and intrinsic motivation.</p> <p>2. The most positive effects for students' perceived autonomy support and achievement. were found in high school (Gymnasium), whereas negative treatment effects on students' achievement were partially found in junior high school (Realschule) and secondary school (Hauptschule) This may have something to do with the type of school the student attends, teachers decide which school the student attends at primary age and students may not necessarily want to be there.</p>

			<p>Conducted by teacher and researchers.</p> <p>Lessons based on grammar.</p>	<p>von Rhöneck, 2003)</p> <p>motivational Regulation (external, introjected, identified and intrinsic) according to Ryan and Connell (1989)</p>	
Grolnick and Ryan (1987)		91 American fifth-grade students (43 boys and 48 girls)	<p>3 randomly assigned children were randomly assigned by subject number and sex to one of three conditions. Non-controlling-directed (N = 31), controlling-directed (N = 31), or non-directed (N = 29)</p> <p>1 undirected and 2 controlled teaching condition</p> <p>2 sessions in total. 1. Individually Read a text and rate interest/ enjoyment and sense of pressure. Assigned a condition and asked to read and rate the exercise. Then asked to recall as much of the text as possible. Then had their vocabulary rated using the WISC.</p> <p>Session 2. (8 days later) As</p>	<p>Self-régulation Questionnaire (Connell & Ryan, 1985)</p> <p>ANOVA statistical analysis</p>	<p>1. The two groups that were directed to learn the reading material demonstrated better mastery of rote learning than the non-directed group both immediately and one week later.</p> <p>2. The non-directed and the non-controlling-directed groups both demonstrated better conceptual learning at both times of assessment than the controlling-directed group.</p> <p>3. Autonomous group reported feeling less pressure and more interest and enjoyment in the reading task and assessments and were more likely to expressing willingness to engage in a similar task in the future than children in the other groups.</p> <p>4. A greater sense of being self-determined was associated with greater conceptual learning across conditions.</p>

			a group students asked to recall text and scored the SRQ.		
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Appendix D. Literature Review Qualitative Studies

Study Reference	Study Design Qualitative	Target Sample	Intervention	Outcome Measures	Key Results
Sweet, A. P., Guthrie, J. T., & Ng, M. M. (1998)	Qualitative study of teachers' view of reading motivation	Six American primary school teachers rated reading motivation of one of their students (grades 3-6).		Teachers viewed a video of the selected student prior to interview. 4 multi-part question interview schedule based on video. Same researcher for all interviews.	1. Teacher interview themes were similar to findings from questionnaire. 2. Teacher perceptions of IM positively associated with academic achievement. As was integrated Motivation (which is high for primary school age). 3. Teacher autonomy support increase student SD and reading achievement. 4. High achieving and IM students required less EM compared with lower achieving students, who required greater EM 5. Cooperative learning did not increase student motivation. (qual and quant evidence) 6. Student achievement was related with student motivation
Autio, O., Hietanoro, J., & Ruismäki, H. (2011).	Qualitative study measuring What motivates comprehensive school students to engage in technology education?	Four 15 to 16-year-old Finnish secondary school students. Two boys, two girls. Two in ET and two not in ET.	Both groups included one student who was interested in technology and one who was not interested in any area of technology education.	Measure Interviews	1. A sense of autonomy was the main motivating factor for students engagement. Particularly for older students. 2. The classroom environment, in particular a well-resourced one, able to provide optimal challenge was an important motivational factor.

					<p>3. Relatedness in the classroom was also an important motivating factor.</p> <p>4. Students engaging in ET already IM to engage in that lesson.</p>
Busse, V., & Walter, C. (2013).	Longitudinal mixed-methods study quantitative and qualitative Longitudinal study of motivational changes in university students and their causes	12 participants, 3 male and 3 females from each university.	Limitations: small scale study, only 2 Universities. Specific sample.	Semi-structured interviews (Each participant had 5 interviews in total).	<p>1. Students identified the importance of the learning environment in their motivational changes. (i.e. confidence, enjoyment, and engagement and achievement).</p> <p>2. Students who experienced a negative learning environment identified a lack of intellectual challenge and mastery focus, they also experienced a low level of relatedness with tutors impacted on their motivation and spent less time on language tasks, in comparison practical tasks.</p>

Appendix E. Web of Science studies excluded from literature review.

Reference	Reason for Exclusion
Evans, P. (2015). Self-determination theory: An approach to motivation in music education. <i>Musicae Scientiae</i> , 19(1), 65-83.	Theory based paper
Kusurkar, R., & Croiset, G. (2014). Electives support autonomy and autonomous motivation in undergraduate medical education. <i>Medical teacher</i> , 36(10), 915-916.	A letter
RYAN, R. M., & DECI, E. L. (2013). Toward a Social Psychology of Assimilation: Self-Determination Theory in Cognitive. <i>Self-regulation and autonomy: Social and developmental dimensions of human conduct</i> , 40, 191.	Not an original study
Kusurkar, R. A., Croiset, G., Mann, K. V., Custers, E., & ten Cate, O. (2012). Have motivation theories guided the development and reform of medical education curricula? A review of the literature. <i>Academic Medicine</i> , 87(6), 735-743.	Not an original study
Elliott, S. W., & Hout, M. (Eds.). (2011). <i>Incentives and test-based accountability in education</i> . National Academies Press.	Preface
Ten Cate ThJ, P. U., Kusurkar, R. A., & Williams, G. C. (2012). How Self-Determination Theory can assist our understanding of the teaching and learning processes in medical education. <i>Motivation in medical students</i> , 253.	Not an original study
Kusurkar, R. A., Ten Cate, T. J., Van Asperen, M., & Croiset, G. (2011). Motivation as an independent and a dependent variable in medical education: a review of the literature. <i>Medical teacher</i> , 33(5), e242-e262.	Not an original study
Lau, K. W. (2009). Creativity training in higher design education. <i>The Design Journal</i> , 12(2), 153-169.	Not an original study
Guay, F., Ratelle, C. F., & Chanal, J. (2008). Optimal learning in optimal contexts: The role of self-determination in education. <i>Canadian Psychology/Psychologie canadienne</i> , 49(3), 233.	Not an original study
Bråten, I., & Strømsø, H. I. (2008). Job Values in Professional Education: The role of achievement goals. <i>Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research</i> , 52(3), 259-277.	Not an original study
Deci, E. L., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R. M. (2001). Extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation in education: Reconsidered once again. <i>Review of educational research</i> , 71(1), 1-27.	Not an original study
Deci, E. L. (1994) Self-Determination Theory and Education. <i>Ceskoslovenska Psychologie</i> . 38(5). 420-426.	Not an original study

Confirmation of ethical approval

8th February, 2016

Submission Number 18895:

Submission Title What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of managed moves? (Amendment 2):

The Research Governance Office has reviewed and approved your submission

You can begin your research unless you are still awaiting specific Health and Safety approval (e.g. for a Genetic or Biological Materials Risk Assessment) or external ethics review (e.g. NRES).The following comments have been made:

ERGO : Ethics and Research Governance Online

<http://www.ergo.soton.ac.uk>

Appendix G. Head Teacher Information Sheet

Information Sheet

Study title: What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of managed moves?

Dear Head-teacher,

I am writing to invite your school to take part in a Doctorate research project supported by and in partnership with the University of Southampton. I am a trainee Educational Psychologist, in the final year of my Doctorate training. For my Doctorate thesis, I am exploring secondary school students' experience of managed move and investigating the role of self-determination in the managed move process. The title is "What is the relationship between self-determination and managed moves?"

The aim of the study

Research has shown that the consequences of permanent exclusion from school can be negative for young people. This makes managed moves a worthwhile, preventative measure that can give young people a fresh start prior to problems escalating. Although a significant number of managed moves occur across the school year, there is little research evidence on managed moves from the young person's perspective. The aim of my research will be to illuminate how the managed move process feels for the young person involved, the extent to which they experience self-determination and the factors they identify as being important to the managed move process. I need support from schools to conduct interviews with students who have experienced a managed move in recent years and have agreed to take part in the study.

Participation Criteria

This study is looking for students that have experienced a managed move at least one school term prior to the start of data collection for this study and no more than one academic year earlier. Students who are currently going through the managed move process, have been permanently excluded, or left education will not be considered for this study. Students that have failed their managed move but have not been permanently excluded will be included in the study.

What will happen if my school takes part?

If you agree to take part I will require your support to identify students in your school who meet the inclusion criteria and to contact the parents of these students with the information and consent sheets, provided by the researcher. Names of those students who agree to take part in the study

should be given to the Manager for Pupil Services, who will pass the names on to the researcher. I would also appreciate your permission to interview these students in your school.

Who will have access to the research records?

All information collected in this research will remain strictly confidential and will be compliant with the Data Protection Act (1998). All data from interviewees will be collected anonymously. Findings will be summarised and disseminated throughout the County Council, with the aim of informing professionals as to how to ensure the best outcomes in undertaking managed moves.

If you require further information, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours sincerely

Patrick Mahon

Trainee Educational Psychologist

Southampton University

E-mail: pm1g13@soton.ac.uk

Appendix H. Parent Information Sheet

Information Sheet

Study title: What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of managed moves?

Dear Parent/Carer

I am a Trainee Educational Psychologist studying at the University of Southampton. I am carrying out research as part of my Doctorate looking into young people's views and experiences of 'managed moves'. I have identified a significant lack of research in this area and would like to examine the perspectives of young people who have experienced managed moves and bring these to the fore of current thinking.

I understand that your child has experienced a managed move in the past year and hope to be able to explore their experience to gain an understanding of its impact on their life.

The aims of the study

- To provide an opportunity for your child to discuss their experience of a managed move in a safe, confidential environment
- To explore your child's understanding of the purpose of a managed move, and the extent to which they feel that this purpose was achieved
- To discuss any positive and negative aspects of their experience and what factors contributed to making the managed move successful, or unsuccessful in their eyes.

I would like to request your permission to interview your child to discuss the above areas. The interviews would be conducted in their school and would take no longer than 50 minutes depending on how much information they would like to share. Please be assured that all information gathered during interviews would be kept confidential, and would only be accessible to myself. Please also note that should the research be published, your child's data would be anonymised.

What to do next

If you consent to your child taking part please sign the enclosed consent form and return to school. If you have any questions regarding the research please do not hesitate to contact Patrick Mahon

at pm1g13@soton.ac.uk. Alternatively if you have any concerns please contact research Supervisors Sarah Wright (S.F.Wright@soton.ac.uk) or Hanna Kovshoff (H.Kovshoff@soton.ac.uk). To confirm whether you would be happy for your child to participate in the research, please complete the consent forms attached, to indicate whether you wish to give permission for your child to be interviewed.

What happens if something goes wrong?

If you feel something has gone wrong or you have a concern about the study, you may contact the Chair of the Ethics Committee, Psychology, University of Southampton, Southampton, SO17 1BJ. Phone: (023) 8059 3856; Email: fshs-rso@soton.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

Trainee Educational Psychologist

University of Southampton

Appendix I. Parent Consent Form

PARENT CONSENT FORM

**Study title: What is the relationship between self-determination
and the process of managed moves?**

Researcher name: Patrick Mahon

Ethics reference: 16087

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (version 1.0;
24/09/15) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the
study.

☐

I agree to my child taking part in this research project and agree for their
information to be used for the purpose of this study.

☐

I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw my
consent at any time.

☐

Data Protection

*I understand that information collected about my child during their participation in this study will be
stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the
purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.*

Name of Parent (print name).....

Signature of parent

Date.....

Appendix J. Participant Information Sheet

Study Title: What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of managed moves?

Participant Information Sheet

Researcher: Patrick Mahon, Trainee Educational Psychologist

I am asking if you would like to take part in a research project to find out about your managed move. I would like to find out how you felt about it and what was good or bad about the move. Before you decide if you want to join in, it is important to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve for you. So please consider this leaflet carefully.

Why am I doing this research?

I am trying to find out what things make a good managed move so that I can help other young people in their managed move.

Why have I been invited to take part?

You have been invited to join the study because are in secondary school and you have experienced a managed move.

Do I have to take part?

No, it is up to you. Before you make this decision, you can ask the researcher to answer any questions that you might have. I have already sent an information sheet to your parent or guardian and they have told us that they are happy for you to take part. But the final decision about taking part is up to you. If you think you might want to take part you can fill out the form attached to this information sheet. You will be given a copy of this information sheet to keep. If you agree to take part, you can stop at any time, without giving a reason.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you decide to take part, I will arrange a time to meet with you at your school to talk about your managed move. I will ask you some questions about what went well, what helped you and what could improve a managed move. This will take place in a quiet room in your school and will last about 45 minutes depending on how much you would like to share. The interview will be recorded.



Will anybody know what I have said?

No one will know what you have said except for the researcher. I will write out your interview and delete the recording. I will not use any names to do with you or your school when I write it. This means no one will know which parts you have said.

What are the benefits of taking part?

You will get an opportunity to share your views on your experience of a managed move.

Hopefully I can use this information to help other young people in their managed moves.

What happens when the study is finished?

When the study is finished I will write up the interviews and look at the information from all the young people I talk to. The anonymised information will be shared with other schools and researchers so they can learn more about managed moves. I will never publish your name or any other information that will let people know who you are. I can also send you a short booklet to tell you what I have found out and how this might be useful if you would like me to.

What if there's a problem or something goes wrong?

There are very few risks involved in taking part in this study and it is unlikely that there will be a problem. If you are worried about anything and you decide you want to stop that's OK.

Will anyone else know that I'm doing this?

I will keep all the information you share in confidence. This means that I will only tell those who have a need or a right to know. Wherever possible I will only send out information that has your name removed.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The research is organised through the School of Psychology in the University of Southampton.

Who has reviewed this study?

The study has been reviewed by the ethics committee at the University of Southampton who make sure that the research is fair - they are happy that this research is ethical and safe.

What happens if I want to find out more?

You can ask me any questions you have now or you can contact Patrick Mahon (pm1g13@soton.ac.uk) at the School of Psychology, University of Southampton.

What happens if I find some of the questions you ask upsetting?

If you need any advice or help on how you feel after you have finished the interview you can speak to a number of different people. This could be someone you know, like your parent or guardian or a teacher from your school.

You can also get support from outside the school by ringing a helpline, such as Childline: People on Childline will talk to you about any worries you might have and they will keep every conversation you have with them confidential. You can speak to someone on Childline by calling 0800 1111. There are other ways of contacting childline. You can find out further information online at: <http://www.childline.org.uk/>



Appendix K. Participant Consent Form

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

**Study title: What is the relationship between self-determination
and the process of managed moves?**

Researcher name: Patrick Mahon

Ethics reference: 16087

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (1.0; 24/09/15) and
have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

☐

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my information
to be used for the purpose of this study.

☐

I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw my consent
at any time.

☐

Data Protection

*I understand that information collected about my child during their participation in this study will be
stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the
purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.*

Name of Participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Date.....

Managed Move Interview Schedule

Questions and Probes

General Introduction

I am a Trainee Educational Psychologist from the University of Southampton and I am meeting with young people to find out about their experiences of managed move so that I can use the information to help other young people in their managed move.

I would like to talk to you about your experience of being involved in a planned move and your impressions of the effect it may have had on you.

The information sheet will explain the study in more detail and what happens with any information you share as part of the study. Please let me know if you have any further questions.

(After the student has read the information sheet and had an opportunity to ask any questions)

If you are happy to go ahead please read and sign the consent form. Any information you share that is used in the study will remain anonymous.

If at any point you wish to withdraw from the study you are free to do so.

This study is not intended to cause any upset but if it should please contact (identified school contact) or me on the details provided on the information sheet.

Rapport building questions

1. How has your day been so far?

Interviewer

Notes

General
Introduction. I
want to explore
the students'
experience of
managed moves.

Main Questions (including informal floating prompts: Leach, 2002).

1. What does the term 'managed move' mean to you? **
2. Is this your first managed move?
3. What led to the managed move and what was your role in the move?
4. Did you feel your school supported you prior to the managed move? **
(Probe: learning, emotional, behaviour, outside services.
Positive, What was helpful?
Negative, what would have helped?)
5. Could you describe how the decision about your managed move was made?
(Probe: Who first mentioned it? Did you have a choice of school? What role did you/your family play in the process?
How did you feel about this?)
6. Could you describe how you felt about leaving (original school) and what happened next?
(Probe: Time out of education, alternative education provision, Support provided).
7. What happened when you started at this school? **
(Probe: Welcomed/meeting/targets/integration strategies)
8. Do you have someone in this school you can go to if you have a problem?
(Probe: Pastoral/teachers/peers) Extension: How were they identified?
9. Does having someone like that help you to feel listened to?
10. Tell me what you like/dislike about this school?
11. What did you like/dislike in your previous school?
(Probe: Learning, adults, peers, options).
12. How would you describe your experience in lessons now?
(Probe: Supportive, controlling, choice, challenging, rewards, expectations)
13. What was your experience in lessons like in the school you moved from?
**
(Probe: Supportive, controlling, choice, challenging, rewards, expectations)
14. What was your experience in lessons like in the school you moved from?
**
(Probe: Supportive, controlling, choice, challenging, rewards, expectations)

The term managed move may be substituted in subsequent questions, to the term used by that participant's school to explain the process.

These questions explore the student's understanding and experience of the managed move and particularly their role in the process.

These questions explore the student's experience of their new school and their sense of relatedness, in comparison to their previous school

Aspects of Q11, Q12 and Q13 may overlap.

15. Has the managed move affected your relationships? **
(Probe: Friendships, family, peers)
16. Has the managed move affected your schoolwork? **
(Probe: Better, worse, persistence, accept new challenges/feedback, future prospects)
17. Has the managed move affected how you are in school? **
(Probe: behaviour, motivation, follow rules, on task)
18. Do you feel understood/respected at school? **
(Probe: How does this compare to your previous school)
19. Do you have any responsibilities or extracurricular activities at this school?
(Probe: Compared to previous school)
20. How do you feel about school/learning? **
(Prompt: accepted/respected. Extension: how does this compare with previous school)
21. What has worked well and what could have been improved about your managed move?
22. How would you describe your experience overall?
(Probe: Positive, negative, successful, unsuccessful)
23. Is there anything else that we haven't talked about today about your experience of your managed move that you think is important for me to know?
24. What advice would you give a friend who was about to go through a managed move?

We want to explore the effect the managed move has had on the student both at present and their future prospects.

We want to explore the impact, both positive and negative, of the managed move, on the student's motivation to engage in the school environment.

* Key word prompts in brackets

** This question also relates to other aspects of Self-Determination.

Appendix M. Debrief Sheet

Debrief Sheet

Study title: What is the relationship between self-determination and the process of managed moves?

The aim of this research was to find out about your views and experiences of 'managed moves'.

Your information will be used to help other young people in their managed move.

Any information used in this study will be done anonymously and will not include your name or any other identifying characteristics.

Please let the researcher know if you wish to have a summary of the research findings once the study is completed.

If you have any concerns or should wish to speak to someone about the study please contact the identified member of staff at your school.

If you have any further questions or wish to meet with a member of the research team please contact me, Patrick Mahon, at pm1q13@soton.ac.uk.

Thank you for your participation in this research.

Signature _____ Date _____

If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this research, or if you feel that you have been placed at risk, you may contact the Chair of the Ethics Committee, Psychology, University of Southampton, Southampton, SO17 1BJ. Phone: (023) 8059 3856; Email: fshs-rso@soton.ac.

Appendix N. IPA Data Analysis Process and Reflections

1. Familiarisation with the data.

In order to ensure that themes remained true to the young person's experience extra steps were taken to immerse myself in the data. I read and re-read the transcripts several times to develop familiarity with the data before proceeding to code it. I also listened to audio of the interview and read their transcript at the same time. I made initial notes/comments on nuances, such as emphasis on particular words and phrases, changes in mood/emotion at particular moments during the interview process. Prior to reading each transcript I reviewed my reflective diary notes from that interview to highlight any concerns I had raised at the time of the interview. These concerns could be around my use of prompts, participant responses to questions, any changes in the tone of the interview etc.

2. Phenomenological Coding

I then chunked the transcripts in units of meaning.

3. Interpretive coding

I then examined the data for patterns, contradictions, metaphors and other insights into what each data unit meant for the participant.

4. Identification of Themes

I then documented the emerging themes in the other column. These themes consisted of psychological interpretation. Phrases were noted to evidence findings.

5. Clustering Themes

Themes were listed chronologically on a separate page and then ordered/clustered together as subordinate concepts and were checked against the text. A table of themes was developed, accompanied by the identified subordinate themes. Participant page and appropriate line number was used as an identifier for each theme.

As the themes that emerged at this stage of coding Participant One, Kevin's interview strongly reflected self-determination themes I ceased coding and sought out supervision to reflect on my analysis of transcripts to ensure I was practicing in an unbiased manner.

6. Supervision/Review

The emerging themes of self-determination and motivation were discussed with my placement supervisor to ensure I was achieving "epoche", or bracketing (Landridge, 2007) and I was being non-judgemental, or unbiased in my analysis.

While supervision helped confirm the accuracy of the emerging themes from my data analysis, it

also highlighted the need for extra measures to be taken to ensure the transparency of my coding.

Steps identified in supervision to ensure transparency included:

- A strong narrative context and participant quotes were reported with each theme in the results section to evidence that themes were true to participant's experience.
- Table of themes drawn up with quotes from all participants for each theme. (See Appendix P)
- The number of times themes were mentioned by each participant, both positively and negatively was recorded at each stage of the managed move process. (See Appendix Q).
- Regular reflection on thesis analysis in supervision.

I then recoded Participant One's transcript from the beginning and compared the new analysis with my original analysis.

I repeated these steps with the other two participants' data.

Integrative Analysis

I then compared themes across cases. Transcripts were reviewed again with any new themes that came out of the other participants' transcripts. A table of superordinate themes was compiled and reduced

Constructing a Narrative

While IPA allows the researcher to apply a level of analysis to the data, given that this was a theory led piece of research, I also provided a rich narrative of the participants' experience in the results section based directly on the participants' own words. I did this to limit bias and provide the reader with a clear context to support any analysis I made.

Appendix O. IPA Sample of Initial Exploratory Transcript Comments

175. P: Yeah
 176. I: Do you have someone in the school who you can go
 177. to if you have a problem?
 178. P: Yeah
 179. I: Who are they?
 180. P: My head of year, I'll go speak to her whenever if
 181. I've got problems or anything and there's a few other
 182. Teachers that I wouldn't mind talking to for example if
 183. she was out, I wouldn't mind just going there and
 184. talking to them and there was a teacher from my old
 185. school, she moved here a couple of months before I
 186. did and so where I knew her before I kind of trust her
 187. more
 188. I: Did you get on with her in your old school?
 189. P: Yeah
 190. I: Did you decide who those people are or were they
 191. identified by the school?
 192. P: We did have another head of year and I would talk
 193. to her but I don't know I wouldn't really go there if you
 194. know what I mean because we weren't really, I don't
 195. know, we got a new head of year because she left and
 196. I feel like I can talk to her more than the other one.
 197. I: Right, can you tell me what you like about this
 198. school?
 199. P: They are really friendly and they are really
 200. supportive
 201. I: Adults as well as children?
 202. P: Yeah, mostly adults because if you're feeling upset
 203. or something there will always be a teacher there
 204. asking if you're alright or something
 205. I: So you don't even have to go to them sometimes?
 206. P: I'll be walking down the corridor the Headteacher,
 207. she'll be like "are you ok" and I'm like "yeah" and then
 208. she knows if I'm upset, she knows if anyone's upset
 209. and she'll just talk to them for a bit. The other day I was
 210. upset and she was asking me if I was ok and that, and
 211. then it was lunchtime when she saw me again and she
 212. was asking me if I felt better and that. So it makes you
 213. feel cosy
 214. I: A nice feeling. What are the things you dislike about
 215. this school?
 216. P: Some people, because they can be really horrible
 217. but then the teachers do do things about it
 218. I: Is that the only thing?

Adult Relatedness
 — seeks help
 — lots of support
 — different roles
 — connection with previous school

Personal Choice?
 —

Relatedness
 —

Positive & Negative
 — needs trust/ to build relationship

Relatedness Support
 — emotional support
 — Always an adult to talk to not a peer?

Relatedness
 — understands/ knows pupils

Positive Wellbeing
 — thought of by significant adult

Negative Relatedness/ wellbeing
 — pupils?
 — Effective support

Appendix P. Table of Master and subordinate themes and accompanying quotes

Master Themes	Sub-ordinate Themes	Kevin	Phillip	Lacey
Self-Determination	Autonomy	"I think it's been positive, because I've gone to a negative place and taken myself out of it and put myself in a positive"	in the first week I didn't have a clue where anything was so I was just following him" (136-139)	"Because it's much quieter out of lesson then inside lesson so I can actually get on with it". (292-293)
	Competence	I've grown up ... Realising I was so naughty and I needed to do something about it (273-276)	"I: What helped you in that first week? P: Probably following that person round because he was helping because in the first week I didn't have a clue where anything was so I was just following him" (136-139)	Where it's now more options maybe that also kind of it affects my ways towards the lessons, because where I have my options what I actually want to do (259-262)
	Relatedness	"I like that all my friends are here and I can talk to them and stuff, that's good". "Because I had never been there before and I just didn't belong. belonged here". (303-304)	"If I'm finding it hard I can just go and talk to them more". (255-256)	"just her asking us how we learn, she wants us to do better so by her asking that kind of, they are really supportive and that". (246-254)
Motivation	Intrinsic	"Yeah and I realised I was good at it (cooking) and I enjoyed it. I want to try and make a career out of it". (370-371)	"It's much more enjoyable, fun and I prefer it here" (351)	"Where I have my options what I actually want to do I kind of, and teachers know that you actually like that subject because they like that subject and they know that you like it as well, you have more of a bond, between you". (259-264)
	Extrinsic	What I don't like is that I have teachers that know what I have done and always keep an eye on me (251-252)	"I was on report a lot"	I'd be doing so much work in an assessment (307)
	Amotivation	I didn't want to do it because all of my friends are all here and I've known them for ages and then I just couldn't be bothered to make new friends	"At that point it was boring because I was at home just doing the same work". (84-85)	N/A

Appendices

Impact of MM/SD	Self-Concept	I don't know, I think teachers are starting to see what I actually can do and not the bad me	"they will talk to me as a normal person" (368-369)	"get really angry even though there was nothing to get angry about because I am always like that". (377-379)
	Well Being	I don't know why I did. I will regret it for the rest of my life	"I was a little nervous just on meeting new people" (134)	I would get annoyed with people like shouting and screaming or something because in lessons when they're talking and I'd be angry (373-376)
	Learning Behaviour	"It's probably been better, I'm concentrating more now".	"It's much more better because now I just get on with my work without getting in trouble, talking too much" (203-204) "I find history hard but if I need help I just put my hand up and the teacher will come and help me". (295-297)	"the teachers are like "oh yeah you can do it" even when I'm just there like, I know I can't, I'll still carry on doing it". (358-360)
	Aspiration	"Be a chef... Because I just love cooking" (339-341)	"I want to be an engineer or Mechanic.... Yeah doing construction" (230-231)	"I'm going for prefect, I'm going for head girl"
	Academic Achievement	"When I got back and started doing catering..... Yeah and I realised I was good at it" (363-365)	"It's neater, I do a lot more quality of it" (292)	"I think I'm a bit quieter. I don't know, in lessons I do concentrate more"(390-391)

Appendix Q. Table of Themes and Times Mentioned by Participants.

Master Themes	Sub-ordinate Themes	Category Theme	Kevin	Phillip	Lacey
Self-Determination	Autonomy	Experience of Autonomy before MM	0	1	1
		Lack of Autonomy before MM	2	0	2
		Experience of Autonomy during MM process	1	1	5
		Lack of Autonomy during MM process	6	1	0
		Experience of Autonomy after MM	1	5	2
		Lack of Autonomy after MM	0	2	0
		Experience of Autonomy Support before MM	1	0	0
		Lack of Autonomy Support before MM	0	2	0
		Experience of Autonomy Support after MM	3	6	9
		Lack of Autonomy Support after MM	1	1	0
	Competence	Experience of Competence before MM	1	2	1
		Lack of Competence before MM	0	1	2
		Experience of Competence during MM	5	1	0
		Lack of Competence during MM	3	1	0
		Experience of Competence after MM	7	4	8
		Lack of Competence after MM	0	1	0
	Relatedness	Teacher Positive Before MM	0	0	4

		Teacher Negative During MM	1	3	4
		Teacher Positive After MM	3	9	6
		Teacher Negative After MM	2	0	0
		Other School Staff Positive Before MM	1	0	0
		Other School Staff Negative Before MM	1	1	0
		Other School Staff Positive During MM	4	0	3
		Other School Staff Negative During MM	1	0	0
		Other School Staff Positive After MM	2	5	8
		Other School Staff Negative After MM	0	0	2
		Peer Positive Before MM	2	1	1
		Peer Negative Before MM	3	0	0
		Peer Positive After MM	7	4	5
		Peer Negative After MM	0	0	3
		Parent Positive During MM	5	2	2
		Parent Negative During MM	3	3	0
		Parent Positive After MM	0	2	0
		Parent Negative After MM	0	0	0
	School Belonging	Pre-MM Positive	2	2	1
		Pre-MM Negative	5	1	3
		Post-MM Positive	2	5	6
		Post-MM Negative	0	1	0
Motivation	Intrinsic	Before MM	0	0	0

		During MM	0	1	3
		After MM	5	4	6
	Extrinsic	Before MM	0	2	2
		During MM	1	0	2
		After MM	3	4	5
	Amotivation	Before MM	0	1	1
		During MM	6	2	0
		After MM	0	0	0
Impact Following MM/SD	Self-Concept	Positive self-concept before MM	0	0	0
		Negative self-concept before MM	2	0	5
		positive self-concept after MM	4	0	3
		Negative self-concept after MM	1	0	0
	Well Being	Positive Well Being Before MM	0	1	0
		Negative Well Being Before MM	2	5	6
		Positive Well Being After MM	5	3	8
		Negative Well Being After MM	0	0	3
	Engagement	Engagement Before MM	2	2	1
		Lack of engagement before MM	1	1	1
		Engagement with MM process	1	1	1
		Lack of engagement with MM process	5	0	0
		Engagement After MM	2	6	8

Appendices

		Lack of engagement after MM	0	0	0
	Aspiration	Before MM	0	0	0
		After MM	2	2	2
	Learning Behaviour	Positive Learning Behaviour Before MM	1	1	0
		Negative Learning Behaviour Before MM	5	1	1
		Positive Learning Behaviour After MM	7	6	8
		Negative Learning Behaviour After MM	1	0	0
	Academic Achievement	Experience of Before MM	0	0	0
		Lack of before MM	0	1	0
		Experience of After MM	3	1	3
		Lack of after MM	0	0	0

