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POST PRINT VERSION

10 **A cross-cultural examination of the role of (de-)motivating teaching styles in predicting**
11 **students' basic psychological needs in physical education: A circumplex approach**

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Abstract

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Purpose: Guided by self-determination theory, this research examined cross-cultural differences in associations of students' perceptions of teachers' (de-)motivating approaches on Estonian and Spanish students' need satisfaction from a circumplex model. **Method:** The participants were 601 Estonian (56% girls) and 669 Spanish (52% girls) secondary students. **Results:** Multi-group single-indicator structural equation modelling analysis revealed that participative, attuning, guiding, clarifying, and demanding predicted the satisfaction of each basic psychological need (BPN), according to the Estonian and Spanish students' perspective. Domineering approach negatively predicted autonomy satisfaction in the eyes of Estonian students, while abandoning approach predicted the satisfaction of each BPN negatively as perceived by Estonian and Spanish students. **Conclusion:** Results underscore the cross-cultural relevance in explaining the role of teachers' (de-)motivating approaches in the eyes of students, supporting/undermining students' need satisfaction in physical education. Hence, these findings set the scene for development of effective guidance for teaching training adapted to culture, aimed at providing teachers with the strategies they need to apply the most optimal motivating teaching styles in their PE lessons.

Keywords: circumplex model; need-supportive teaching; need-thwarting teaching;

basic psychological needs.

31 **Introduction**

32 One of the main curricular goals for physical education (PE) is to develop physically
33 literate students who are able to demonstrate both positive peer interactions, and autonomy
34 and competence in a wide array of motor activities and movement patterns (SHAPE
35 America—Society of Health and Physical Educators, 2014). A substantial basis of research on
36 PE has evidenced that teachers take a central position in the social classroom environment to
37 guide students in their learning process (Vasconcellos et al., 2020). Building upon self-
38 determination theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2017), Aelterman et al. (2019) forwarded a more
39 fine-grained conceptualization of (de-)motivating teaching styles by differentiating among
40 eight approaches that draw a circular structure in terms of teacher directiveness and need-
41 supportiveness. Although the circumplex model represents a meaningful advance in the study
42 of PE teachers' (de-)motivating practices (Escriva-Boulley et al., 2021), very little is,
43 currently, known about the influence of students' perceptions of eight (de-)motivating
44 teaching approaches on their psychological experiences in PE. Furthermore, it is important to
45 deem the premise that PE may vary across countries due to the cultural characteristics and
46 their own variability (Walton-Fisette et al., 2018). Therefore, there is a need to investigate
47 whether the cross-cultural differences influence how students' perceptions of (de)motivating
48 approaches from the teacher might yield specific motivational outcomes. To overcome this
49 existing cross-cultural gap and to extend evidence on the circumplex model in PE, this study
50 aimed to test cross-cultural differences in the associations of Spanish and Estonian students'
51 perceptions of (de-)motivating approaches from PE teachers with their satisfaction of the
52 three basic psychological needs (BPN).

53 **From demotivating to motivating teaching styles: the Circumplex model**

54 (De-)motivating styles are the particular way in which the teacher interacts, relates,
55 and communicates with students during classroom practice. Following the circumplex model

56 (Aelterman et al., 2019; Escriva-Boulley et al., 2021), the level of directiveness (i.e., the
57 degree in which the teacher takes the lead in student learning) and need-supportiveness (i.e.,
58 the degree to which the teacher supports or thwarts BPN) are used to interact with the
59 students. Considering intersections among two dimensions, two motivating and two
60 demotivating styles are differentiated (see Figure 1) (Aelterman et al., 2019).

61 <PLEASE, INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE>

62 Under the circumplex model, Aelterman et al. (2019) propose that autonomy support
63 and structure are identified as motivating styles inasmuch as both are need-supportive and
64 qualitatively different given that the first is low in teacher directiveness and the second is
65 high on this dimension. Autonomy-supportive style (i.e., the teacher understands students'
66 interests and preferences) can be expressed in participative and attuning approaches.
67 Particularly, a participative teaching approach wants to find out students' personal interests to
68 open a dialogue and invite them to make suggestions and comments. An attuning teaching
69 approach tries to identify different choices for more attractive and enjoyable tasks, allowing
70 students to work at their own pace (Aelterman et al., 2019). Structuring style (i.e., the teacher
71 provides students with suitable assignments to their abilities level to facilitate their perceived
72 competence in classroom) can be expressed through guiding and clarifying approaches. A
73 guiding teaching approach assists students to progress through the provision of help when
74 needed, the decomposition step by step for the task accomplishment, so students can continue
75 learning on their own. A clarifying teaching approach provides an overview of the students'
76 expectations of the lesson, as well as communicates guidelines in a clear and transparent way
77 to guide their learning (Aelterman et al., 2019).

78 The other half of the circumflex stands two demotivating styles, which are need-
79 thwarting but qualitatively different as control is high in directiveness and chaos is low on
80 this dimension (Aelterman et al., 2019). A controlling style (i.e., the teacher obliges students

81 to adopt his/her viewpoint to behave in classroom) can be adopted by demanding and
82 domineering approaches. A demanding teaching approach imposes discipline on students by
83 using coercive and commanding language to make it clear what students must do and not
84 tolerating any disagreement. A domineering teaching approach exerts their power on students
85 to make demands, inducing feelings of guilt and shame, if they do not follow his/her
86 commands. It turns into a personal attack on students in some situations (Aelterman et al.,
87 2019). Finally, a chaotic style (i.e., the teacher leaves students alone, making it confusing for
88 them to find out without help what to do and how to behave) can be differentiated into
89 abandoning and awaiting approaches. An abandoning teaching approach takes no
90 responsibility for students, as well as allowing them to learn to take responsibility for their
91 own behavior. An awaiting teaching approach gives all the initiative to students, so the
92 teacher does not make often the lesson plans because he/she prefers to wait to see how things
93 develop (Aelterman et al., 2019).

94 **(De-)motivating styles and need satisfaction in physical education**

95 SDT-based research on PE has well documented that the students' satisfaction of the
96 BPN for autonomy (i.e., sense of initiative and choice for the task development), competence
97 (i.e., sense of effectiveness and mastery in the ongoing task accomplishment), and relatedness
98 (i.e., sense of belonging and connection with classmates in the PE lesson) led to a wide range
99 of adaptive learning outcomes (Vasconcellos et al., 2020). In the PE lesson, teachers, via their
100 (de-)motivating teaching style, have a central position within the social classroom
101 environment which allow them either to support or thwart students' need satisfaction
102 (Vasconcellos et al., 2020).

103 Previous PE research has shown the tendency that the students' perception of
104 motivating styles (i.e., autonomy-supportive and structuring styles) were positively associated
105 with their need satisfaction and adaptive outcomes (Vasconcellos et al., 2020). More

106 particularly, perceived autonomy-supportive and structuring teaching styles were positively
107 associated with the students' satisfaction of the three BPN, albeit emphasizing that autonomy-
108 supportive style was more strongly related to autonomy satisfaction just as structuring style
109 was more highly associated with competence satisfaction among students (Curran &
110 Standage, 2017; Vasconcellos et al., 2020). While evidence on motivating styles is consistent
111 in the PE setting, the small basis of research examining perceived demotivating styles (i.e.,
112 control and chaos) reported inconsistent results in PE. Concerning control, although much of
113 the previous PE research found negative associations of perceived controlling style from the
114 teacher with autonomy, competence and relatedness satisfaction in the eyes of students (e.g.,
115 Burgueño et al., 2022; Leo et al., 2022; Vasconcellos et al., 2020), fewer studies also revealed
116 non-significant relationships between students' perceptions of controlling teaching style and
117 their need satisfaction in PE (Behzadnia et al., 2018; Cronin et al., 2019; Tilga et al., 2020).
118 Regarding chaos, little research to date found negative associations of the students' perception
119 of chaotic teaching style with their satisfaction of the three BPNs, albeit some studies reported
120 a non-significant relationship between both variables (Burgueño & Medina-Casabón, 2021;
121 Leo et al., 2022). More research is, thus, needed to shed light on how the students' perception
122 of the different (de-) motivating teaching approaches may differentially yield specific
123 motivational processes in PE.

124 **Cross-Cultural Research in Physical Education**

125 Central to SDT is the fact that the three BPNs are essential for all individuals,
126 irrespective of their cultural backgrounds (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Nevertheless, a growing body
127 of research has called into question the cross-cultural SDT validity (Chen et al., 2015;
128 Chirkov et al., 2005) suggesting an uniformity rather than universality of BPNs and a little
129 more diffuse way of understanding autonomy varying between choice and independence in
130 non-Western cultures (Chirkov et al., 2005; Chirkov & Ryan, 2001; Vlachopoulos et al.,

131 2013). Indeed, autonomy is thought to represent a core ideal to be learnt in Western cultures
132 where individualist values prevailed over collectivist ones (Chirkov, 2011). In contrast,
133 autonomy is believed to have less importance in Eastern cultures and it could therefrom
134 perform a more secondary role in Eastern people who prioritized more collectivist over
135 individualist values (Chirkov, 2011).

136 Consistent with previous research in PE, there is a myriad of factors that may vary
137 across cultures, such as including workplace, education system, curriculum, or teacher
138 education. These cultural characteristics can somehow determine the specific way in which
139 students perceived their teacher as interacting with them in not only directing the classroom,
140 but also facilitating their psychological experiences in the lesson. Regarding initial PE
141 secondary teacher education, both countries (i.e., Spain and Estonia) follow the European
142 University System, which consists of the fulfilment of 300 ECTS (i.e., European Credit
143 Transfer System; one credit represents a total of 25 hours of study and work for the student).
144 In addition, these countries have a consecutive model with studies of Bachelor's Degree first
145 and a specific Physical Education Teacher Education (PETE) programs (i.e., master's degree).
146 However, they have some differences in analyzing the structure of this PE secondary teacher
147 education. Spain follows a 4-year Bachelor's Degree and 1-year PETE, whereas Estonia
148 follows a 3-year Bachelor's Degree and 2-year PETE. Overall, this structure of PE secondary
149 teacher education might have some influence on student motivation. For this reason, it is
150 essential to combine a well-designed teacher education programs, practical experience, and
151 specialized knowledge, to be more likely to positively impact student motivation in PE.
152 Concerning the amount of the proportions of pedagogy and PE teaching subjects in the
153 Bachelor's Degree. In Estonia, the proportion of pedagogy and PE teaching subjects is 12
154 ECTS, out of total 180 ECTS (7%). In Spain, on the other hand, the proportion of pedagogy
155 and PE teaching subjects is 48 ECTS, out of total 240 ECTS (20%). Also, there are some

156 differences in the amount of the proportion of theoretical and practical subjects in the PETE
157 programs. In Estonia, the proportion of theoretical and practical subjects is 120 ECTS, out of
158 which 82 ECTS (68.3%) are theoretical subjects and 38 ECTS (31.7%) are practical subjects.
159 In Spain, however, the percentage of theoretical and practical subjects is 60 ECTS, including
160 50 ECTS (83%) in theoretical subjects and 10 ECTS (17%) in practical subjects. While the
161 proportions of pedagogy and PE teaching-related subjects are meaningful, they are just one
162 aspect of a teacher's overall preparation. The quality of instruction, the integration of
163 theoretical knowledge into practical teaching experiences, and individual teaching styles also
164 play critical roles in motivating secondary school students.

165 Concerning professional development programs, while Estonian PE teachers must
166 complete 160 hours of continuous education in five years, Spanish PE teachers are not
167 required to undertake continuous education. With respect to the PE curriculum, although the
168 curricular goals for PE (e.g., PA promotion) are common in both countries (i.e., Spain and
169 Estonia), different perspectives were adopted in content and assessment. Specifically, the
170 Estonian curriculum takes a more sports view for PE in content development with students
171 who are usually engaged in team sports (e.g., basketball, volleyball, and football), winter
172 sports (e.g., cross-country skiing and skating), track and field athletics, while Spanish
173 curriculum adopts a more varied perspective for PE with students who are typically engaged
174 in a wide range of physical activities, including individual activities, inter-individual
175 opposition, cooperative activities, cooperation and opposition, nature activities, and
176 expressive activities (López-Pastor et al., 2016). It is important to consider that the
177 curriculum is meaningful factor of the overall PE experience. Creating a supportive and
178 inclusive learning environment that recognizes and values student interests and provides
179 opportunities for success is crucial for enhancing motivation in PE.

180 **The present research**

181 Recently, research under the circumplex model has shown that different (de-)
182 motivating approaches contributed to differentially predicting autonomy, competence and
183 relatedness satisfaction in different domains (Delrue et al., 2019; Escriva-Boulley et al.,
184 2021). To the best of our knowledge, no previous studies so far were found to examine the
185 predictive associations of the students' perception of the eight (de-)motivating teaching
186 approaches proposed in the circumplex model with their autonomy, competence, and
187 relatedness satisfaction in PE. Furthermore, little is, currently, known about the potential role
188 that a chaotic style (i.e., abandoning and awaiting approaches) from the teacher may play in
189 fostering or hampering students' motivational outcomes in the PE lesson. Besides, it is worth
190 underscoring the great absence of cross-cultural research in PE analyzing the role that the
191 students' perceptions of (de-)motivating behaviors from the teacher might have in their
192 motivational outcomes. Indeed, there are no evidence to date examining the predictive
193 associations of students' perceptions of (de-)motivating approaches from the teacher on their
194 need satisfaction, considering the potential cross-cultural differences between students from
195 Estonia (a more collectivist culture) and Spain (a more individualist culture). As societies are
196 becoming increasingly multicultural, the research could be helpful for PE teachers to raise
197 awareness of which (de-)motivating approaches may be the most and least effective in
198 developing their students' experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness in the PE
199 lesson.

200 Building upon the circumplex model from SDT, the objective of this study was to
201 examine to what extent are there cross-cultural differences based on students' perceptions of
202 (de-)motivating teaching style from PE teachers. Specifically, the potential cross-cultural
203 differences in the predictive associations of (de-)motivating approaches from the teacher with
204 autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction in the eyes of Estonian and Spanish

205 secondary school students who participated in PE lessons. According to previous literature, a
206 theoretical model was hypothesized to analyse all these relationships (see Figure 1).

207 <PLEASE, INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE>

208 Consistent with previous SDT-based research in PE (Burgueño et al., 2022; Curran &
209 Standage, 2017; Vasconcellos et al., 2020) and cross-cultural studies (Chirkov, 2011;
210 Vlachopoulos et al., 2013), we hypothesized that Spanish students (as members of a more
211 individualist culture) would obtained higher scores in the two perceived autonomy-supportive
212 and structuring approaches, as well as lower scores in the two perceived controlling and
213 chaotic approaches. We also expected that students' perceptions of motivating teaching
214 approaches would positively predict autonomy, competence and relatedness satisfaction and
215 that demotivating teaching approaches would negatively predict autonomy, competence and
216 relatedness satisfaction.

217 **Methods**

218 **Participants and Setting**

219 A convenience sample of 1278 secondary school students from two secondary schools
220 in Estonia (Region of Tartu) and four secondary schools in Spain (Region of Aragon) were
221 invited to voluntarily participate in this cross-sectional study. After removing invalid data
222 (valid response rate: 99%), the final sample consisted of 1270 secondary school students
223 ($M_{age}=14.62$, $SD=1.68$; 54% girls) from Estonia ($n=601$, $M_{age}=14.59$, $SD=1.90$; 56% girls)
224 and Spain ($n=669$, $M_{age}=14.65$, $SD=1.47$; 52% girls) who completed different validated
225 questionnaires regarding PE during the period between May 2021 and February 2022. Before
226 to fill the questionnaire, the researchers obtained parent-signed written informed consent of
227 every student and the students themselves. A paper-and-pencil survey was administered by
228 the researchers from each country during 25 minutes in a quiet classroom environment
229 without the presence of the PE teacher. In Spain, students received two 50-minutes PE lessons

230 per week, whereas Estonian students received two 45-minutes PE lessons per week.
231 Generally, the PE teacher's annual program consists of different teaching units per year.
232 These teaching units correspond to different types of motor content (e.g., individual sports,
233 cooperative games, first aid, etc.) following the national curriculum of each country. Ethical
234 approval for this study was obtained from the Ethics Committee for Clinical Research of Aragon
235 (PI22/363).

236 **Variables and Instruments**

237 ***Motivating and demotivating teaching approaches***

238 Spanish students' perceptions of (de-)motivating approaches from PE teachers was
239 assessed using the Spanish version (Burgueño et al., 2024) of the Situations-in-School
240 Questionnaire (SIS-PE; Escrivá-Boulley et al., 2021), while Estonian students' perceptions of
241 (de-)motivating approaches from PE teachers was assessed using an Estonian version (Tilga
242 et al., 2023) of the Situations in School Questionnaire modified for the PE context (SIS;
243 Aelterman et al., 2019). These questionnaires present some situations alongside with four
244 different reactions (i.e., items) for each situation that commonly occur in PE lesson. Each
245 presented reaction correspond to one of the four (de-)motivating teaching style (i.e.,
246 autonomy support, structure, control, and chaos), each of which, in turn, is divided into two
247 teaching approaches (i.e., in total of eight teaching approaches; for further information, please
248 see Aelterman et al., 2019). Students were asked to indicate the extent to which each response
249 reflects their PE teacher's way of teaching on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from one "does
250 not describe my PE teacher at all" to seven "describes my PE teacher extremely well".

251 ***Basic psychological need satisfaction***

252 Students' perceptions of autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction in PE
253 were assessed using the Spanish version of the Basic Psychological Needs in Exercise Scale
254 (Moreno-Murcia et al., 2008) and the Estonian version of the Basic Psychological Need

255 Satisfaction and Frustration Scale (BPNSFS) adapted to PE (Tilga et al., 2020), for Spanish
256 and Estonian students, respectively. Following the stem: “In/during my PE lessons ...” both
257 scales includes 12 items (four items per need) assessing autonomy satisfaction (e.g., “I feel
258 that the activities I do in PE fit in with my interests” or “I felt that the exercises reflect what I
259 really want”), competence satisfaction (e.g., “I feel that in PE I perform the activities
260 effectively” or “I felt capable at what I did”), and relatedness satisfaction (e.g., “I feel that in
261 PE lessons I can communicate openly with my classmates” or “I felt that the class members I
262 care about also cared about me”). Items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from one
263 (“strongly disagree”) to five (“strongly agree”).

264 **Data Analysis**

265 To estimate the statistical power for the structural equation modelling (SEM) model,
266 the *Free Statistics Calculator* v.4.0 (Soper, 2024) was used. With nine predictors (eight de-
267 motivating approach and a covariate, this is, the school), a probability level of .05 and a
268 sample size of 1278, a statistical power of 1.00 was estimated. Descriptive statistics (means
269 and standard deviations), McDonald’s omega (ω) reliability coefficient, and Pearson’s
270 correlations were estimated for all study variables in the Spanish and Estonian samples. For
271 the SEM and considering the differentiated number of items comprising the Spanish and
272 Estonian SIS’s versions, variables were specified by a computed averaged score and their
273 respective error variance computed using the formula: $(1 - \text{reliability}) * \text{sample variance}$
274 (Byrne, 2010). Next, the SEM model was tested for invariance across the Spanish and
275 Estonian samples. Following a methodological proposal by Byrne (2010), we successively
276 tested configural invariance (i.e., no equality constraints), structural weight invariance (i.e.,
277 equal structural weights), covariances invariance (i.e., equal structural weights and structural
278 covariances, concurrently), structural residuals invariance (i.e., equal structural weights,
279 structural covariances, and structural residuals, concurrently), and measurement residual

280 invariance (i.e., equal structural weights, structural covariances, structural residuals and
281 measurement residuals, concurrently). The difference between two progressively constrained
282 models was assessed by the difference of CFA and RMSEA value. A score equal to or less
283 than .010 in CFI in conjunction with a value equal to lower than .015 in RMSEA indicate no
284 practical differences among models and, hence, tenability of equality constraints (Byrne,
285 2010; Kline, 2016). Once invariance was explored, a SEM was performed to examine cross-
286 cultural differences in relationships between students' perceptions of the eight (de-)motivating
287 approaches from the PE teacher and students' autonomy, competence, and relatedness
288 satisfaction. For this purpose, multi-group model for Spanish and Estonian samples were
289 specified within the overall model. Following the Kline's (2016) methodological approach,
290 the first step consisted of identifying non-significant structural paths in both samples, which
291 were proposed for elimination. The second step tested cross-cultural differences in the
292 relationships of the trimmed model, where all structural paths were freely estimated (i.e.,
293 unconstrained model) and compared to the model in which all structural paths were
294 constrained to be equal across samples. To verify which paths were variant across countries,
295 one at a time path was constrained to be equal across countries. Each partially constrained
296 model was compared with an unconstrained model. Next, the χ^2 difference test was used to
297 evaluate the difference between models. A significant χ^2 difference would indicate that the
298 partially constrained model does not fit equally well for both countries and the magnitude of
299 the path coefficient is significantly different across countries, indicating that country
300 moderates this path in the model. Reversely, a non-significant χ^2 difference test would
301 indicate that the partially constrained model fit equally well for both countries and the path
302 coefficient did not vary significantly in magnitude across countries, indicating thus that the
303 country does not moderate this pathway in the model. Prior this analysis, we tested the

304 possibility to control either for the hierarchical nature of the data at the school level or for
305 introducing school as a covariate in the model.

306 The model's fit was assessed by taking acceptable cut-off scores above .90 in
307 Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and up to .08 in Root Mean
308 Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (Kline, 2016). As the multivariate normality
309 assumption was violated (a Mardia's coefficient=22.65 $p<.01$), the maximum-likelihood
310 method and the 5000-re-sampling bootstrapping technique were conjointly used. Analyses
311 were conducted using the statistical programs SPSS (version 29, Chicago, IL) and AMOS
312 (version 29, IBM SPSS, Chicago, IL).

313 Results

314 Preliminary Results

315 The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed a good fit to the data for Spanish
316 ($\chi^2(df=1074) = 3945.46, p< .001$; CFI = .906; TLI = .901; RMSEA = .064), and Estonian
317 samples ($\chi^2(df=1074) = 6703.34, p< .001$; CFI = .929; TLI = .926; RMSEA = .070)
318 concerning (de-)motivating teaching approaches. Regarding BPN satisfaction, CFA showed a
319 good fit to the data for Spanish ($\chi^2(df=51) = 323.44, p< .001$; CFI = .944; TLI = .932;
320 RMSEA = .077) and Estonian samples ($\chi^2(df=51) = 179.97, p< .001$; CFI = .979; TLI = .973;
321 RMSEA = .065). In addition, the reliability values obtained were appropriate for (de-
322)motivating teaching approaches ($\omega_{\text{Spanish}} = .71$ to .86) and ($\omega_{\text{Estonian}} = .89$ to .92) and the
323 satisfaction of each BPN ($\omega_{\text{Spanish}} = .72$ to .83) and ($\omega_{\text{Estonian}} = .88$ to .93).

324 Table 1 presents correlations from .25 (i.e., guiding and abandoning approaches) to
325 .86 (i.e., clarifying and attuning approaches) in Estonian and Spanish student samples.
326 Perceived participative, attuning, guiding, and clarifying approaches were positively
327 correlated with autonomy, competence and relatedness satisfaction in Spanish and Estonian
328 students. In Spanish students, a positive correlation was also found between perceived

329 demanding approach and the satisfaction of each BPNs. In Estonian students, perceived
330 demanding approach only was positively correlated with competence satisfaction, whereas
331 perceived domineering approach was positively correlated with autonomy satisfaction.
332 Finally, there were negative correlations of perceived abandoning approach with the
333 satisfaction of each BPN in Estonian and Spanish students.

334 <PLEASE, INSER TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE>

335 **Cross-cultural differences in the associations of (de-)motivating approaches on students'**
336 **need satisfaction**

337 *Initial insights: fit indexes, hierarchical nature, and covariate impact in cross-cultural*
338 *results*

339 Table 2 reports differences in fit indexes for the different progressively constrained
340 models tested. While configural invariance, covariance invariance, structural residuals, and
341 measurement invariance were, respectively, supported for values below .010 in CFA and .015
342 in RMSEA, structural invariance was not met by obtaining differences of .019 in CFI and of
343 .039 in RMSEA. These results implied that the paths from perceived PE teachers' (de-
344)motivating approaches to autonomy, competence and relatedness satisfaction were different
345 between Spanish and Estonian student samples.

346 <PLEASE, INSER TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE>

347 Prior to SEM, the examination of the hierarchical nature of data at the school level
348 showed that there was not the need to control for the data in its multilevel nature because the
349 results from school-level variance (autonomy satisfaction: $ICC_{Spain}=.17; p>.05$ and
350 $ICC_{Estonia}=.22; p>.05$; competence satisfaction: $ICC_{Spain}=.37; p>.05$ and $ICC_{Estonia}=.33; p>.05$;
351 and relatedness satisfaction: $ICC_{Spain}=.28; p>.05$ and $ICC_{Estonia}=.30; p>.05$) were not
352 statistically significant for the target variables. Alternatively, school was introduced as a

353 covariate in the multi-group SEM given that a significant multivariate effect (Wilks' $\lambda=0.36$,
 354 $F(17, 96)=77.75, p<.001, \eta^2_p=.14$) was found for the totality of variables across school.

355 ***Key findings: cross-cultural variances in (de-)motivating approaches and students' need***
 356 ***satisfaction***

357 Results from the multi-group SEM indicated that paths from each perceived (de-)
 358 motivating teaching approaches to autonomy, competence and relatedness satisfaction were,
 359 overall, statistically significant among Estonian and Spanish students. Standardized path
 360 coefficients for both countries are presented in Figure 3. Then, equality constraints were
 361 specified to all structural paths to test cross-cultural differences in relationships between each
 362 perceived (de-)motivating approach and the satisfaction of each BPN. In consequence, a
 363 significant change in the χ^2 test was observed (see Table 2) suggesting that at least one or
 364 more structural paths differed across countries.

365 <PLEASE, INSER TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE>

366 Table 3 show that a total of 19 additional models were run to examine which structural
 367 paths were variant across countries by constraining paths one at a time to be equal across the
 368 Estonian and Spanish samples, suggesting that these paths were moderated by the country.
 369 Figure 3 shows that Estonian and Spanish students' perceptions of the participative approach
 370 positively predicted autonomy ($\beta_{Estonian}=.82; B=.75, CI_{95}=.67, .82$ vs $\beta_{Spanish}=.70; B=.41,$
 371 $CI_{95}=.35, .46$), competence ($\beta_{Estonian}=.64; B=.64, CI_{95}=.55, .72$ vs $\beta_{Spanish}=.33; B=.22,$
 372 $CI_{95}=.15, .28$), and relatedness satisfaction ($\beta_{Estonian}=.61; B=.63, CI_{95}=.54, .72$ vs $\beta_{Spanish}=.27;$
 373 $B=.18, CI_{95}=.11, .24$), being all this paths moderated by country. Results also display that the
 374 attuning approach positively predicted the satisfaction of autonomy ($\beta_{Estonian}=.79; B=.65,$
 375 $CI_{95}=.60, .71$ vs $\beta_{Spanish}=.74; B=.48, CI_{95}=.43, .54$), competence ($\beta_{Estonian}=.62; B=.56,$
 376 $CI_{95}=.50, .63$ vs $\beta_{Spanish}=.40; B=.30, CI_{95}=.23, .36$), and relatedness ($\beta_{Estonian}=.59; B=.56,$
 377 $CI_{95}=.49, .63$ vs $\beta_{Spanish}=.36; B=.26, CI_{95}=.19, .32$) as perceived by both Estonian and Spanish

378 students, being all this paths moderated by country. Regarding the two structuring
 379 approaches, the guiding approach positively predicted autonomy ($\beta_{Estonian} = .77$; $B = .65$,
 380 $CI_{95} = .60, .71$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .67$; $B = .47$, $CI_{95} = .40, .53$), competence ($\beta_{Estonian} = .62$; $B = .58$,
 381 $CI_{95} = .51, .65$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .37$; $B = .29$, $CI_{95} = .22, .37$), and relatedness ($\beta_{Estonian} = .56$; $B = .55$,
 382 $CI_{95} = .48, .63$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .36$; $B = .27$, $CI_{95} = .20, .35$) satisfaction both as perceived by Estonian
 383 and Spanish students. The clarifying approach predicted the satisfaction of autonomy ($\beta_{Estonian}$
 384 $= .52$; $B = .53$, $CI_{95} = .44, .62$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .56$; $B = .46$, $CI_{95} = .37, .55$), competence ($\beta_{Estonian} = .42$;
 385 $B = .48$, $CI_{95} = .38, .57$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .25$; $B = .24$, $CI_{95} = .15, .34$), and relatedness ($\beta_{Estonian} = .39$;
 386 $B = .46$, $CI_{95} = .36, .56$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .33$; $B = .31$, $CI_{95} = .22, .40$) as perceived by Estonian and
 387 Spanish students, being this paths moderated by country except autonomy satisfaction.
 388 Concerning the two controlling approaches, demanding approach positively and significantly
 389 predicted competence ($\beta_{Estonian} = .14$; $B = .15$, $CI_{95} = .09, .21$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .23$; $B = .26$, $CI_{95} = .15$,
 390 $.36$) and relatedness ($\beta_{Estonian} = .13$; $B = .14$, $CI_{95} = .07, .20$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .18$; $B = .20$, $CI_{95} = .09, .30$)
 391 satisfaction for both Estonian and Spanish, autonomy satisfaction was positively and
 392 significantly predicted only in the eyes of Spanish students ($\beta_{Estonian} = .06$; $B = .05$, $CI_{95} = -.01$,
 393 $.12$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .49$; $B = .47$, $CI_{95} = .37, .58$), being only the autonomy satisfaction path
 394 moderated by country. The domineering approach only negatively and significantly predicted
 395 autonomy satisfaction in Estonian students' perception autonomy ($\beta_{Estonian} = -.11$; $B = -.09$,
 396 $CI_{95} = -.13, -.04$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = .09$; $B = .07$, $CI_{95} = -.00, .15$). About the two chaotic approaches, the
 397 abandoning approach negatively predicted autonomy ($\beta_{Estonian} = -.27$; $B = -.21$, $CI_{95} = -.26, -.16$
 398 vs $\beta_{Spanish} = -.14$; $B = -.09$, $CI_{95} = -.14, -.04$), competence ($\beta_{Estonian} = -.16$; $B = -.14$, $CI_{95} = -.19, -.09$
 399 vs $\beta_{Spanish} = -.18$; $B = -.14$, $CI_{95} = -.19, -.08$), and relatedness ($\beta_{Estonian} = -.11$; $B = -.10$, $CI_{95} = -.15, -$
 400 $.05$ vs $\beta_{Spanish} = -.20$; $B = -.14$, $CI_{95} = -.19, -.09$) satisfaction both in the eyes of Estonian and
 401 Spanish students, being only the autonomy satisfaction path moderated by country. The
 402 awaiting approach did not predict the satisfaction of any BPN in students from both cultures.

403 <PLEASE, INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE>

404 **Discussion**

405 Grounded on the circumplex model from SDT, the main objective of this study was to
406 examine the potential cross-cultural differences in the predictive associations of the Estonian
407 and Spanish students' perception of (de-)motivating approaches from the teacher with their
408 autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction in PE. The main results revealed that: a)
409 participative, attuning, guiding, clarifying, and demanding approaches predicted the
410 satisfaction of each BPN in general in the eyes of Estonian and Spanish students; b) Estonian
411 students' perceptions of domineering approach negatively predicted their autonomy
412 satisfaction; and c) abandoning approach negatively predicted the satisfaction of each BPN as
413 perceived by Estonian and Spanish students.

414 The results from the two autonomy-supportive approaches showed that perceived
415 participative and attuning approaches predicted positively and significantly autonomy,
416 competence, and relatedness satisfaction in both Spanish and Estonian students. Aligned with
417 SDT-based research in PE (Vasconcellos et al., 2020), these results suggest that providing
418 students with opportunities for choice or asks them for their opinions (i.e., participative
419 approach) and students can choose both the most-liked variant and the most-loved classmates
420 to do it (i.e., attuning approach) may facilitate autonomy satisfaction in particular, but also
421 competence and relatedness satisfaction.

422 In line with our research hypotheses, both participative and attuning approaches
423 positively predicted autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction. Contrasted with our
424 expectations, the predictive effect was significantly higher in Estonian than Spanish students'
425 perceptions. A possible explanation would rest on the differences in the education context,
426 where students from individualistic or collectivist countries could experience autonomy
427 support differently (Awang-Hashim et al., 2017). These results obtained in the two autonomy-

428 supportive approaches contrasted both with Chirkov and Ryan's (2001) study reporting
429 students from collectivist cultures perceived lower values of PE teachers' autonomy support,
430 and the Vasconcellos et al. (2020) systematic review showing the absence of cross-cultural
431 differences in perceived autonomy support. These findings may be due to the changing nature
432 of young people's cultural orientations in Eastern European countries. Previous research has
433 suggested that socio-political evolution and modernization in these countries may change the
434 balance between individualistic and cultural values (Allik & Realo, 2004). In particular, Realo
435 (2003) stated that Estonian people tended to self-stereotype themselves as individualists
436 whereas the scientific literature tends to conceptualize Estonia as a collectivist culture.

437 The results of the two structuring approaches showed that perceived guiding and
438 clarifying approaches predicted positively autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction
439 in both Estonian and Spanish students. Consistent with SDT assumptions and the circumplex
440 model (Vansteenkiste et al., 2019), these results indicated that perceived guiding approach
441 could predict BPNs satisfaction because it supports the students' progress by providing them
442 with help and assistance when needed. This would imply that when students can decompose
443 the target activity into different steps to complete it, receiving useful feedback to guide them
444 in their improvement of the teaching-learning process (i.e., guiding approach), they are prone
445 to satisfy their autonomy, competence and relatedness. Moreover, perceived clarifying
446 approach characterized by strategies for teachers to communicate their expectations to their
447 students in a clear and transparent way and offering an overview of the learning to be
448 achieved could satisfy the three BPNs in line with the SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2017) in Spanish
449 and Estonian students.

450 The results from perceived guiding and clarifying approaches are totally consistent
451 with our hypotheses, such that they positively predicted autonomy, competence and
452 relatedness satisfaction. In addition, the predictive effect was overall higher in Estonian than

453 Spanish students' perceptions, although this difference was not significant between clarifying
454 approach and autonomy satisfaction across countries. These results may be explained by the
455 change in the Estonian young people's mentality from collectivist to individualist values
456 which may show less cross-cultural variability in the psychological variables than expected
457 (Realo, 2003).

458 Unlike the SDT-based PE research (Behzadnia et al., 2018; Cronin et al., 2019) and
459 the circumplex model (Aelterman et al., 2019; Escriva-Boulley et al., 2021), the results of the
460 two controlling approaches showed that perceived demanding approach positively predicted
461 the satisfaction of each BPN in general. These results may be explained by some features of
462 the demanding approach, which is part of the controlling style and characterized by high
463 directivity and moderate need thwarting levels (e.g., the PE teacher requires discipline from
464 the students by using a clear language to specify what students have to do), may be
465 interpreted by students as features of a clarifying approach, which is part of the structuring
466 style. This clarifying approach also stands for high directivity but with moderate levels of
467 need support (e.g., the PE teacher communicates expectations and the desired attitude to
468 students in a clear and transparent way) (Aelterman et al. 2019; Vansteenkiste et al. 2019).
469 Perceived domineering approach negatively and significantly predicted autonomy satisfaction
470 only in Estonian students. In line with the SDT assumptions (Ryan & Deci, 2017), these
471 results suggest that when a PE teacher pressures their students to complete the task in
472 question according to his/her requests using intrusive and manipulative tactics (i.e.,
473 domineering approach), students would feel that they are not free to decide how to behave
474 during the task. Shortly, it is plausible to think that controlling and structuring practices are
475 high in teacher directiveness, specific demanding practices might be understood by students
476 as clarifying strategies and, in consequence, feel their BPNs as satisfied. Hence, more
477 research is required to shed light on which may be the optimal level of perceived control to

478 contribute to adaptive outcomes in the PE lesson, since it broadly yields maladaptive
479 outcomes in the long-term (Vasconcellos et al., 2020). In addition, it would be beneficial to
480 examine the effects of the combination of structure and control, to explore if there is a need to
481 study profiles where it can be seen if there were combinations of both teaching approaches
482 that would have positive effects.

483 In contrast to our hypothesis, the predictive effect of demanding approach was overall
484 higher in Spanish than Estonian students' perceptions, although this difference was only
485 significant between demanding approach and autonomy satisfaction across countries. This
486 result could be explained by the lower magnitude of the relationship with demanding
487 compared to clarifying approaches, and the relationship between demanding and clarifying
488 (e.g., correlation values) is very different between Spain and Estonia. Otherwise, perceived
489 domineering approach had a higher prediction on autonomy satisfaction in Estonian than
490 Spanish students, in line with our hypothesis. A possible explanation would rest on the fact
491 that Estonian and Spanish students would differentially interpret controlling approaches from
492 their teacher. For instance, Spanish students may be more inclined to normalize controlling
493 approaches in response to their behavior in PE lessons. This could be attributed to a social
494 acceptance for this controlling style, as they understand that their PE teacher is concerned
495 about their learning (Abós et al., 2022).

496 The results of the two chaotic approaches revealed that perceived abandoning
497 approach negatively predicted autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction in students
498 from both cultures. Consistent with SDT assumptions (Ryan & Deci, 2017), our findings
499 suggest that when a PE teacher gives up and leave students to their fate in the classroom, they
500 would tend to actively undermine need satisfaction by not knowing what they have to do, how
501 they should act and how they are able to develop their skills. Following with our hypotheses,
502 it was expected a negative prediction from perceived awaiting approach to BPN satisfaction.

503 However, the results of this teaching approach did not significantly predict the satisfaction of
504 any BPN. According to Aelterman et al. (2019), these findings would raise that awaiting
505 approach does not actively undermine need satisfaction, but rather it might create the
506 conditions for which students might deprive the opportunities to support their need
507 satisfaction in the PE lesson.

508 In contrast to our hypothesis, the results displayed that, while non-significant cross-
509 cultural differences were found for perceived awaiting approach, there were greater
510 predictions of perceived abandoning approach on the satisfaction of each BPN. Nevertheless,
511 this difference was only significant between abandoning approach and autonomy satisfaction
512 across countries. A plausible rationale would lie in the change in the Estonian young people's
513 mentality to denominate themselves as individualists against the scientific literature to date
514 tending to identify them as a collectivist culture (Realo, 2003). Our results also contrasted
515 with previous research (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001), in the sense that students from collectivist
516 cultures reported lower perceptions of less directive behaviors, including chaotic teaching
517 style.

518 **Limitations and Future Directions**

519 Although this research meaningfully contributed to the PE existing literature and
520 practice, various limitations should be considered. Firstly, although the same SDT-based
521 variables were assessed in the two target samples, slightly different questionnaire versions
522 were used to measure such variables, which might entail some distinctiveness in analyzing
523 cross-cultural differences. Future studies should consider the use of the same questionnaire
524 form to obtain a more rigorous insight into students' motivational processes in different
525 countries. Secondly, the adoption of a cross-sectional design does not allow us to estimate
526 causal effects between study variables. Additional longitudinal research is needed to further
527 examine the direction of the relationships and to shed light on the effects of (de-)motivating

528 teaching approaches on students' need satisfaction in PE. Thirdly, although the statistical
529 approach followed is commonly used for measurement invariance, it is important to manifest
530 that there may be other more robust proposals to test measurement invariance in general, and
531 at the item level in particular. Hence, additional research is needed to explore if the
532 differences are true for moderation and not due to measurement differences. Fourthly, in the
533 present study, only need satisfaction was included. More research should expand the evidence
534 on the associations of the eight (de-)motivating approaches with other adaptive and
535 maladaptive outcomes such as need frustration or the quality of motivation in PE. This would
536 allow us to gain a better understanding of the beneficial and detrimental effects of (de-
537)motivating approaches from teachers in instructional practice. Fifthly, the eight (de-
538)motivating approaches were assessed by self-reported measures in eyes of students. Further
539 studies could complement these self-reported measures both with observational instruments
540 and teachers' perceptions of their own (de-)motivating approaches for an effective data
541 triangulation.

542 **Conclusions**

543 The present study underscores cross-cultural differences in the associations of
544 students' perceptions of (de-)motivating approaches on their need satisfaction, as well as it
545 strengthens the SDT assumptions regarding cross-cultural validity. Our results highlight the
546 cross-cultural variability in the determinant role played by the Estonian and Spanish students'
547 perception of (de-)motivating approaches from the teacher in the satisfaction of their
548 autonomy, competence and relatedness. Firstly, autonomy support and structure through
549 perceived participative, attuning, guiding, and clarifying approaches may be relevant for
550 students to satisfy their three BPNs. Moreover, control, and in special, perceived demanding
551 approach was positively related to autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction, which
552 make us suggest the need for further research to expound on the relationship between this

553 type of demotivating approach and BPNs satisfaction in students. Finally, chaos and, more
554 particularly, perceived abandoning approach was negatively associated with need satisfaction,
555 which could trigger maladaptive outcomes over time in PE. Thus, these results underline the
556 need to include a specific education in initial and continuous teacher education programs, in
557 which PE teachers are trained not only to maximize motivating approaches (i.e., participative,
558 attuning, guiding, and clarifying), but also to minimize demotivating approaches (i.e.,
559 domineering and abandoning) as much as possible in their classroom practice.

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669 Table 1. Descriptive statistics, and correlations between study variables in the eyes of Estonian and Spanish students

	Range	Estonian	Spanish											
		students (n=601)	students (n=669)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Participative approach	1-7	4.40(1.24)	4.01(1.50)	-	.81**	.75**	.49**	.20**	.01	-.07	.08*	.66**	.52**	.50**
2. Attuning approach	1-7	4.49(1.22)	4.60(1.26)	.73**	-	.86**	.51**	.15**	-.01	-.17**	.04	.70**	.56**	.54**
3. Guiding approach	1-7	5.06(1.18)	5.18(1.22)	.61**	.77**	-	.70**	.13**	-.06	-.25**	-.02	.67**	.55**	.51**
4. Clarifying approach	1-7	4.96(1.02)	5.22(1.08)	.52**	.70**	.51**	-	.05	-.08*	-.22**	-.09*	.44**	.36**	.35**
5. Demanding approach	1-7	3.85(1.15)	4.75(0.97)	.42**	.51**	.55**	.59**	-	.79**	.63**	.39**	.07	.17**	.06
6. Domineering approach	1-7	3.51(1.35)	3.77(1.19)	.21**	.18**	.12**	.22**	.44**	-	.74**	.42**	-.07	.06	-.05
7. Abandoning approach	1-7	3.14(1.26)	2.56(1.24)	-.06	-.24**	-.33**	-.22**	-.01	.43**	-	.60**	-.22**	-.10**	-.15**
8. Awaiting approach	1-7	3.25(1.22)	2.63(1.29)	.01	-.07	-.16**	-.11**	.04	.27**	.57**	-	.01	.01	-.04
9. Autonomy satisfaction	1-5	3.37(1.01)	3.26(0.86)	.50**	.56**	.50**	.39**	.35**	.10**	-.09*	.01	-	.71**	.60**
10. Competence satisfaction	1-5	3.49(1.09)	3.76(0.92)	.26**	.34**	.31**	.21**	.19**	.05	-.16**	-.04	.53**	-	.56**
11. Relatedness satisfaction	1-5	3.47(1.13)	3.77(0.91)	.22**	.31**	.29**	.26**	.16**	.06	-.16**	-.05	.44**	.58**	-

Note: These preliminary results are from the raw data.

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675 Table 2. *Cross-cultural invariance tests for the tested model*

	$\chi^2(df)$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA(90%CI)	Models' comparison	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	ΔCFI	ΔTLI	$\Delta RMSEA$	Invariance
1. Configural model	19.67(10)	.999	.987	.028(.008-.046)	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Structural weights	193.76(29)	.980	.923	.067(.058-.076)	2 versus 1	174.09(19)***	.019	.064	.039	No
3. Structural covariances	238.00(36)	.975	.923	.067(.059-.075)	3 versus 2	44.24(7)***	.005	.000	.000	Yes
4. Structural residuals	296.54(43)	.969	.920	.067(.061-.076)	4 versus 3	58.54(7)***	.006	.003	.001	Yes
5. Measurement residuals	367.51(71)	.961	.915	.076(.071-.082)	5 versus 4	70.97(28)***	.008	.005	.009	Yes

Note: *** $p < .001$.

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687 Table 3. Cross-cultural invariance tests for paths from (de-)motivating teaching styles to autonomy, competence and relatedness satisfaction in students

Parameters constrained		$\chi^2(df)$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA(90%CI)	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	Δp -value
Model 0	Configural model	19.67(10)	.999	.987	.028(.008-.046)	-	-
Model 1	Participative approach → Autonomy satisfaction	67.76(11)	.999	.987	.064(.050-.079)	48.09(1)	<.001
Model 2	Participative approach → Competence satisfaction	76.26(11)	.993	.930	.068(.054-.083)	56.59(1)	<.001
Model 3	Participative approach → Relatedness satisfaction	82.69(11)	.992	.919	.072(.058-.087)	63.02(1)	<.001
Model 4	Attuning approach → Autonomy satisfaction	40.39(11)	.991	.911	.046(.031-.061)	20.72(1)	<.001
Model 5	Attuning approach → Competence satisfaction	50.46(11)	.996	.964	.053(.039-.068)	30.79(1)	<.001
Model 6	Attuning approach → Relatedness satisfaction	45.88(11)	.995	.951	.057(.043-.072)	37.01(1)	<.001
Model 7	Guiding approach → Autonomy satisfaction	37.51(11)	.994	.943	.027(.007-.044)	17.84(1)	<.001
Model 8	Guiding approach → Competence satisfaction	49.67(11)	.999	.988	.038(.022-.054)	29.99(1)	<.001
Model 9	Guiding approach → Relatedness satisfaction	45.31(11)	.998	.976	.031(.014-.047)	25.64(1)	<.001
Model 10	Clarifying approach → Autonomy satisfaction	20.84(11)	.998	.984	.044(.029-.059)	1.17(1)	.278
Model 11	Clarifying approach → Competence satisfaction	30.73(11)	.997	.967	.053(.038-.068)	11.06(1)	.001
Model 12	Clarifying approach → Relatedness satisfaction	24.16(11)	.995	.952	.050(.035-.065)	4.49(1)	.034
Model 13	Demanding approach → Autonomy satisfaction	63.31(11)	.996	.957	.061(.047-.076)	43.64(1)	<.001
Model 14	Demanding approach → Competence satisfaction	22.79(11)	.994	.935	.029(.011-.046)	3.12(1)	.077
Model 15	Demanding approach → Relatedness satisfaction	20.60(11)	.999	.988	.026(.006-.044)	.94(1)	.334
Model 16	Domineering approach → Autonomy satisfaction	33.54(11)	.999	.972	.040(.025-.056)	13.87(1)	<.001
Model 17	Abandoning approach → Autonomy satisfaction	30.53(11)	.997	.976	.037(.022-.054)	10.86(1)	.001
Model 18	Abandoning approach → Competence satisfaction	19.67(11)	.998	.989	.025(.001-.042)	.01(1)	.969
Model 19	Abandoning approach → Relatedness satisfaction	21.11(11)	.999	.987	.027(.008-.044)	1.44(1)	.230

Note: Models in bold show significantly moderated relationships.

689 **Figure 1.** Graphical representation of the circumplex model (Aelterman et al. 2019).

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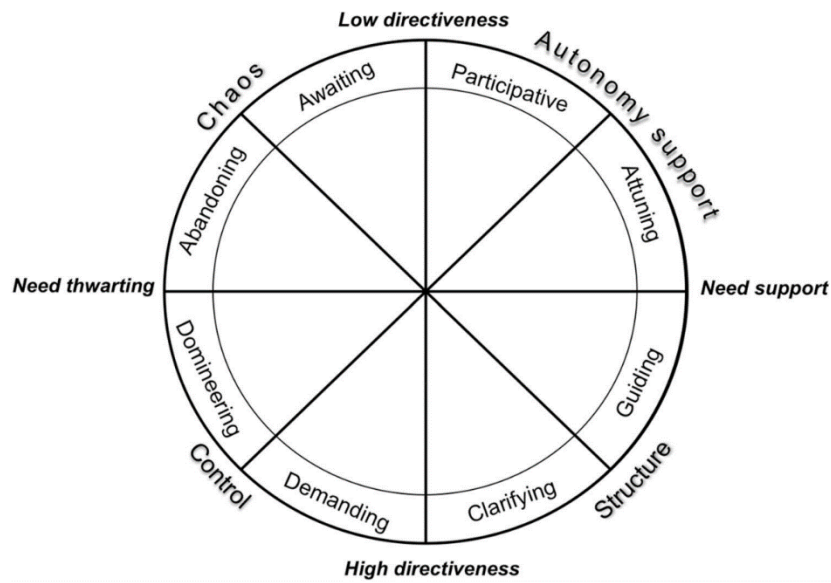
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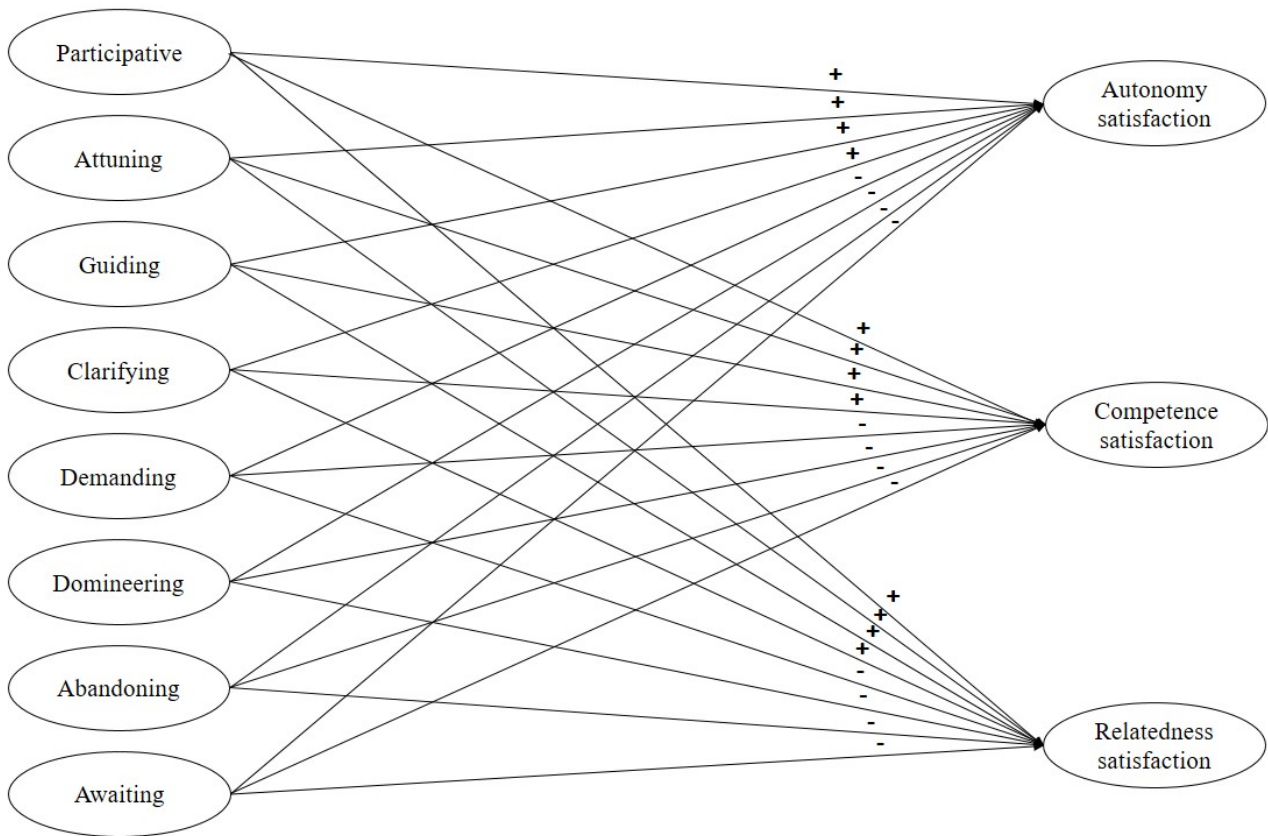
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723 **Figure 2.** *Theoretical hypothesized model of relationships between the study variables*



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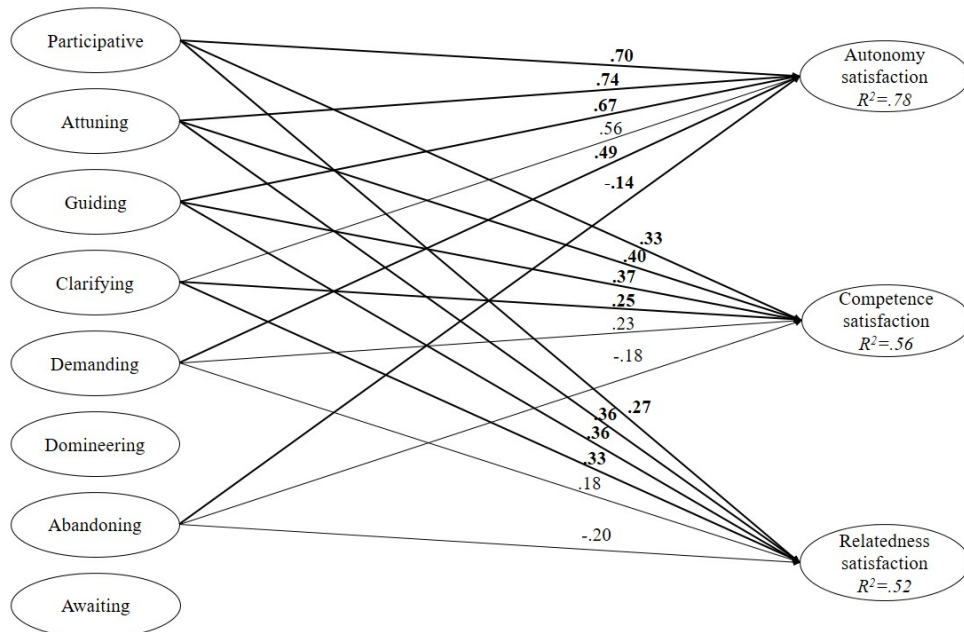
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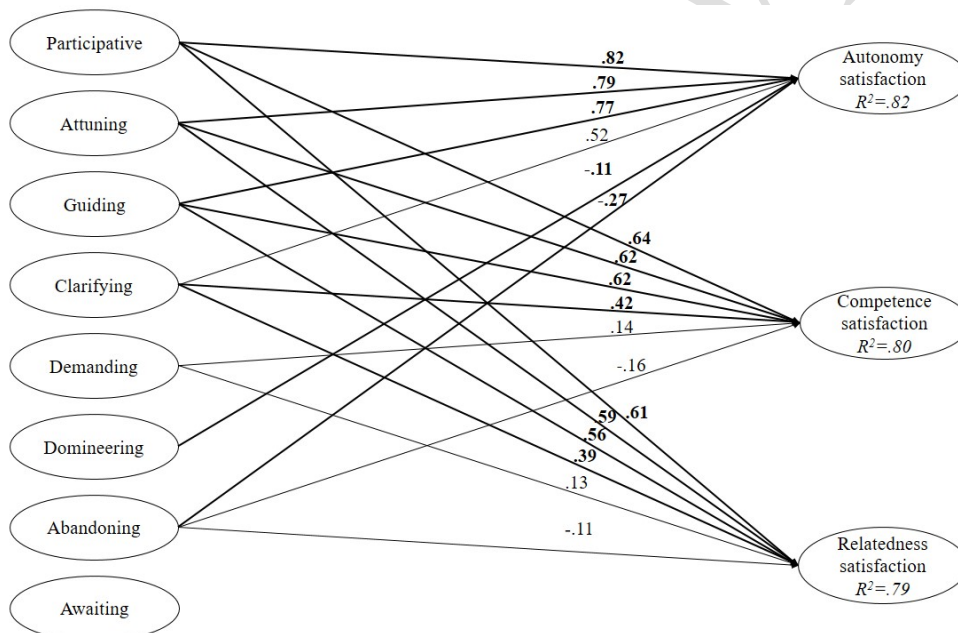
741 **Figure 3.** Multi-group SEM depicting relationships between perceived teachers' (de-
 742 motivating approaches and need satisfaction between Estonian and Spanish students



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747 *Note:* Standardized estimates for Estonians are above and estimates for Spanish are

748 below. All the paths shown in the figure are significant at $p < .001$. Bold paths indicate

749 they are moderated by country.