

Université de Montréal

**Academic and social adjustment of teenagers in
social rehabilitation: The role of intrinsic need
satisfaction and autonomy support**

par

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Résumé

Les études antérieures ont démontré les bénéfices de la satisfaction des besoins intrinsèques et du soutien à l'autonomie dans le domaine de l'éducation. Or, l'applicabilité des tenants principaux de la Théorie de l'Auto-Détermination (TAD; Deci & Ryan, 2000) n'a pas été investiguée auprès d'une population clinique d'adolescents. L'objectif de cette thèse doctorale est de faire la lumière sur la façon dont l'adaptation scolaire et sociale peut être favorisée par les agents de socialisation dans le contexte de la réadaptation sociale.

Cette thèse est composée de deux études s'intéressant à l'application des tenants clés de la TAD auprès de deux échantillons d'adolescents vivant des problèmes d'adaptation et recevant des services d'éducation spécialisée et de réadaptation sociale. Les relations entre les concepts motivationnels de base sont étudiés afin de déterminer si, comme la TAD le propose, la satisfaction des besoins intrinsèques des jeunes peut être soutenue par le style interpersonnel des agents de socialisation (c.-à-d., le soutien à l'autonomie, l'implication et la structure). Il est aussi vérifié si ces concepts motivationnels améliorent la motivation ainsi que d'autres conséquences qui résultent de leur expérience, proposées par la TAD. La première étude a évalué si le style interpersonnel des enseignants peut favoriser la satisfaction des besoins des élèves, leur style de motivation, tout comme leur ajustement scolaire. Les élèves en difficulté d'adaptation ($N = 115$) inscrits aux écoles internes des Centres de Réadaptation en raison de leurs problématiques émotionnelles et comportementales ont rempli les questionnaires à deux reprises, au début et à la fin de l'année scolaire. Les analyses de modèles d'équations structurelles révèlent que l'augmentation du soutien à l'autonomie et de l'implication (mais pas de la structure) des enseignants pendant l'année est associée à une augmentation de la satisfaction des besoins des élèves qui, conséquemment, conduit à une motivation scolaire plus auto-déterminée et à une diminution d'intentions de décrochage à la fin de l'année scolaire. De plus, l'amélioration de la satisfaction des besoins mène directement à une meilleure expérience affective à l'école.

La deuxième étude consiste en une recherche expérimentale conduite auprès d'adolescentes en difficulté d'adaptation ($N = 29$). Le devis expérimental a permis de comparer l'impact de la présence (c. absence) du soutien à l'autonomie sur l'internalisation d'une tâche et sur les conséquences motivationnelles et expérientielles des jeunes. La tâche, fastidieuse mais importante, consistait à de la résolution de problèmes interpersonnels (activité clinique). Les résultats suggèrent qu'un style interpersonnel soutenant l'autonomie a augmenté la motivation auto-déterminée, la perception de la valeur de la tâche et son appréciation, ainsi que diminué les affects négatifs comparativement à la condition sans soutien à l'autonomie. Les résultats sont discutés en lien avec les implications théoriques et pratiques d'étendre la portée de la TAD à une population clinique d'adolescents aux prises avec des difficultés d'adaptation.

Mots-clés : Théorie de l'Auto-Détermination, soutien à l'autonomie, satisfaction des besoins intrinsèques, motivation, motivation auto-déterminée, internalisation, ajustement scolaire et social, population clinique

Abstract

Prior studies have demonstrated the benefits of intrinsic need satisfaction and autonomy support in the domain of education. It remains unclear whether the motivational constructs, derived from Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) are also beneficial for clinical populations. The purpose of this thesis is to shed light on how social and academic adjustment might be promoted by socializing agents in the context of social rehabilitation.

This dissertation is composed of two studies investigating SDT key tenets within two samples of maladjusted teenagers receiving special education and social rehabilitation services. The relations between key motivational constructs are investigated to determine if, as proposed by SDT, youths' intrinsic need satisfaction might be promoted by socializing agents' interpersonal style (i.e., autonomy support, involvement, and structure). It is also predicted that these constructs will lead to motivational and experiential benefits as proposed by SDT. The first study tested whether teachers' interpersonal style can foster students' need satisfaction, motivation style, as well as their academic adjustment. Teenagers ($N = 115$) enrolled in Social Rehabilitation Centers' special schools for maladjusted youths with severe emotional and behavioral problems completed questionnaires twice, at the beginning and the end of the school year. Structural equation modeling analysis supports a model in which teachers' improvements in autonomy support and involvement (but not structure) are associated with students' higher need satisfaction, which in turn leads to self-determined academic motivation and less dropout intentions at the end of the school year. Furthermore, improvement in need satisfaction leads directly to a better affective experience at school.

The second study was an experimental research conducted with maladjusted female adolescents ($N = 29$). The experimental design allowed comparing the impact of learning a tedious, but important clinical workshop with (vs. without) autonomy support on the internalization of the interpersonal problem solving task and positive motivational and experiential outcomes. The

results suggest that an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style is beneficial to youths' experience, leading to higher self-determined motivation, perceived task's value, task liking as well as less negative affect compared to a condition without autonomy support. Results are discussed along with the theoretical and practical implications of extending the reach of SDT to a clinical population of maladjusted teenagers.

Keywords: Self-Determination Theory, autonomy support, intrinsic need satisfaction, motivation, self-determined motivation, internalization, academic and social adjustment, clinical population.

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Liste des abréviations

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
AS	Autonomy Support
CFI	Comparative fit index
EM	Extrinsic motivation
IM	Intrinsic motivation
INS	Intrinsic need satisfaction
NC	Normed chi-square
NFI	Normed fit index
NNFI	Non-normed fit index
NOAS	No Autonomy Support
<i>M</i>	Mean
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
SA	Soutien à l'autonomie
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SES	Socioeconomical status
SRC	Social rehabilitation center
SRMR	Standardized root mean square residual
TDA	Théorie de l'Auto-Détermination
χ^2	Chi-square

*À tous ces enfants qui illuminent nos
vies, malgré les épreuves de la leur.*

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Introduction

After facing several contextual and developmental challenges, some adolescents suffer from severe emotional and behavioral problems. Often, maladjusted youths have cumulated a host of risk factors, originating from themselves (e.g., cognitive impairment, learning problems, difficult temperament) and/or from their familial and social environments (e.g., poverty, maltreatment, neglect, low SES; See Dumas-Potvin, Savard, & Joussemet, 2011 for a review). When psychosocial difficulties crystallize during adolescence, youths are at high risk for long-term academic and social maladjustment. The goal of the present dissertation is to identify contextual factors that may alter maladjusted adolescents' trajectories by fostering their academic and social adjustment.

Academic and Social Maladjustment

Adolescents' maladjustment is a serious hazard for their development and future altogether. For example, at the academic level, adolescents who suffer from severe emotional and behavioral maladjustment are particularly at risk for difficulties such as low motivation, poor engagement, failure and dropout (Fortin, Royer, Potvin, Marcotte, & Yergeau, 2004; Fulk, Brigham, & Lohman, 1998; Vondra, 1990; Wagner, 1995). Indeed, among special need students, those who present emotional and behavioral problems have the highest dropout rates (55%; Wagner, 1995). For society in general, academic maladjustment is worrisome because of the societal cost of dropout (e.g., health, social assistance, crime, employment, socio/affective dissatisfaction, etc.; Hankivsky, 2008). For maladjusted teenagers, to these costs is added the fact that academic disengagement also represents a step deeper into their social marginalization (Malo & Sarmiento, 2010).

Academic and social maladjustment are closely interrelated and they share many risk factors. Socially maladjusted adolescents become at risk for a wide range of psychosocial difficulties to be perpetuated into their adult lives

such as poverty, interpersonal difficulties, and various mental health problems such as substance abuse, internalizing (e.g., psychological distress) and externalizing (e.g., violence, crimes) problems (Lanctôt, 2005).

Rehabilitation Services

Given the high costs of maladjustment for youths and society, it is imperative to provide services to teenagers who suffer from severe emotional and behavioral difficulties. In Quebec (Canada), such psychosocial, rehabilitation, and social integration services are provided by Youth and Family Centres (YFCs; Centres Jeunesse). All services share the same purpose: to allow children and youths to live and grow in safe and stable environments. Among youths who receive YFCs services, it has been suggested that 35-45% have externalizing problems and about 10% have internalizing problems. When maladjustment is so severe that social rehabilitation services can no longer be offered within the family and/or community (e.g., foster family), placements in Social Rehabilitation Centers (SRCs; residential settings) are necessary to protect youths from their milieu and offer them treatment for their psychosocial, familial and behavioral problems. Several mental health problems have been reported in heterogeneous comorbidity patterns among youths placed in SRCs. For example, a study reports that 75% present oppositional disorder, 65% attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder, 47,5% conduct disorder, 62,5% depression and 32,5% anxiety (J Toupin, Pauzé, Frappier, Cloutier, & Boudreau, 2004). In addition to psychosocial services, adapted academic services are offered in special schools within SRCs. These special schools aim at supporting social rehabilitation within the academic domain, and provide adapted services entailed to help youths cope with their emotional and behavioral difficulties within an academic environment. Le Corff, Toupin, and Pauzé (2005) have found that among youths receiving services from YFCs, those receiving their education in special classroom for behavioral problems present significantly more mental health problems (more than one) such as anxiety, depression, attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder, conduct disorder, oppositional defiant disorder and drug/alcohol use than students of regular classrooms.

Unfortunately, in spite of the wide range of services offered to maladjusted teenagers placed in SRCs, studies have highlighted worrisome facts about both the academic success and the social rehabilitation of this clinical population. First, concerning education, Dumas-Potvin et al. (2011) have dressed a portrait of the academic difficulties youths in SRCs are facing. This article summarises the multidimensional social, familial and individual problems which are susceptible to thwart these youths' academic adjustment. As an indicator of their ongoing academic maladjustment, in Quebec, 68% of young women who had been placed in SRCs as adolescents had dropped out of school by their early 20s (Lanctôt, 2006). This high dropout prevalence indicates that the majority of youths who have been placed in SRCs are at high risk for poverty, ignorance, exclusion and distress, perspectives associated with academic dropout (Ménard, 2009). Unfortunately, this indicates that despite the adapted academic services offered within special schools, rehabilitation does not seem to succeed in 'hooking back up' youths to the academic domain.

Second, during social rehabilitation in SRCs, clinical workshops are offered to foster youths' social skills and eventually, their social rehabilitation. The few studies following teenagers who had received SRCs services report persistent problems and recurrent need of social services (Jean Toupin, Pauzé, & Déry, 2005). Indeed, when looking at youths receiving SRCs services, the majority had already been receiving the same services in the past (Thibault, 2005). Furthermore, many youths who had received social rehabilitation services still present social, emotional and behavioral problems when reevaluated later in life (Lanctôt, 2005, 2006; Thibault, 2005). For instance, many are poorly educated, live in precarious socioeconomical conditions, and/or experience interpersonal difficulties (e.g., violence). There are also high rates of delinquency, substance abuse and mental health problems. These recurrent difficulties and need for similar social rehabilitation services suggest that youths had not integrated the skills taught during rehabilitation to their value system and therefore were unable to maintain adjustment. In sum, it appears that the actual social rehabilitation services, both academic and social, do not yet allow youths

to internalize skills sufficiently to fully reintegrate society and to grow into well-adjusted adults.

Protective Factors

In spite of teenagers' past adversities and vulnerabilities, protective factors might come into play to moderate the negative impact of risk factors. It appears that the rehabilitation environments might be capable of providing at least two important resiliency factors: positive school and interpersonal experiences. In North America, it is increasingly believed that positive school experience can alter trajectories of maladjusted teenagers (suffering from physical, mental or emotional disabilities) by fostering problem solving, providing opportunities, and promoting cognitive abilities (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Masten, 2001). In Québec, a recent report states that academic persistence is so important that it can be seen as a "rescue plan" for children (Ménard, 2009). In addition, Masten (2001) comes to the conclusion that parenting skills and the development of youths' cognitive abilities are the two primary factors that may foster resilience in child development. Interestingly, during placements in SRCs, it is educators and special schools teachers who act as socialization and education agents. Therefore, both their ability to foster youths' cognitive skills and their interpersonal style, akin to a "parenting style", seem essential determinants.

Positive School Experience: Targeting Motivation

In a theoretical paper, Adelman and Taylor (1983) have proposed that, for youths with academic and behavioral problems, the primary target of interventions should be to enhance motivation, rather than the acquisition of specific skills. According to their model, socializing agents' interpersonal style may promote motivation to learn, which in turn, provides a flourishing ground for skill acquisition. Within the social rehabilitation milieu, it implies that youths could potentially benefit from a social context supportive of their motivation and from its buffering effects (e.g., academic persistence, social skills).

Because motivation seems to be a crucial construct in fostering academic and social adjustment, the motivation literature may be helpful to determine what can be done to support motivation of maladjusted youths to learn both social and

academic skills. Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985, 1991, 2000) is used as a theoretical framework for the present thesis. This prominent motivational theory defines key motivational constructs, which have the potential to promote optimal motivation. SDT suggests that socializing agents' interpersonal style can foster youths' motivation and internalization, thereafter leading to positive outcomes such as academic and social adjustment. Internalization is an important concept for social rehabilitation, that characterizes a naturally occurring process by which human beings actively transform external requests (e.g., social norms) into self-regulated behaviors and endorsed values (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Because of the central role of teachers and educators with adolescents during rehabilitation, their interpersonal style may be a key factor in providing an optimal social rehabilitation environment. Based on SDT, the purpose of this thesis is to identify how socializing agents may promote youths' motivation and adjustment, in the context of social rehabilitation. The next sections provide an overview of SDT, its key motivational constructs and the hypothesized relations between them (see Figure 1).

Self-Determined Motivation

Within SDT, there are distinctions made between the quality (vs. amount) of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Qualitative distinctions are made to reflect the degree to which motivation is self-determined; that is, congruent with personal will and values (Figure 2; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Reasons explaining why individuals engage in some tasks vary and, as they do, the degree to which they feel self-determined to do those tasks fluctuates (i.e., motivation).

Intrinsically motivated behaviors are the ones which do not require any contingency and that are characterized by a high level of self-determination. Intrinsic motivation (IM; Deci, 1975) is often described as a desire to act that comes from within. Indeed, IM is the desire to do something for its own sake, out of pleasure or interest. For example, in the context of social rehabilitation, youths could be intrinsically motivated to engage in an artistic or sportive activity that they like. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation (EM) pertains to important behaviors that are instrumental, done in order to gain something external to the

task itself. Such behaviors are externally prompted and may be perceived as uninteresting. However, they can be internalized in a more or less autonomous way. During the socialization process, teenagers often face demands from adults and numerous requests requiring them to participate in activities that do not stem from their own desire to act. This is the case for social rules applied in the context of social rehabilitation for example. Self-regulation is the process by which individuals attempt to adjust a spontaneous behavioral response (i.e., suppress or increase) so as to follow rules, match ideals, or pursue goals (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Sierens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, Soenens, & Dochy, 2009). Extrinsically motivated behaviors can be more or less self-determined (see Figure 2) depending on the self-regulation style which can be integrated, identified, introjected or external. According to SDT, the success of the internalization process varies as a function of the extent to which self-regulation is self-determined (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). Therefore, internalization is more likely to occur when behaviors are motivated by integrated and identified self-regulation.

A highly self-determined type of EM is obtained through integrated regulation. For maladjusted youths, a task would be fully integrated when the internalized behavior (e.g., adaptive problem solving skills) fits with the individual's values and feelings (e.g., valuing harmonious relationships). Another, highly self-determined type of EM occurs with identified regulation. For example, although the task of learning problem solving skills is not intrinsically motivating, the teenager may identify with the behavior of solving adequately social issues, endorse it and self-regulate with a sense of volition. That is, the required behavior in itself might not be pleasant, but the resulting outcomes of engaging in the behavior might be. In contrast, introjected regulation is not self-determined motivation because of a felt, self-inflicted pressure to behave. In this case, consequences of the behavior are provided by the individual himself either to avoid negative feelings (e.g., shame and guilt) or gain positive feelings (e.g., fame and pride; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Similarly, external regulation is associated with a controlled rather than self-determined form of motivation.

For example, external motivation would be experienced by youths engaging in problem solving workshop merely to avoid being punished or to obtain subsequent rewards from educators. Finally, amotivation refers to behaviors that are non-motivated, such as not acting or doing so passively, with the underlying belief that action will not lead to anything.

In sum, behaviors vary in the degree to which they are enacted autonomously. When action is taken through IM or well internalized forms of EM (i.e., integrated, identified regulation), the action is more volitional, more self-determined. On the contrary, behaviors are done out of pressure and are less self-determined when they are enacted through the process of external and introjected regulations (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Benefits of Self-determined Motivation

The literature reveals that the more motivation is self-determined, the more it is healthy and associated with positive affective, cognitive and behavioral outcomes (Koestner & Losier, 2002). Specific to the domain of education, whether it is in the academic settings or in the general context of learning, self-determined motivation has been repeatedly found to predict well-being, satisfaction, efforts, engagement, learning, valuing the learning activity, as well as persistence and performance (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Frédéric Guay, Ratelle, Roy, & Litalien, 2010; Koestner & Losier, 2002; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Tsai, Kunter, Ludtke, Trautwein, & Ryan, 2008; Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997; Williams & Deci, 1996). These findings illustrated that more self-determined motivation is a facilitating factor for healthy adjustment in the context of learning (see Figure 1).

Intrinsic Psychological Needs

Within SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), individuals are viewed as active organisms who have a natural and universal internalization tendency. This organismic theory sees human beings as inclined to integrate themselves in their social context as well as to integrate values and norms into their sense of self. It is believed that this tendency is inherent to all human beings, without exception for cultural or socioeconomical backgrounds for example. However, even if individuals have a universal internalization tendency that supports self-development, SDT stipulates that essential 'intrinsic psychological needs have to be fulfilled for this natural process to unfold. These three needs are the need for competence, relatedness and autonomy. The need for competence (White, 1959) refers to an individual's perceived effectiveness and ability to have an impact on the environment. Relatedness is the need for belongingness and the feeling of having a social network of significant others (as shown by care, love and support; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Finally, the need for autonomy (Richard De Charms, 1968) translates a sense of volition in one's choices and actions as opposed to being under control. When feeling volitional, one can engage in behaviors and resulting outcomes include adjustment and skills (Connell & Wellborn, 1991).

Importantly, autonomy is not synonymous of independence or individualism and should not be confounded with it (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim, & Kaplan, 2003; Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006b). Rather, within SDT, autonomy refers to a feeling of self-direction, full endorsement of one's behaviors whether its' origin is from oneself or from others (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The opposite of feeling autonomous is a sense of pressure, internal conflict and alienation. Globally, it is proposed that to promote a healthy development, individual's need for competence, relatedness and autonomy should be fulfilled.

Benefits of Intrinsic Need Satisfaction

Wealth of studies has supported the premise that intrinsic need satisfaction (INS) leads to healthy motivation, performance as well as well-being and is essential to mental/physical health (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2002). An environment that satisfies the three intrinsic needs fosters more self-determined motivation and is more likely to contribute to the internalization of external requests. A recent study (Milyavskaya & Koestner, 2011) has demonstrated the positive relation between INS, self-determined motivation and well-being across various life domains (e.g., school, work, family, friends). Specific to the domain of education, several studies conducted with regular students have shown that when intrinsic needs are satisfied, students experience several positive outcomes such as self-determined forms of motivation, well-being, academic persistence and engagement (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci, Hodges, Pierson, & Tomassone, 1992; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Filak & Sheldon, 2008; Frédéric Guay et al., 2010; Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Jang, Reeve, Ryan, & Kim, 2009; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Milyavskaya & Koestner, 2011; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992; Vallerand et al., 1997). Overall, the literature to date shows that INS is an important concept to consider in learning contexts, since it is related to indicators of healthy motivation and to positive learning outcomes (see Figure 1).

Facilitating Social Context: Socializing Agents' Interpersonal Style

The social context in which teenagers evolve can either nurture or thwart their intrinsic needs. The interpersonal style adopted by socializing agents is thus

seen as a key concept to consider. Research has shown that it is by providing structure, involvement, and autonomy support that socializing agents can sustain INS and promote the development of healthy motivational resources such as self-determination (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Filak & Sheldon, 2008; Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Su & Reeve, 2011).

First, structure is an important element of a supportive environment, perhaps particularly within learning contexts. When structure is present, behavior is limited by communicating clear and consistent guidelines about what is expected. In addition, predictable and consistent consequences are indicated by the socializing agent and applied if expectations are not met (Grolnick, 2003). Such behavioral control increases the likelihood of “doing things right” and therefore increases the odds of feeling competent (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Jang, Reeve, and Deci (2010), classify instructional behaviors that provide structure in three categories: (a) clear directions, (b) program of action to guide activities, and (c) constructive feedback toward outcomes.

Second, involvement refers to communicating a sense of connection to youths when interacting with them. Socializing agents’ involvement implies that the individuals feel known by the others, of interest to them, and emotionally supported (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Involvement from socializing agents is thought to promote emotional security and promote perceived relatedness (Connell & Wellborn, 1991).

Finally, autonomy support (AS) has been operationalized as providing rationales, empathy and choices, all conveyed in a non-controlling language (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994; Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, & Holt, 1984; Su & Reeve, 2011). Su and Reeve (2011) describe rationales as “verbal explanations that help the other person understand why self-regulation of the activity would have personal utility”; empathy as “tension-alleviating acknowledgments that the request one is making of the other is in conflict with his or her personal inclinations and that his or her feelings of conflict are legitimate (yet not necessarily inconsistent with activity engagement)”; offering choices as providing “information about options, encouragement of choice-

making, and encouragement of the initiation of one's own action"; and non-controlling language as "communications that minimize pressure (absence of 'shoulds', 'musts', and 'have tos') and convey a sense of choice and flexibility in the locution of behavior". When socializing agents adopt such an interpersonal style to make requests, they are said to be autonomy-supportive. This is likely to sustain the need for autonomy and to encourage more self-determined motivation.

Autonomy thwarting and its costs. The opposite of having one's autonomy supported is experiencing pressure or psychological control, which can be manifested in numerous ways such as conditional regard, guilt induction, threat, manipulation, and intrusion (Mageau et al., 2012; Ryan, 1982). It is important not to confound psychological control with behavioral control (or structure; See Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010 for a review). In the last decade, this distinction has been clarified. Structure is defined as behaviors that intend to manage youngsters' actions (Barber, 1996). As to psychological control, Barber (1996) defines it as "control that constrains, invalidates, and manipulates children's psychological and emotional experience and expression". Autonomy is thwarted when people feel pressured to think, feel, and behave in a certain way, preventing them to act in accord with their interests and values (Chirkov et al., 2003; Jang et al., 2009). Whereas structure has been associated with positive outcomes such as less externalizing problems and positive motivational outcomes (Barber, 1996; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Grolnick, 2003; Jang et al., 2010; Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss, 2001; Sierens, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, & Dochy, 2009), psychological control has been shown to be detrimental to adolescents' development and well-being. Indeed, studies have linked psychological control to more internalizing and externalizing problems, more aggressive/oppositional behaviors as well as academic and social maladjustment (Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002; Soenens, 2006). Furthermore, in a recent study, teachers' controlling style has been demonstrated to decrease self-regulatory capacities in students, which is associated with achievement (Sierens, Soenens, et al., 2009). In summary, although controlling techniques might be

successful at getting the desired behaviors, it impedes the internalization process and seems to lead to further maladjustment rather than to promote healthy development. In contrast, an environment that provides rationales for requests, as well as some choice and empathy, all in a non-controlling communication style, that is structured with clear requests and predictable consequences, and that sustains interpersonal connections tends to foster INS (see Figure 1).

The Benefits of Autonomy Support

The construct of perceived autonomy and its related social context of AS are central to SDT (Ryan et al., 2006b). It thus appears important to give a special attention to the strong body of empirical research that exists and supports the idea that the autonomy-supportive interpersonal style in the context of learning facilitates individuals' autonomous motivation and other positive experiential outcomes. Empirical studies across various life domains (e.g., education, sports, health) have shown that when individuals perceive their socializing agents to be autonomy-supportive, they experience higher INS and higher levels of self-determined types of motivation along with other positive experiential outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Reeve, 2009). In the education domain (see Reeve, 2009 for a review), studies conducted within normative populations of adults, adolescents and children have found several benefits of AS, including well-being (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000), persistence (Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992; Vallerand et al., 1997), competence (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Jang, 2008), as well as engagement, interest and value (Jang, 2008; Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, 2004; Tsai et al., 2008). Thus, it appears clearly that autonomy-supportive contexts are related to several advantages on motivation, INS as well as on other experiential and learning outcomes.

In addition to numerous correlational studies revealing strong associations between AS and many positive outcomes, experimental studies have demonstrated the beneficial impact of AS on participants' learning experience (see Su & Reeve, 2011 for a Meta-analysis). Indeed, an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style has been shown to promote internalization of the tasks

requested by socializing agents, engagement, and self-determined motivation (Boggiano, Flink, Shields, Seelbach, & Barrett, 1993; Deci et al., 1994; Joussemet, Koestner, Lokes, & Houliort, 2004; Koestner et al., 1984).

Conducted within the general population, the following experiments have looked at the impact of AS (vs. controlling or neutral contexts) in learning contexts and overall, have shown how it can foster optimal learning environments. For instance, Koestner et al. (1984) manipulated the manner in which limits about neatness were set during a painting activity for children. Results revealed that setting limits using AS promoted greater IM, enjoyment, creativity and quality of arts compared to the condition with controlling limits (shoulds and musts). These results suggest that even when children learn in a context of external constraints, AS can promote healthy motivation, pleasure and performance.

Three studies conducted with college students (Jang, 2008; Reeve, Jang, Hardre, & Omura, 2002) demonstrated that during uninteresting activities, providing a rationale in an autonomy-supportive way (i.e., non-controlling language and empathy) promotes higher self-determined motivation, engagement, conceptual learning, as well as subsequent task effort compared to a context without rationale and autonomy-supportive communication. Furthermore, in a study with university students, Boggiano et al. (1993) looked at the impact of offering choices (vs. controlling directives) on students' learning of problems solving strategies. Students who had been offered choices when asked to solve problems felt significantly more self-determined and performed better than students who received controlling directives. Surprisingly, in spite of this positive impact of AS, students perceived their instructor as less competent (e.g., less useful and effective teaching strategies) when directives were given with choices. Together, these studies demonstrated that a context offering rationale, choices or empathy, all key AS elements, influences positively on students and their learning.

Finally, two studies investigated the impact of all AS elements in the context of learning an uninteresting task. Deci et al. (1994) and Joussemet et al.

(2004) tested the impact of an AS condition on motivation to learn and found that it fostered more self-determined motivation, task engagement, positive affect and perceived task value. More precisely, results revealed that there was a linear relation found between engagement and the number of facilitating factors that were present (Deci et al., 1994). Also, Joussemet et al. (2004) demonstrated that the benefits of AS were not moderated by students' self-regulatory capacity (teachers' reports), suggesting that AS can be beneficial even for more difficult children.

This idea that the benefits of autonomy-supportive contexts can also be present for more challenging students has also been supported in two recent studies (Black & Deci, 2000; Reeve et al., 2004). In both experiments, training in the autonomy-supportive interpersonal style was found to increase instructors' AS which, in turn, led to an improvement in students' well-being, self-determination, performance and engagement, even when students' initial motivation toward the task was poor (Black & Deci, 2000), and in spite of prior engagement (Reeve et al., 2004). Thus, the motivational and learning benefits of AS do not seem to be limited to well-adjusted students. These two experimental studies suggest that the positive impact of AS holds true even when a task is not interesting and when participants show a wide range of motivation/regulation.

On the other hand, in opposition to the results obtained by Boggiano et al. (1993), other researchers have not found AS benefits when it was operationalized solely by the provision of choice. Indeed, Sheldon and Filak (2008) compared the impact of need supportive conditions (i.e., factorial 2 X 2 X 2 design with autonomy, competence, relatedness) to a neutral and a need thwarting condition in the context of game-learning for university students. Results revealed that manipulating competence and relatedness affected positively many motivational outcomes (i.e., INS, mood, motivation and performance). However, the AS manipulation did not predict these positive outcomes, possibly because it did not include all AS elements (i.e., empathy, rationale, non-controlling language). This experiment suggests that AS involves more than the provision of choice.

In summary, INS is more likely when socialization occurs in a structured context where involved agents provide rationales for requests, as well as some choice and empathy, all in a non-controlling communication style. SDT hypothesized basic relations between the key motivational constructs presented above are illustrated in Figure 1. By satisfying adolescents' intrinsic needs, a supportive interpersonal style is said to foster self-determined regulation, along with positive experiential outcomes. Direct and indirect links between AS, INS, and positive outcomes have been repeatedly shown to be largely positive in several life domains such as family, work organisation, education, sports and even health (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

Influences on Socializing Agents' Interpersonal Style

In a recent article, Reeve (2009) reviews several factors that might lead to the use of a controlling style rather than an AS interpersonal style. This literature is helpful to understand what may influence socializing agents to adopt this supportive style with maladjusted teenagers or not. Three categories of reasons, initially identified by Grolnick (2003), are elaborated: *pressure from above* (environmental influences), *pressure from within* (personal influences), and *pressure from below* (youths' characteristics influences).

Pressure from below is defined as the reaction of the socializing agents to youths' passivity or negative attitudes during learning activity. This last category is of particular importance regarding the population of maladjusted teenagers since their individual characteristics and personal temperament can elicit the use of a controlling style. Indeed, studies have demonstrated that difficult children are more likely to face hostile and irritable parents than agreeable and cooperative children (Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002). In addition, experimental studies either manipulating the child difficultness (Jelsma, 1982) or asking mothers to act with a difficult and a non-difficult child (Anderson, Lytton, & Romney, 1986) have demonstrated that adults are more controlling with difficult children. Grolnick and Apostoleris (2002) report that mothers who perceive their adolescent as difficult are more controlling than mothers who perceive their adolescent as having an easy temperament. Similarly, learning disabled students'

teachers believe they need more control than regular students and use it more (Grolnick & Ryan, 1990).

These findings are congruent with the view that a dynamic process exists between powerful others and adolescents. In this bidirectional process, the behaviors of both children and adults might reinforce the other's behaviors (Kerr & Stattin, 2003). For example, an interpersonal style that relies on psychological control is known to increase the likelihood of internalizing or externalizing problems for youngsters, and these problems further prevent socializing agents from being autonomy-supportive. Indeed, as proposed by Patterson (1982) and supported by several studies (see Soenens, 2006 for a review), although the use of coercive strategies might be elicited by children, they might perpetuate children's problems rather than help. In sum, youths lacking motivation, engagement and displaying behavioral and emotional maladjustment may decrease the likelihood that socializing agents will use an AS interpersonal style (vs. controlling), as if youths would be "pulling for control" with their maladjustment (Reeve, 2009).

SDT Applied to Emotionally and Behaviorally Maladjusted Youths

Past literature has demonstrated the benefits of AS and INS to support the internalization of tedious task and to promote academic adjustment. Although SDT has been applied to numerous learning contexts and with a wide range of populations (i.e., children, adolescents, adults) very few studies have looked at clinical populations. Some studies have looked at INS in the context of special education comparing INS between groups of regular students, learning disabled and emotionally disabled students. Results indicated that INS differs across groups (Chouinard, Plouffe, & Roy, 2004; Fulk et al., 1998). Not surprisingly as they are facing several academic failures, learning disabled students present the lowest perceived competence. Compared to regular students, it is also reported that emotionally impaired students have lower perceived competence, as well as lower perceived autonomy (Chouinard et al., 2004). These studies have demonstrated that INS seems to remain an important concept to consider when

working with clinical populations, as need satisfaction might be thwarted by the nature of youths' difficulties.

Research investigating the relations of INS and motivational factors among a population of severely maladjusted youths is rare. To our knowledge, only one study (Deci et al., 1992) explored what motivational factors were related to academic adjustment and success among students with emotional disabilities. Results indicated that perceived teachers' support (AS and warmth/involvement) and students' sense of competence and autonomy were related to higher general self-worth, math and reading achievement, and lower anxiety. It is noteworthy that the outcomes of this cross-sectional study were about self-worth and anxiety in general rather than specific to the academic context. Furthermore, considering the nature of this population who potentially needs to be initially motivated before they can acquire new skills (Adelman & Taylor, 1983), it would have been meaningful to investigate the impact of INS and teachers' interpersonal style on indicators of academic adjustment other than achievement, for example engagement and persistence.

In sum, very few studies have explored the relations between the social context, INS, motivation and adjustment among populations of maladjusted teenagers. In spite of the lack of evidences, the few studies available suggest that the key motivational constructs (AS, INS, and self-determined motivation) remain of interest to better understand the social and academic adjustment of this population in the context of social rehabilitation.

Present Studies

Considering the lack of literature applying SDT principles to clinical populations, it is unclear if the hypothesized benefits of INS and AS apply to a population of youths experiencing severe behavioral and emotional difficulties. Knowing that the widely held beliefs and practices about dealing with difficult youths are usually oriented toward more authoritarian interpersonal styles, it seems important to determine if SDT principles still hold true with a clinical population of maladjusted teenagers. Furthermore, motivation is a crucial issue for academic and social skills acquisition. Unfortunately it seems that youths

placed in SRCs lack both academic motivation and motivation to engage in social rehabilitation workshops. Therefore, it appears that SDT is a well indicated theoretical framework to help understand this motivational problem. To our knowledge, no study has investigated the relations of all the SDT key motivational constructs (as represented in Figure 1), among a population of severely impaired youths. The present thesis aims to extend the reach of SDT to a clinical population of maladjusted teenagers in order to understand how academic and social adjustment might be promoted by socializing agents (see Figure 3). More precisely, the basic motivational constructs were related to the internalization and adjustment of teenagers with severe emotional and behavioral problems. Two studies are presented. The first article, submitted to the *Journal of Educational Psychology* proposes a study which had the objective to identify how teachers of special schools within SRCs promote youths' academic and social adjustment. Considering that teachers' interpersonal style and students' INS have both been found to promote positive academic adjustment within the general population, it seemed important to verify whether their positive impact could be generalized to a clinical population. The goal of this longitudinal study was to investigate the relations between basic motivational constructs (i.e., AS, involvement and structure; INS; self-determined motivation) and the academic adjustment of teenagers enrolled SRCs special schools. Both dropout intentions and affect at school (i.e., high positive affect and low negative affect) were used to assess two aspects of academic adjustment. All key variables were measured at the beginning and at the end of the school year. It was hypothesised that positive change in perceived teachers' supportive interpersonal style (i.e., AS, structure, involvement) from Time 1 to Time 2 would lead to increases in students' INS, which in turn would lead to more self-determined academic motivation. Also, it was postulated that an increase in self-determined motivation would, in turn, predict lower dropout intentions and a more positive affective experience at school (more positive affect and less negative affect).

The second article, submitted to *Motivation and Emotion*, aimed at testing whether AS led to better motivation and subjective experience during a social

rehabilitation task, by using an experimental design. Considering that in previous studies (Black & Deci, 2000; Joussemet et al., 2004; Reeve et al., 2004), AS was beneficial for a heterogeneous group of students (e.g., various levels of initial motivation, engagement and self-regulation), it seemed important to verify whether the seemingly universal positive effects of AS would extend and hold true within a clinical population of teenagers. The goal of Study 2, conducted with teenage girls placed in SRCs, was to measure the impact of an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style (vs. without AS) on the internalization of a tedious task. It was hypothesised that an AS context would lead to more self-determined motivation, autonomy, internalization of the task (i.e., perceived value) and a better appraisal of its experience (i.e., task liking, subjective well-being and perceived instructor's competence). Although inspired by common experimental designs used in the motivation literature, this experiment differed in important ways. In addition to being conducted with teenagers presenting severe emotional and behavioral problems, the study used an ecologically valid task, allowing generalization of results to the social rehabilitation context.

Together, these studies explored whether and how socializing agents' interpersonal style may serve as a social rehabilitation promotion factor by supporting maladjusted teenagers' intrinsic needs and motivation for social and academic skills acquisition. While Study 1 explored the relations between all key SDT constructs and maladjusted students' academic experience, Study 2 investigated the impact of an instructor's AS on youths' internalization of a tedious, but important social rehabilitation task and their subjective experience during this clinical workshop.

For each article presented in this dissertation, the first author (Audrey Savard) was the main contributor in all steps of the research process, from the research designs to the redaction of the articles. The second author (Dre Mireille Joussemet) has supervised the research process and revised all written work. Concerning Dre Mageau, she has been implicated in the data analysis and the redaction of the results sections of both articles. Julien S. Bureau collaborated on the first article by conducting statistical analyses and reporting results, supervised

by Dre Mageau. As for Julie Emond Pelletier, third author of the second article, she was the researcher who acted as the instructor during the experimental manipulation

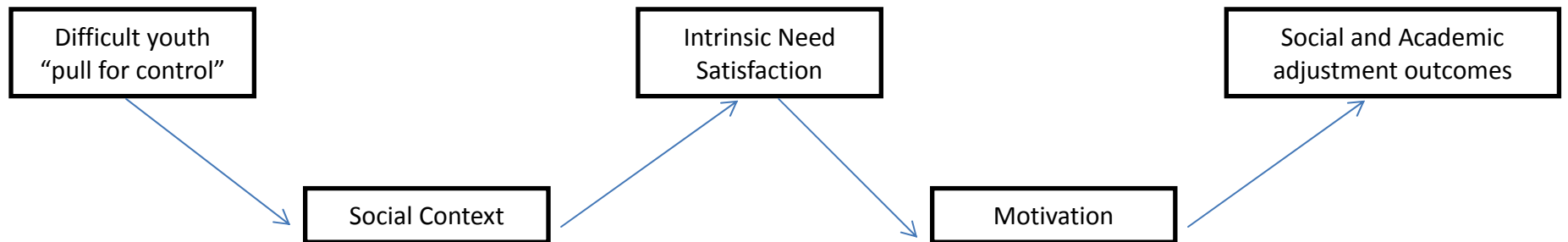


Figure 1. Basic relations between key motivational constructs

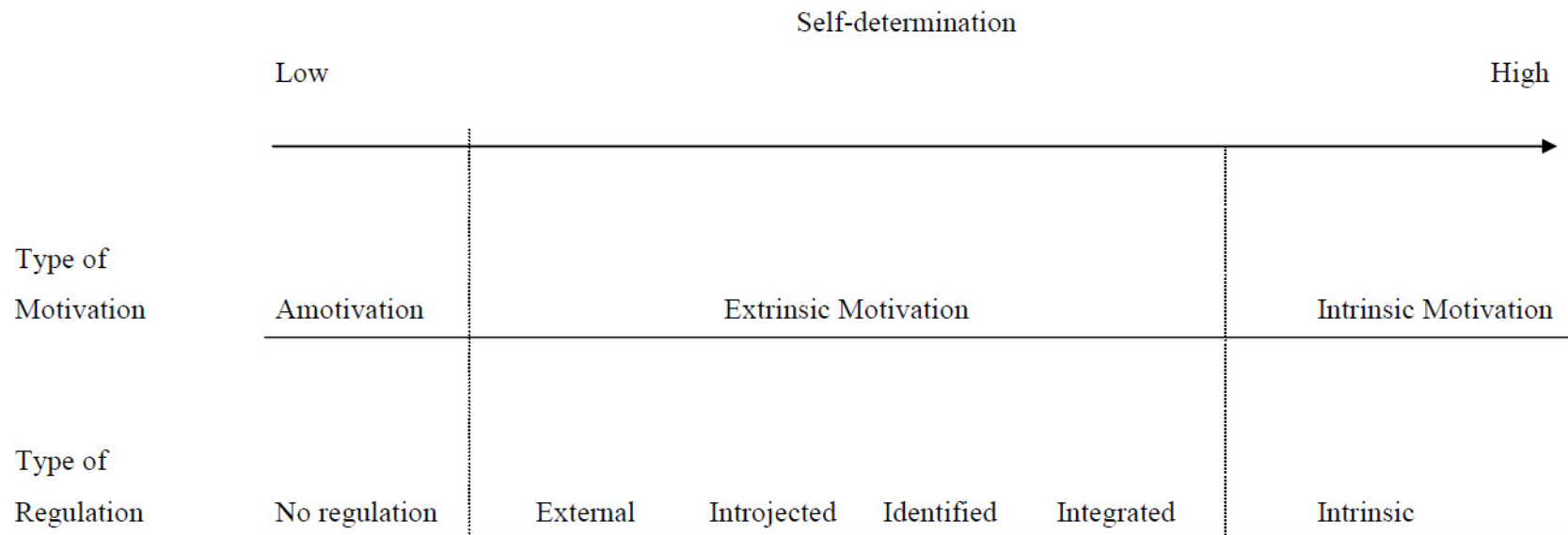


Figure 2. Self-determination continuum

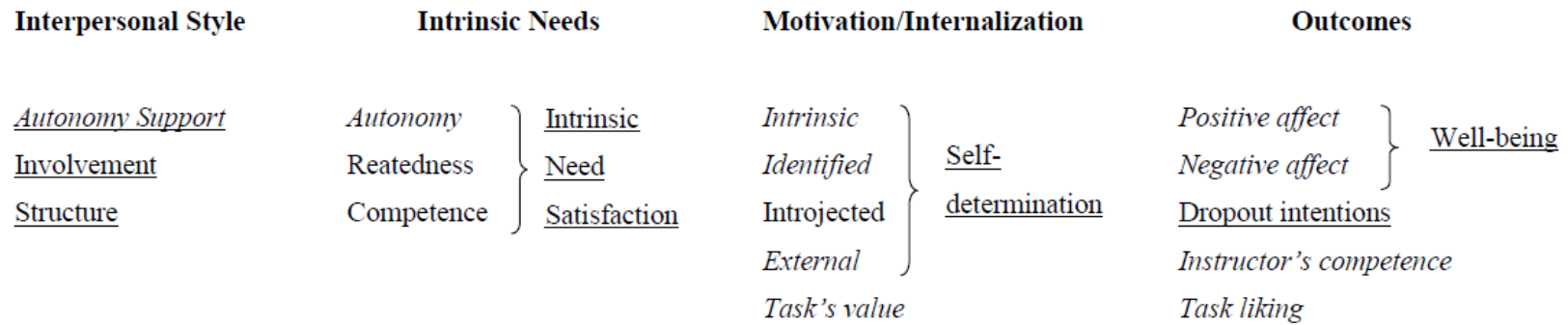


Figure 3. Variables studied in Study 1 and *Study 2*

Article 1

The Positive Influence of Teachers' Interpersonal Style on Maladjusted Teenagers' Need Satisfaction and Academic Adjustment

Running Head : ACADEMIC EXPERIENCE OF MALADJUSTED
TEENAGERS

The Positive Influence of Teachers' Interpersonal Style on Maladjusted
Teenagers' Need Satisfaction and Academic Adjustment

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Abstract

The beneficial impact of learning environments that are supportive of students' intrinsic needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness on academic adjustment has been well established within the general population but has yet to be demonstrated within clinical populations. The present study investigated the relations between teachers' interpersonal style on students' need satisfaction, their motivation style, as well as their dropout intentions and subjective academic experience (affect). Participants (N=115) were teenagers enrolled in Social Rehabilitation Centers special schools for maladjusted youths with severe emotional and behavioral problems. A longitudinal design allowed testing the hypothesis that improvement in teachers' provision of autonomy support, structure and involvement would be related to improvement in students' intrinsic need satisfaction at school, self-determined motivation, dropout intentions, and affect at school. Results demonstrate that when teachers' provision of autonomy support and involvement (but not structure) improve over the school year, students experience higher need satisfaction, which in turns leads to more self-determined academic motivation and less dropout intentions at the end of the school year. Improvement in student's need satisfaction also leads to more positive and less negative affect at school. By extending the academic benefits of a supportive environment and need satisfaction in school to a clinical population of maladjusted teenagers, the present study supports Self-Determination Theory's tenet that the benefits of intrinsic need satisfaction are universal. It also suggests that teachers' interpersonal style should be an important target of educational training and policies for at-risk students.

Keywords: Self-determination, intrinsic need satisfaction, motivation, academic adjustment, clinical population

The Positive Influence of Teachers' Interpersonal Style on Maladjusted Teenagers' Need Satisfaction and Academic Adjustment

The dynamic link between youths' academic adjustment, their well-being, and health is well established within today's societies (Hankivsky, 2008). One of the main reasons that underlie the strong desire and commitment to promote academic adjustment nowadays is its relationship to healthy development. In North America, it is increasingly strongly believed that positive school experience can alter trajectories of impaired students (including students with physical, mental, and emotional disabilities) by fostering problem solving, providing opportunities, and promoting cognitive abilities (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Masten, 2001).

Adolescents who suffer from severe emotional and behavioral maladjustment are particularly at risk for academic difficulties such as low motivation, poor engagement, failure, and dropout. Often, they have cumulated a host of risk factors originating from themselves (e.g., cognitive impairment, difficult temperament) and/or from their familial and social environments (e.g., maltreatment, neglect, low socio economic status). Students who experience such adversity are at increased risk for academic maladjustment (Fortin et al., 2004; Fulk et al., 1998; Vondra, 1990; Wagner, 1995). For some youths, severe maladjustment can lead to the need of receiving social rehabilitation services in residential settings. In the Province of Quebec (Canada), social rehabilitation centres (SRCs) aim to foster severely impaired teenagers' adjustment and social integration. While school persistence and academic success are key factors in promoting positive life trajectories, such positive academic adjustment is a difficult goal to reach. For example, 68% of young women who had been placed in a SRC as adolescents had dropped out of school by their early twenties (Lanctôt, 2006). While the cost of school dropout is high for individuals and for society as a whole (e.g., poorer health, social assistance, crime, unemployment, socio/affective dissatisfaction, etc.; Hankivsky, 2008), it is even more worrisome for maladjusted youths. Indeed, being already alienated from society (Malo &

Sarmiento, 2010) and at high risk in several life domains, academic dropout among this clinical population can only precipitate further marginalization and psychosocial maladjustment.

In spite of the multiple risk factors that maladjusted youths are exposed to, it appears crucial to identify the supportive elements within the academic milieu that have the potential to promote their positive academic adjustment. Providing positive academic experiences and fostering their resulting outcomes (e.g., healthy motivation, school persistence and well-being) could buffer against maladjustment and foster youths' current and future psychosocial development. Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985, 1991, 2000) is a prominent motivation theory that suggests interesting guidelines concerning how to promote optimal learning environments to support academic adjustment. Using SDT as a theoretical framework, the purpose of this study is to investigate what contextual variables can support severely maladjusted teenagers' academic adjustment.

Self-Determination Theory

Within SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985, 1991, 2000), individuals are viewed as active organisms who have a natural tendency toward integration and growth. Individuals actively tend to integrate their life experiences into a coherent sense of self as well as they tend to integrate themselves to society, fostering their well-being and development (Deci & Ryan, 2000). It is believed that this integration tendency is inherent to all human beings without exception for cultural, developmental, or socio-economical backgrounds for example. Importantly, SDT stipulates that the nurturance of three basic, universal psychological needs is essential for this optimal integration and adjustment to take place (Deci & Ryan, 2000). These intrinsic needs are the needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy. The benefits of intrinsic need satisfaction (INS) has been shown to be largely positive in several domains such as parenting, work organisation, sports, health, and education (Deci & Ryan, 2002). The need for competence (White, 1959) refers to an individual's perceived

effectiveness and ability to have an impact on his environment. When academic perceived competence is high, students feel they are able to satisfy academic requirements. Relatedness is the need for belongingness and connection. Students who feel related to their teachers perceive care, love, and support from them.

The need for autonomy (R. De Charms, 1968) translates into a sense of volition in one's choices and actions, as opposed to being controlled by internal or external forces. When feeling autonomous, students' behaviors are initiated or maintained with some sense of choice and cohesion with the self. The need for autonomy must not be confounded with independence or individualism (Chirkov et al., 2003). Rather, autonomy refers to a feeling of full endorsement of one's behaviors, whether they first originate from oneself or from others' requests (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The opposite of this volitional functioning is experienced pressure, which may come from others or from oneself. For example, students who experience pressure may behave in order to avoid punishment or feelings of shame.

Intrinsic Need Satisfaction and Academic Adjustment. SDT principles state that INS at school leads to healthy motivation, positive academic adjustment, and students' well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2002). Many researchers have applied SDT to educational settings to investigate the relation between INS and variables such as students' well being (Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000), school outcomes (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 1991; Frederic Guay, Boggiano, & Vallerand, 2001; Jang et al., 2009; Reeve et al., 2004), and more precisely school persistence (Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992; Vallerand et al., 1997). Connell and Wellborn (1991) have shown that when intrinsic needs are fulfilled, students' engagement, skills, and classroom adjustment are increased. This suggests that intrinsic needs are central to school engagement and persistence.

Motivation styles: Precursors of Academic Adjustment and Consequences of Intrinsic Need Satisfaction. Studies have found positive relationships between INS and educational benefits to be both direct and indirect, through its impact on promoting a healthier motivational style (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Milyavskaya & Koestner, 2011; Vallerand et al., 1997). Within SDT, there are distinctions made regarding the quality (vs. amount) of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). A qualitative differentiation is made to reflect the degree to which motivation is autonomous/self-determined; that is, congruent with personal will and values (Deci & Ryan, 2000). One highly self-determined motivation style is intrinsic motivation, when a behavior is enacted for its own sake, out of pleasure or interest (e.g., students playing during recess; Deci, 1975).

In contrast to intrinsically motivated behaviors, extrinsic motivation pertains to behaviors that are instrumental (i.e., done in order to gain something external to the task itself such as rewards). In the academic domain, these extrinsically motivated behaviors are frequently prompted by adults' requests to students. Different degrees of self-determination may arise within extrinsically motivated behaviors. Therefore, students can internalize requests and self-regulate with differing degrees of self-determination. A highly self-determined form of extrinsic motivation is identified regulation. Although the students do not act out of pleasure, they act because they identify with the behavior, endorse it, and self-regulate with a sense of volition (e.g., students who study for an exam, not out of pleasure, but because they value attaining a profession they like). Pressure to behave may come from oneself or others. Introjected regulation refers to rigid consequences that are self-administered. For example, students may act to avoid feeling shameful or to gain/restore self-worth (e.g., conditional self-esteem; Deci & Ryan, 2000). In contrast, external regulation refers to external pressure. It is one form of controlled regulation, such as students obeying to teachers' requests in order to obtain rewards or to avoid punishments. Finally, amotivation refers to a lack of motivation, such as not acting or doing so passively, with the underlying belief that action will not lead to anything. When

students' motivation is self-determined (i.e., mostly intrinsic and identified rather than introjected, external, or amotivated) it is associated with more positive academic adjustment such as higher persistence and performance, better conceptual learning and positive affective experience (For an overview see Reeve, 2009).

Teachers' Interpersonal Style and Intrinsic Need Satisfaction. The social environment can either nurture or thwart the intrinsic needs. By providing a social context that includes autonomy support, structure and involvement, teachers help supporting intrinsic need satisfaction and promote the development of healthy motivational resources such as self-determination (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Filak & Sheldon, 2008; Hardre & Reeve, 2003). First, in situations where external requests are made, autonomy support has been operationalized as providing choice, a rationale, and empathy (Koestner et al., 1984). When teachers adopt such an interpersonal style to address requests to students, they are said to be autonomy-supportive. This is likely to sustain students' need for autonomy and make them feel more self-determined. The opposite of having one's autonomy supported is experiencing psychological control, which can be manifested in numerous ways such as conditional regard, guilt induction, threat, manipulation, and intrusion (Mageau et al., 2012; Ryan, 1982). It is important not to confound psychological control with *behavioral* control (or structure; See Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010 for a review). Teachers are thwarting students' need for autonomy (e.g., are psychologically controlling) when they pressure them to think, feel, and behave in a certain way, preventing students to act in accord with their own interests and values (Chirkov et al., 2003; Jang et al., 2009). In the classroom, Reeve (2009) describes examples of psychologically controlling tactics such as frequently relying on extrinsic motivators, using pressuring language, neglecting to provide rationales for requests, and opposing students' emotional experiences rather than being empathic.

Conversely, structure is an important element of a supportive environment. Providing structure refers to communicating clear and consistent

guidelines about what is expected from students as well as predictable and consistent consequences if expectations are not met (Grolnick, 2003). Such environment increases the likelihood of “doing things right” and therefore increases the odds of feeling competent (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Finally, involvement refers to communicating a sense of relatedness and connection to students’ when interacting with them in the classroom. Teachers’ involvement is thought to promote perceived relatedness and implies that the students feel known by their teachers, of interest to them, and emotionally supported (Connell & Wellborn, 1991).

Teachers’ Interpersonal Style and Students’ Academic Adjustment.

Research has shown that teachers’ interpersonal style has an important impact on students’ academic adjustment. Autonomy support, structure, and involvement have all been associated with several positive academic outcomes such as INS, self-determined forms of motivation, well-being, and academic persistence (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Filak & Sheldon, 2008; Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Jang et al., 2009; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Milyavskaya & Koestner, 2011; Vallerand et al., 1997). An experimental study has shown that when teachers increase their level of autonomy-supportive behaviors through training, students’ school engagement is promoted (Reeve et al., 2004). On the contrary, multiple studies have demonstrated that when teachers use a more controlling style, students’ academic adjustment suffers, as reflected on indices of motivation, engagement, well-being, learning, and performance (see Reeve, 2009 for a review).

Special Populations

Together, the studies presented above provide strong empirical support to the hypothesis that satisfying rather than thwarting intrinsic needs helps students develop healthier (more self-determined) motivational styles and experience positive academic outcomes. The benefits of INS are well-established but within the general population. Although SDT has suggested that supporting INS should benefit all students, researchers seem to have overlooked clinical populations

with severe behavioral and emotional problems thus far. To our knowledge, only one study (Deci et al., 1992) explored what motivational factors predicted academic adjustment and success among students with emotional disabilities. Results indicated that students' sense of competence and autonomy as well as their perceived teachers' support (autonomy support and warmth/involvement) was related to higher general self-worth, math and reading achievement, and lower anxiety.

The few studies describing the educational context of maladjusted youths have demonstrated that adults tend to be more hostile and irritable when they face difficult children and adolescents and are more likely to use a controlling educational style (Anderson et al., 1986; Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002; Jelsma, 1982). Similarly, learning disabled students' teachers believe they need more control than regular students and use it more (Grolnick & Ryan, 1990). This body of research illustrates that although it may be beneficial to adopt an interpersonal style that nurtures students' intrinsic needs, teachers tend not to do so when they work with severely maladjusted students.

In sum, INS should be beneficial to all individuals, no matter their culture, familial background, or childhood adversity. However, to our knowledge, no study has empirically investigated the relationship between teachers' interpersonal style and maladjusted students' intrinsic needs, motivation style and academic adjustment. The present study aims at extending previous findings to this clinical population. Considering that teachers' support and students' intrinsic need satisfaction have both been found to promote positive academic adjustment within the general population, it seems important to verify whether their positive impact can be generalized within a clinical population. In other words, do maladjusted students also profit from teachers' autonomy support, structure and involvement? Does feeling competent, related, and self-determined also foster troubled youths' motivation and academic adjustment?

On the basis of the putative universality of intrinsic needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), it is hypothesized in the present study that maladjusted youths with severe behavioral and emotional problems will also

benefit from having an academic environment supportive of their intrinsic needs. Specifically, supporting these students' intrinsic needs within their academic milieu should foster healthier motivational resources and be conducive to a positive academic experience and persistence.

Both dropout intentions and affect at school (i.e., high positive affect and low negative affect) were used to assess two aspects of academic adjustment. All key variables were measured at the beginning and at the end of the school year. It was hypothesised that positive change in perceived teachers' interpersonal style (i.e., autonomy support, structure, involvement) from time 1 to time 2 would lead to increases in students' INS, which in turn would lead to more self-determined academic motivation. Finally, it was postulated that an increase in self-determined motivation would, in turn, predict lower dropout intentions and a more positive affective experience at school (more positive and less negative affect; see Figure 1).

Method

Participants

Participants were French-speaking adolescents (N T1/T2 = 115/80) aged between 12 and 17 years old ($M = 14.42$), enrolled in two Social Rehabilitation Centers (SRCs) special schools for maladjusted youths in Quebec, Canada¹. SRCs are residential facilities dedicated to youths who are too severely impaired, behaviorally and/or emotionally, to only receive services or be placed within the community. When placed in a SRC, most teenagers are also enrolled into a special school for maladjusted youths, where they receive their education without leaving the SRC they live in and have access to social services. Although the majority of youths enrolled in SRCs special schools are teenagers who are placed, some do not reside in a SRC, but are enrolled because of their severe behavioral problems.

The total sample was mainly composed of males (77.4%), which corresponds to the generally cited gender ratio prevalence for behavioral problems among teenagers (i.e., 3:1-4:1 ; Poliquin-Verville & Royer, 1992;

Wicks-Nelson & Israel, 2003). Ninety percent of participants were born in Canada and only 68% of their mothers and 46% of their fathers were Canadians. Importantly, between 15-25% of participants did not know the origin of at least one of their parent, and 20% and 47% did not have any contact with their mother and father, respectively. This absence of knowledge and/or contact with biological parents is representative of the difficult developmental context from which the studied sample comes from. At the beginning of recruitment, the majority of the sample was living in a SRC (68.2%). Other participants had received social services in the past and were still enrolled in a SRC special school (12.7%), while some were reintegrating their family after a residential placement (10%), and others were living in a foster family (7.3%), in a group home (0.9%), or in a supervised apartment (0.9%).

The main criterion for youths to be referred to enrol in a SRC special school is the presence of severe behavioral problems. Unsurprisingly, in our sample, 97% were labelled with severe behavioral problems, and a little less than 3% had additional known difficulties (i.e., hearing deficiency, pervasive developmental disorder, and psychopathology).

In terms of their academic adjustment, 30.7% of recruited participants had already dropped out of school in the past. Noteworthy, in Quebec, school is mandatory for all youths under 16 years old. This implies that once in a SRC and/or under Youth Protection Services, school is imposed upon all youths under that age. School non-attendance in youths under 16 of age can even result in SRC placement.

In the present sample, only 29% of students followed the regular academic program, receiving education to obtain their regular high school diploma. Others were either still receiving elementary school level education or were enrolled in special programs to prepare them to integrate the workplace. By comparing participants' age to their grade level, it was found that most participants (87%) were at least one year behind in their education. However, the current reform in education in Quebec (i.e., grades are based upon one's own

improvements and there are no retention to a grade level) did not allow a clear depiction of both the academic lag and performance of students.

Procedure

Teachers ($N = 30$) were informed about the study and were told that their participation consisted of welcoming the researchers into their classrooms at the beginning (T1, October) and toward the end (T2, April) of the school year as well as of completing a short questionnaire about participating students. All teachers agreed to allow the researchers to recruit their students and only one teacher (3.33%) refused to complete the teacher's questionnaire for personal reasons. After having received the approval from the ethics committee, teachers' consents were first obtained. Parental or legal guardian consents were then obtained (by phone) before soliciting students in their classrooms. Students were told that the participation consisted of filling-out a questionnaire about their school experience at the SRC, twice during the school year (about 45 minutes each time). When only a small number of students participated in a given classroom, they were taken out to complete the questionnaire. When the majority of a classroom was participating, students completed questionnaires in the classroom, while nonparticipants were kept busy. Class non attendance is frequent in such special schools, due to clinical activities as well as social and behavioral interventions. In order to have a representative sample by including students who were absent or removed from their classroom, participants who were absent during the initial data collection were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaire, a few days later. Nonetheless, some of students' legal guardians could not be reached, and these youths were not offered to participate (9.7%), others did not consent (7.7%) and some were absent at questionnaire completion in spite of multiple attempts (6.5%). Therefore, non-participation was mostly due to the nature of the population studied (i.e., familial, behavioral and academic situations).

Two research assistants handed out questionnaires. One of them read it out loud along with participants to avoid misunderstanding due to reading problems, a common problem among this population. The second assistant was

there to answer individual questions. The assistants reminded participants that questionnaires allow them to express privately what they thought of school and how they felt about it. The scales were adapted for uniformity, with all Likert scale items ranging from 1 (*Do not agree at all*) to 7 (*Very strongly agree*). The compensation offered was a chance per classroom ($\geq 1/10$) to win a 20\$ bookstore gift certificate, at each data collection (T1 and T2).

Measures

Individual differences. Information was collected in order to control for individual differences at the beginning of the school year (T1 only). Participants answered questions about personal characteristics (e.g., age, gender, grade level, etc.). Teachers also rated items from the Conners' Teacher Rating Scales from 0 (*Never*) to 3 (*Very often*) to evaluate students' experience of diverse problems in the past month (Conners, 2000). The cognitive problems subscale was used to estimate youths' academic difficulties (e.g., "Forget things he has learned"; 8 items; $\alpha = .91$). A score of self-regulation was obtained by averaging the reversed scores of the oppositional (e.g., "Defiant"), anxiety (e.g., "Shy, easily scared"), and emotional lability (e.g., "Needs must be met promptly, easily frustrated") subscales, and of an added aggression item (e.g., "Aggressive with others, fights"; 16 items; $\alpha = .86$). High scores indicate higher self-regulation capacities (i.e., low aggression, opposition, anxiety and emotional lability).

Autonomy Support. Students evaluated their teacher's autonomy support with the Perceived Parental Autonomy Support Scale (Mageau et al., 2012). This 20-item scale was adapted to the educational context. Students rated their agreement with teachers' autonomy-supportive behaviors (12 items, α T1/T2 = .87/.93; Sample items for providing (a) rationale: "My teachers make sure that I understand why they forbid certain things"; (b) choice: "My opinion is very important to my teachers when they make important decisions about me"; and (c) empathy: "My teachers listen to my opinion and point of view when I disagree with them"). They also rated the frequency of controlling behaviors (8 items, α T1/T2 = .89/.90; Sample items for (a) guilt induction: "When my teachers want me to act differently, they make me feel ashamed in order to make me change",

and (b) threats: “When my teachers want me to do something, I have to obey or else I am punished”). An index of teachers’ autonomy-supportive versus controlling interpersonal style was created by merging the (reversed) controlling score with the autonomy support score.

Structure. Items from two subscales of the Teacher As Social Context Questionnaire (Students' report; Belmont, Skinner, Wellborn, & Connell, 1988) were translated and adapted to measure structure. A total of 6 items (α T1/T2 = .56/.62) were used to measure students’ perception of the level of clarity in their teachers’ expectations (e.g., “My teachers explain clearly what they are expecting from me at school”) as well as the consistency and predictability of their behaviors (e.g., “My teachers keep changing how they act towards me”).

Involvement. Items of the students’ report form of the Teacher As Social Context Questionnaire (Belmont et al., 1988) were translated and adapted. Students rated how their teachers were involved and related to them in their interactions. A total of 9 items (α T1/T2 = .88/.88) were used to measure students’ perception of their teachers’ affection (e.g., “My teachers like me”), attunement (e.g., “My teachers know me well”), dedication of resources (e.g., “My teachers talk with me”) and dependability (e.g., “I can rely on my teachers to be there when I need them”).

Intrinsic Need Satisfaction (INS). Items of already existing scales were adapted to the academic context to measure how much students felt their intrinsic needs were fulfilled at school. A total of 9 items were used to measure feelings of autonomy (e.g., "I felt free to be myself"; α T1/T2 = .82/.83; Blais & Vallerand, 1991; Forest & Mageau, 2008; La Guardia, Ryan, Couchman, & Deci, 2000), 8 items targeted competence (e.g., "I feel I am a competent student"; α T1/T2 = .82/.89; La Guardia et al., 2000; Losier, Vallerand, & Blais, 1993) and 12 items pertained to relatedness with teachers (e.g., "I feel appreciated"; α T1/T2 = .95; La Guardia et al., 2000; Richer & Vallerand, 1998). To ensure a clear differentiation between students’ sense of intrinsic need satisfaction from teachers’ actual behaviors (i.e., autonomy support, involvement, and structure),

all items pertaining to INS reflected youths' feelings rather than teachers' behaviors (e.g., "At school I feel..." rather than "My teachers ..."). Since the three needs were highly positively correlated to one another ($r = .57/.72/.75$, $p < .01$) a global academic INS score was computed.

Self-Determined Motivation. Students' motivation style was assessed using the French version of the Academic Motivation Scale. The scale has been shown to be reliable and valid when used with both French-speaking and English-speaking samples (Vallerand, 1989; Vallerand et al., 1992). Students were asked to rate the extent to which they endorse reasons for going to school ("I go to school because..."). Five subscales were used (4 items/subscale): intrinsic motivation to know (e.g., "Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things"; α T1/T2 = .90/.94), identified motivation (e.g., "Because I think that a high school education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen"; α T1/T2 = .85/.87), introjected motivation (e.g., "To show myself that I am an intelligent person"; α T1/T2 = .88/.90), external motivation (e.g., "Because I need at least a high school degree in order to find a high-paying job later on"; α T1/T2 = .79/.85), and amotivation (e.g., "I can't see why I go to school and frankly I couldn't care less"; α T1/T2 = .84/.86). Two subscales from the original scale, namely the intrinsic motivation for stimulation and the accomplishment subscales were not used as the items did not appear well suited for a population of special needs students. A self-determination index was computed to evaluate the degree to which students were self-determined toward school, using the following formula: $[(2 \times \text{Intrinsic Motivation}) + \text{Identified Motivation}] - [((\text{Introjected Motivation} + \text{External Motivation}) / 2) + (2 \times \text{Amotivation})]$ (Vallerand & Rousseau, 2001).

Dropout Intentions. Dropout intentions were measured using a 3-item scale (e.g., "I intend to dropout of school"; α T1/T2 = .85/.87) that has been shown to predict actual dropout one year later and to be associated with actual motivational state (Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Vallerand et al., 1997).

Affect. In order to assess positive and negative affect among teenagers with possible reading/academic and emotional difficulties, we created a new

French scale using the PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) and the PANAS for children (Laurent et al., 1999) as models. The scale includes 10 positive (e.g., “Happy”, “Enthusiastic”; α T1/T2 = .91/.92) and 10 negative (e.g., “Mad”, “Sad”; α T1/T2 = .70/.88) affect items chosen for their simplicity. The instructions targeted how students felt at school in the past two weeks (“Indicate how much you felt each of these emotions in the past two weeks at school”). Affect scores were obtained by merging the positive and negative (reversed) subscales, such that higher scores on this measure represent more positive affect, paired with less negative affect.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

In total, 80 participants (14 females, 66 males; mean age = 14.15 years at Time 1, $SD = 1.24$ years) completed questionnaires both at Time 1 and Time 2. When these participants were compared to the ones who participated only at Time 1 ($N = 35$), they were found to report similar levels of perceived involvement, perceived autonomy support, need satisfaction, academic self-determination, and affect (all t s (106-113) < 1.29 , all p s $> .20$) and teachers reported similar evaluation of their cognitive and auto-regulation problems (t (105) = 0.89, $p = .37$, and t (105) = 1.70, $p = .09$, respectively). However, they reported slightly less dropout intentions (t (110) = 2.02, $p = .05$) than adolescents who did not complete T2 reports, indicating that the sample may not well represent the least motivated students. Missing values in the final sample were scarce (less than 1.2% in total). All variables were normally distributed, with skewness values ranging from -1.51 to 1.00, and kurtosis values ranging from -1.40 to 2.47 (Kline, 2005). Moreover, there was no univariate or multivariate outlier (beyond $p = .001$).

Table 1 presents the sample’s descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the central measures (i.e., perceived autonomy support from teacher, perceived involvement from teacher, perceived structure provided by teacher, INS, motivation styles, dropout intentions, and positive and negative affect).

Main Analyses

The hypothesized model (see Figure 1) was tested with structural equation modeling (SEM), using IBM SPSS AMOS software (Version 19.0; Blunch, 2008). These analyses were selected because they are designed to simultaneously investigate patterns of relations among variables. These analyses also have the advantage of yielding fit indices that denote the adequacy of the proposed model to the data. These fit indices are obtained by comparing observed variance-covariance matrices to expected ones, which are derived from proposed theoretical models of relations. In the present study, we relied on the model Chi-square (χ^2), the normed Chi-square (normed χ^2), the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), the normed and non-normed fit indices (NFI & NNFI; Bentler & Bonett, 1980), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) to evaluate model fit².

The hypothesized model first posited that positive change in perceived teachers' interpersonal style from Time 1 to Time 2 (i.e., autonomy support, structure, involvement) was positively related to increases in need satisfaction, which in turn would lead to positive change in self-determined academic motivation. An increase in self-determined motivation in turn was postulated to predict a decrease in dropout intentions and improved affect at school (more positive and less negative affect). Changes in dropout intentions and affect were obtained by predicting each outcome at Time 2 while controlling for its respective score at Time 1. Change in each predictor (perceived teachers' behavior, INS, and self-determined academic motivation) was obtained by first regressing each predictor at Time 2 on its score at Time 1 and saving the unstandardized residuals (i.e., variance in Time 2 not accounted for at Time 1). Residuals for each predictor were then entered into the equation of the proposed model. The hypothesized model (Figure 1) was thus composed of 9 observed variables: 5 exogenous variables (i.e., baseline dropout intentions, baseline affect, involvement residuals, structure residuals, and autonomy support residuals) and 4

endogenous variables (INS residuals, self-determined academic motivation residuals, dropout intentions at Time 2, and affect at Time 2).

Results first showed that structure was not related to INS change. To be parsimonious and to obtain a better fitting model, we deleted this variable and tested this modified model. The fit of this second model was acceptable but not excellent, $\chi^2(15) = 28.37, p = .019$, normed $\chi^2 = 1.89$, CFI = .95, NFI = 0.91, NNFI = .88, RMSEA = .11 (CI90 = .04 - .17), SRMR = .09. Beta weights showed that increases in perceived involvement and perceived autonomy support predicted positive change in INS (both β s = .41), which in turn was positively related to increases in self-determined motivation ($\beta = .62$), which in turn predicted a decrease in dropout intentions from Time 1 to Time 2 ($\beta = -.50$) and improvement in affect from Time 1 to Time 2 ($\beta = .39$). Although the general fit of this second model was acceptable, the RMSEA statistic suggested that some important additional paths might have been omitted. We thus added the direct paths between each predictor and the outcomes, one at a time, and found that a direct link between INS and affect at Time 2 would significantly improve model fit ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 11.51, p < .001$). Adding the other direct links had no impact on the fit of the model. The proposed model was thus changed accordingly and included a direct path between INS and affect at Time 2. After adding this additional path, one path became non-significant and was deleted from the proposed model. Specifically, the link between self-determined academic motivation and affect was no longer significant, suggesting that INS had a direct effect on affect, which was not mediated by self-determined motivation.

This modified and final model (see Figure 2) was then tested. Results showed that the fit of this model was highly satisfactory, $\chi^2(15) = 18.29, p = .25$, normed $\chi^2 = 1.22$, CFI = .99, NFI = 0.94, NNFI = .97, RMSEA = .05 (CI90 = .00 - .12), SRMR = .04. Specifically, increases in perceived involvement ($\beta = .40$) and perceived autonomy support ($\beta = .42$) predicted positive change in INS, which in turn was positively related to increases in self-determined academic motivation ($\beta = .63$). Self-determined motivation in turn predicted decreases in

dropout intentions from Time 1 to Time 2 ($\beta = -.50$). INS also directly predicted improvement in general affect from Time 1 to Time 2 ($\beta = .51$).

In addition, bootstrap confidence interval estimates of the indirect effects³ (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) were calculated to test the indirect effects of change in involvement and autonomy support on change in dropout intentions from Time 1 to Time 2 (via INS and self-determined academic motivation) and on change in affect from Time 1 to Time 2 (via INS). The indirect effect of INS on change in dropout intentions from Time 1 to Time 2 (via self-determined academic motivation) was also investigated. Results revealed that positive change in both involvement and autonomy support had a decreasing effect on dropout intentions ($\beta = -.12, p = .03$ and $\beta = -.17, p = .001$, respectively), and a positive effect on affect ($\beta = .16, p = .03$ and $\beta = .24, p = .001$, respectively). Furthermore, improvement in INS also had an indirect impact on dropout intention, $\beta = -.36, p < .001$.

When age or gender was included as covariates, the fit of the respective models were still acceptable ($\chi^2(19) = 22.81, p = .25$, normed $\chi^2 = 1.20$, CFI = .99, NFI = 0.93, NNFI = .97, RMSEA = .05 (CI90 = .00 - .12) and $\chi^2(19) = 26.39, p = .12$, normed $\chi^2 = 1.39$, CFI = .97, NFI = 0.92, NNFI = .94, RMSEA = .07 (CI90 = .00 - .13), respectively). Furthermore, modification indices indicated that adding direct paths between the covariates and the other variables would not improve model fit, with the exception of significant links between both age and gender and self-determined motivation, ($\beta = -.17$ and $\beta = .20$, respectively). These paths indicated that, in this sample, older and male were more self-determined than women. Importantly, adding the covariates did not significantly alter the observed relations in the model ($\Delta\beta < .01$ for all β s). Age and gender were therefore not included in the present model. We also investigated if the model held while controlling for students' cognitive difficulties and self-

regulation problems, as these variables are likely to influence teachers' behaviors toward their students. When cognitive difficulties or self-regulation problems were included as covariates, the fit of the respective models were still acceptable ($\chi^2(19) = 21.08, p = .33$, normed $\chi^2 = 1.11$, CFI = .99, NFI = 0.94, NNFI = .98, RMSEA = .04 (CI90 = .00 - .11) and $\chi^2(19) = 25.93, p = .13$, normed $\chi^2 = 1.32$, CFI = .98, NFI = 0.92, NNFI = .94, RMSEA = .07 (CI90 = .00 - .13), respectively). Furthermore, modification indices indicated that adding direct paths between the covariates and the other variables would not improve model fit, with the exception of a significant negative link between self-regulation and affect, $\beta = -.20$. This relation suggests that the more students have self-regulatory capacities, the least they experienced positive affect. Importantly, adding the covariates did not significantly alter the observed relations in the model ($\Delta\beta < .02$ for all β s). Cognitive difficulties and auto-regulatory capacities were therefore not included in the present model.

Taken together, these results suggest that when maladjusted students perceived that their teachers' involvement and autonomy support increased over time, they experienced increases in the satisfaction of their intrinsic, psychological needs in school, which helped them become more self-determined in their academic motivation. In turn, improvement in academic motivation led to decreases in students' dropout intentions. Increases in INS at school also directly predicted more positive (and less negative) affective experiences at school.

Discussion

Altering maladjustment trajectories becomes a crucial agenda for adolescents with severe emotional and behavioral problems. The resiliency potential of the academic context implies that it is worthy to investigate what factors may promote a positive academic experience for this population. In spite

of the particularly preoccupying costs of low academic motivation and persistence among maladjusted youths, most of the motivation research has been done within the general population. Indeed, little attention has been given to more vulnerable clinical populations. This study was based on a strong empirical body of research suggesting that the benefits of intrinsic need satisfaction (INS) are universal (Deci & Ryan, 2000). It was hypothesized that all students, regardless of their contextual and personal difficulties, will experience positive adjustment when exposed to an academic context that nurtures their intrinsic needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. The results of the present study suggest that, as it was hypothesised, maladjusted youths do benefit from an academic environment that nurtures their intrinsic needs. In exploring the long term impact of teachers' interpersonal style upon maladjusted students' academic adjustment, it was found that improvements in teachers' interpersonal style (autonomy support and involvement) was associated with positive changes in students' feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness in school, which helped them experience more self-determined academic motivation. Improvements in students' INS was directly associated with a more positive (and less negative) affective experience at school, and indirectly associated with lower dropout intentions, through an improvement in self-determined academic motivation. In sum, whereas the impact of INS on dropout intentions seems to be mediated by academic self-determination, INS directly influences affect.

These results illustrate that when students perceive improvement in their teachers' interpersonal style over the year it makes a difference on their experience and adjustment. Interestingly, from teachers' perspective, this means that the first impression may not be what matters the most. Rather, as the relationship with students evolves during the year, increases in involvement and autonomy support make a difference for their students' adjustment.

Although teachers' provision of structure was positively correlated with autonomy support and involvement, it was not a construct that uniquely contributed in predicting changes in academic motivation and adjustment. This result is not only unexpected, but of concern, since structure is seen as a key

dimension of any intervention targeting behaviorally maladjusted youths. It has been reported to be a very important interpersonal component to provide, in conjunction with autonomy-supportive behaviors (Jang et al., 2010; Sierens, Vansteenkiste, et al., 2009). Within the literature studying maladjusted teenagers, it has been shown that controlling contexts tend to exacerbate behavioral problems, but that structuring their environment is essential (e.g., Greene et al., 2004). Nonetheless, in this sample of severely maladjusted students, in order to experience improvements in how one feels in class and how one contemplates dropout, it seems that increases in relational dimensions (that convey affiliation and respect) have a stronger influence than increases in the more structural dimension (contingencies).

Perhaps the fact that change in structure over time was not a significant predictor of students' improvements indicates that autonomy support and involvement are more salient constructs of a supportive context among this population. Deci and colleagues (1992) found differences in the impact of teachers' behaviors depending on the type of disabilities students were experiencing. While autonomy support was somewhat more important than involvement among emotionally handicapped students, involvement was more important than autonomy support for students with learning disabilities. These results are consistent with our findings. Future studies could explore which interpersonal dimension plays a stronger role for students presenting diverse adjustment problems. Finally, it seems important to remind that structure within the social context has typically been associated with achievement outcomes (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). The outcomes targeted in the present study did not represent these aspects of students' academic adjustment for which structure provision might be beneficial, such as behavioral engagement (e.g., attention, effort, participation) and performance.

It was interesting to find that there seems to be a direct relationship between INS and students' affective experience. The only partial mediation by self-determined motivation has also been found in a recent study. Milyavskaya

and Koestner (2011) have found that motivation was only a partial mediator between INS and well-being and hypothesized that INS in specific life domains (e.g., school) might have in itself a positive effect on subjective well-being and does not need other constructs to explain the relationship. Our findings in a school context do suggest that the satisfaction of relatedness, autonomy and competence leads students to feel better in class.

Limitations and future research

Some methodological limitations constrain the generalizability of our findings. One limit pertains to the size of the sample, which was composed of a relatively small number of adolescent students. Future research should aim at replicating these findings with clinical populations of diverse developmental stages and with larger sample sizes. A larger sample size could increase studies statistical power and allow for longer longitudinal designs.

The present study did not examine learning and performance outcomes. Our goal was to study the subjective experience of these students rather than their actual achievement. Hence, we explored motivational and experiential constructs that were thought to reflect the academic *experience* of students. This was based upon the theoretical premise that for maladjusted students, the primary target intervention should be motivation rather than specific skills (Adelman & Taylor, 1983). Nonetheless, it seems important for future research to study whether teachers' interpersonal style, students' INS and academic self-determination would also promote improvements in classroom behavioral adjustment, learning, and performance.

Considering the severity of the participants' impairments, the selected measures of academic affective experience included only self-reported positive and negative affect. Our purpose was to include indicators of an emotionally positive academic experience and to avoid focusing on psychopathology (e.g., depression). Future research could integrate psychopathology indices to gain a broader understanding of the links between INS, motivation, emotional/behavioral symptoms, and academic adjustment.

Another limitation pertains to measures. A holistic perception of teachers' interpersonal style was obtained by asking students to report a global perception of all their teachers (e.g., "My teachers like me") because our purpose was to study students' feelings about school in general and not a specific academic subject or teacher. It would have been interesting to assess and study how differences across teachers predict differential adjustment. Although it is a widely used procedure, self-reports are limited. Relying exclusively on students' perceptions includes the possibility that their current perception was influenced by their prior experiences of the academic milieu and their global perception of teachers' educational style. Future research could benefit from observational measures and cross-informants, for students' as well as teachers' reports. Furthermore, the scales used to measure motivational outcomes were initially validated with normative populations, but not with the clinical population targeted in the present study. When exploring the data, it was found that the motivational scale did not exactly reveal the simplex pattern theorized by SDT.. This is a limitation of this study suggesting that further investigation should be done as to better measure motivation subtypes among this clinical population of adolescents.

Although the longitudinal design suggested interesting relations between teachers' interpersonal style and students' academic adjustment, the directionality of those links would need to be clarified by an experimental design. Furthermore, cross-lag analyses could explore whether the absolute levels of teachers' autonomy support and involvement, student's INS and self-determined motivation during the school year can predicted improvement in students' academic adjustment over time.

Though the analyses used cannot determine the directionality of our results, it nonetheless suggests that the data is in line with the proposed model. Furthermore, other experimental studies have demonstrated that teachers' autonomy support significantly impact students' outcomes. For example, an experimental study with maladjusted teenage girls placed in SRCs has shown the

autonomy-supportive interpersonal style to predict positive motivational outcome at the situational level (i.e., during a learning activity; Savard, Joussemet, Emond Pelletier, & Mageau, 2011). Nevertheless, the results of the present study should be replicated with an experimental research design in order to test the directionality of the observed relations.

Implications

Despite these limitations, it appears important to emphasize the practical and social implications of our findings. Many social agents state preoccupations about the feasibility of providing supportive educational contexts to maladjusted teenagers. These concerns stand partly from the widely-held idea that teenagers with academic difficulties need to be controlled and that motivation can be obtained only by external prompts to initiate an interest in learning (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). While we argue that the best way to promote academic adjustment is to support students' needs, we do not overlook the fact that it is more challenging to do so when working with maladjusted students. In a recent article, Reeve (2009) proposed reasons for teachers to be inclined to use a controlling style and suggested that it may result from a reaction to students' low motivation and engagement as well as difficult behaviors. Although we agree that troubled youths do "pull for control" (Grolnick, 2003), our data provide support to the idea that providing a need nurturing context promotes positive academic adjustment (motivation, well-being and persistence), even for severely maladjusted students.

Future education policies should dedicate a very special attention to the determinants of teachers' interpersonal style and facilitate the use of need-supportive communication. With several factors being likely to influence teachers' interpersonal style (For a review see Reeve, 2009), it would be important for future research to study the key factors of teachers' supportive style when facing troubled youths in the classroom. In addition to training (Reeve et al., 2004; Su & Reeve, 2011), taking a closer look at teachers' own need satisfaction at work would be fruitful. Indeed, teachers' perceived support (vs. pressure) has been pointed as a determinant of their educational/interpersonal

style (Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002; Reeve, 2009). For example, Reeve (2009) reports research that demonstrates that when teachers are pressured with students' performance or restricted about the curriculum by administrators, they tend to use more controlling strategies. Thus, it would also be important to explore how outside forces might support teachers and evaluate the impact they have on their interpersonal style when teaching and students' adjustment within clinical populations.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study has provided support for SDT theoretical tenet that the benefits of intrinsic need satisfaction are universal. Teachers' interpersonal style was found to be linked to students' intrinsic need satisfaction, healthy motivation, and thereafter positive academic adjustment, despite of the clinical nature of the studied population (severely troubled youths receiving social rehabilitation services). Therefore, it seems crucial that research and educational policies look thoroughly at how teachers might be helped to support students' need satisfaction to promote motivation and academic adjustment among the most vulnerable youths and, by doing so, provide them with the opportunity to improve their difficult life path. Indeed, engaging these teenagers in a positive academic experience may alter their (up to this point) maladjusted trajectory. By allowing them to hang on to the education system, key interpersonal and motivational factors could well benefit the future of these youths and, eventually, the society they live in.

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Footnotes

¹ In Quebec, Youth and Family Centers; (*Centres Jeunesse*) provide psychosocial, rehabilitation, and social integration services in relation to The Youth Protection Act (81%), The Youth Criminal Justice Act (14%) and An Act respecting Health Services and Social Services (4%; Centre Jeunesse de Montréal, 2011). These laws and their related services all entail to a same purpose: to allow children and youths to live and grow in safe and stable environments by providing services related to child placement, adoption/adoption disclosure, expertise to court and mediation. Recruited participants were receiving or had received services mainly under the Youth Protection Act and the Act respecting Health Services and Social Services (i.e., voluntary services to the families). Quebec has a unique and complex social rehabilitation system which may defer from those encountered in the rest of Canada and the United States. Social Rehabilitation Centers (SRCs) are residential placement settings that cannot be compared to detention centers, foster homes/groups or in-patient mental hospitals. Rather, they are settings that entail to both protect youths from their milieu and to offer treatment for social adjustment problems, both internalized and externalized.

² The 2 tests for differences between the estimated and observed covariance matrices, such that a non-significant p value supports the adequacy of the proposed model. The normed χ^2 , which is the ratio of the chi-square statistic on its degrees of freedom, takes into account the sample size and is thus usually a better fit index than the χ^2 . Values smaller than 2.0 for this index indicate a good fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The CFI, NFI, and NNFI are comparative or incremental fit indices that assess fit relative to other models (Kline, 2005). Values greater than .95 on the CFI, the NFI, and the NNFI are indicative of a good-fitting model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The RMSEA is a parsimony-adjusted index which corrects for model complexity (Kline, 2005). Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggest that RMSEAs less than .05 are indicative of a “close fit” and that values up to .08 represent reasonable errors of approximation. Finally,

SRMR is a measure of the mean absolute correlation residual (i.e., the mean difference between observed and predicted covariances) and should be less than .10 to indicate a reasonable fit (Kline, 2005).

³ The bootstrap technique consists of generating several hundreds of data sets, each containing the same number of participants than in the original data set, by randomly drawing participants (each participant can be drawn multiple times in each generated fictional data set). This technique enables to produce a distribution of various estimates (e.g., indirect effects), which in turn is used to calculate a two-tailed significance test for each estimate. Results from these significance tests are reported in the text.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Age	1	-.07	-.12	-.05	-.04	-.15	-.23*	-.09	-.13	.07	-.04	-.12	.13	-.04	.06	.10
2. Gender	-.07	1	-.13	-.09	-.15	-.04	.04	-.10	-.01	-.08	.12	-.06	.05	.05	.19	-.09
3. Perceived teachers' autonomy support	-.04	-.07	.58**	.77**	.82**	.76**	.44**	.36**	.37**	.14	-.42**	.52**	-.27**	.55**	-.20*	.12
4. Perceived teachers' structure	.07	-.06	.71**	.44**	.73**	.71**	.34**	.24**	.29**	.08	-.34**	.40**	-.22*	.52**	-.31**	.21*
5. Perceived teachers' Involvement	.08	-.03	.81**	.59**	.55**	.79**	.42**	.32**	.31**	.16	-.42**	.50**	-.28**	.54**	-.20*	.11
6. Students' need satisfaction	.03	.01	.75**	.59**	.75**	.56**	.63**	.36**	.51**	.21*	-.54**	.66**	-.44**	.73**	-.35**	.12
7. Intrinsic motivation	-.17	.04	.33**	.22	.32**	.50**	.61**	.52**	.72**	.34**	-.42**	.81**	-.49**	.48**	-.12	-.05
8. Identified motivation	-.14	-.05	.28*	.08	.29**	.42**	.61**	.56**	.52**	.77**	-.42**	.62**	-.39**	.25**	-.13	.07
9. Introjected motivation	-.07	-.05	.22	-.01	.17	.30**	.57**	.60**	.54**	.48**	-.29**	.51**	-.32**	.37**	.01	.06
10. External motivation	-.18	-.05	-.08	-.11	-.09	.14	.29**	.67**	.49**	.58**	-.29**	.37**	-.24*	.05	-.17	.06
11. Amotivation	.01	-.20	-.36**	-.32**	-.32**	-.62**	-.50**	-.47**	-.21	-.19	.30**	-.85**	.68**	-.49**	.33**	-.18
12. Self-Determination Index	-.10	.13	.41**	.32**	.40**	.64**	.86**	.66**	.37**	.24*	-.85**	.50**	-.70**	.57**	-.27**	.08
13. Dropout intentions	.04	-.12	-.31**	-.27*	-.29**	-.48**	-.44**	-.46**	-.32**	-.14	.69**	-.65**	.56**	-.41**	.30**	-.04
14. Affect Index	.14	.12	.48**	.45**	.42**	.59**	.34**	.35**	.32**	.16	-.41**	.42**	-.46**	.44**	-.24*	.19
15. Cognitive problems [†]	.06	.19	-.23	-.24*	-.14	-.14	-.06	-.13	.01	-.07	.16	-.14	.23*	-.18	1	-.29**
16. Self-regulation [†]	.10	-.09	.16	.17	.22	.12	-.09	-.05	.01	-.01	-.04	-.04	.04	-.04	-.29**	1
Mean	14.42	1.77	4.14	4.72	4.17	4.24	4.05	5.54	4.11	5.74	3.40	1.93	3.64	4.30	1.35	2.04
Standard Deviation	1.31	.42	1.39	1.13	1.51	1.33	1.98	1.58	1.92	1.53	1.95	6.74	2.19	1.28	.80	.52
Δ Mean T2-T1	-	-	.12	-.12	.19	-.06	-.25	-.06	-.24	-.03	-.47	.49	-	-	-	-
Δ Standard Deviation T2-T1	-	-	1.20	1.22	1.44	1.19	1.75	1.46	1.90	1.30	2.16	6.76	-	-	-	-
Δ Min T2-T1	-	-	-3	-2.17	-3.56	-2.86	-6	-3	-5.25	-3.5	-6	-17.25	-	-	-	-
Δ Max T2-T1	-	-	4.23	3	3.67	3.56	3.75	4	5	4	5	21.75	-	-	-	-

Note. Coefficients in the diagonal are T1/T2 correlations for each variable. T1 correlations between variables are above the diagonal; T2 correlations between variables are below the diagonal. [†]Correlations available for T1 only.

Δ = Change

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

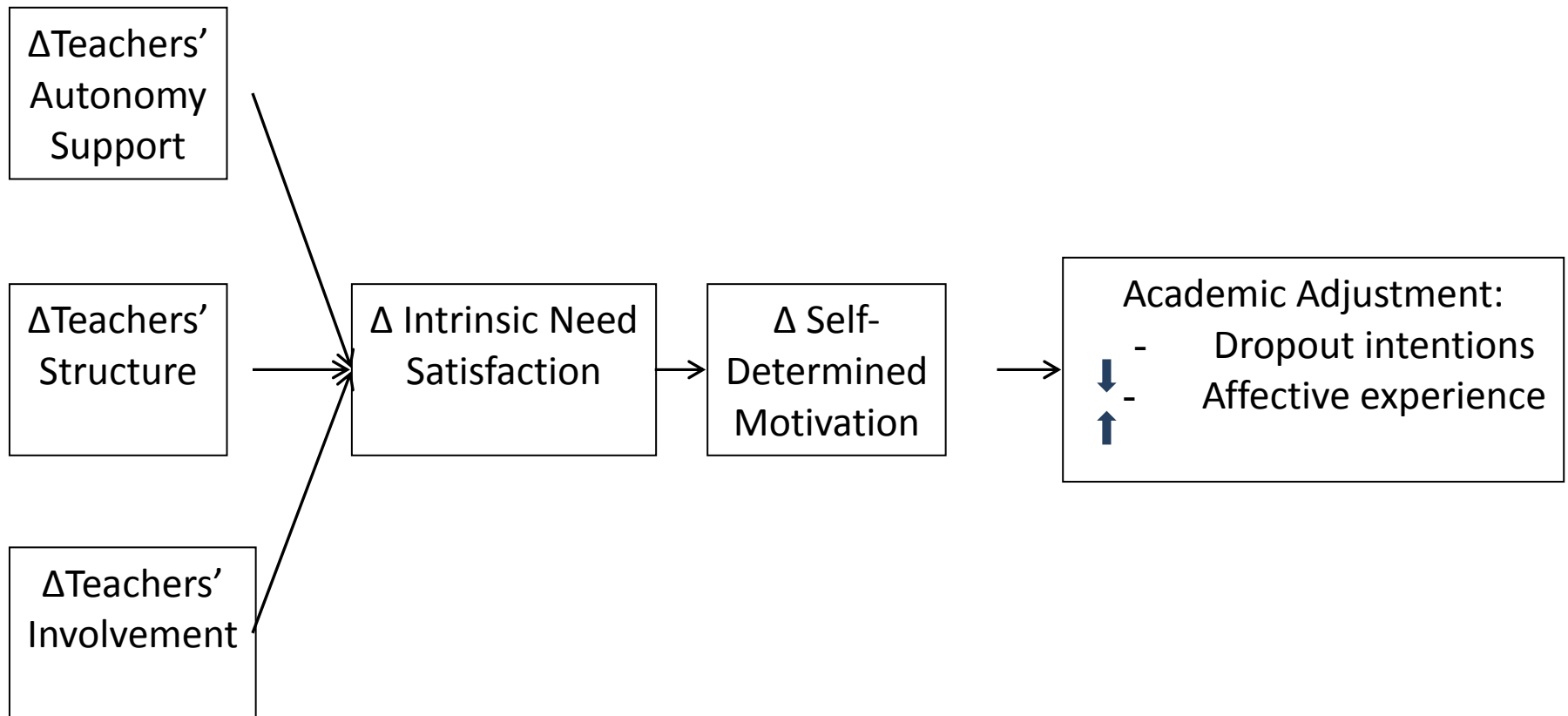


Figure 1. Hypothesized model of the relations between motivational constructs and academic adjustment

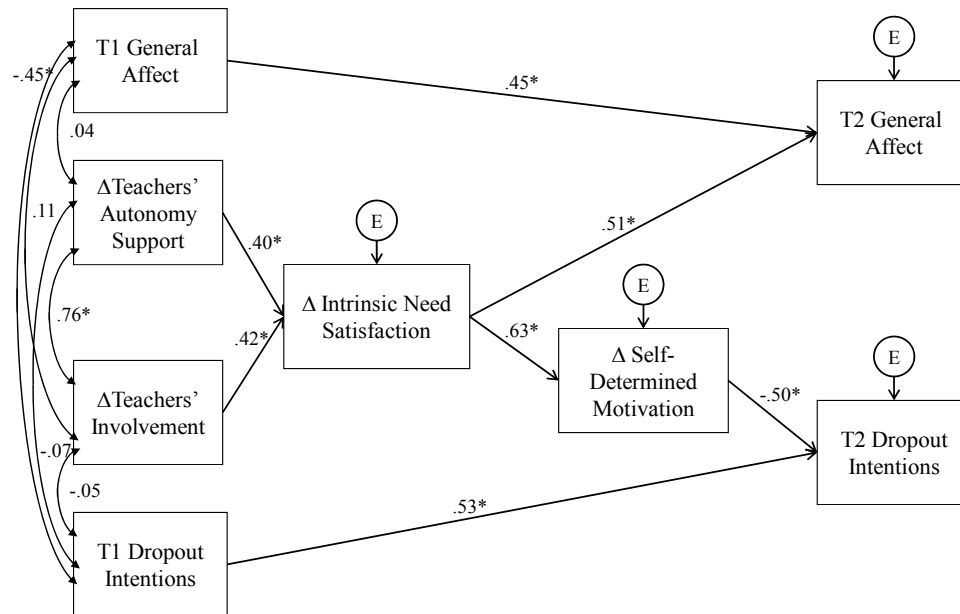


Figure 2. Relations between improvements in perceived teachers' interpersonal style, students' need satisfaction and motivation, dropout intentions and affect. $\chi^2(15) = 18.29$, $p = .25$; normed $\chi^2 = 1.22$; CFI = .99; NFI = .94; NNFI = .97; RMSEA = .05 (CI90 = .00-.12); SRMR = .04; $*p < .001$

Article 2

The Benefits of Autonomy Support for Adolescents With Severe Emotional and Behavioral Problems

Running head: AUTONOMY SUPPORT FOR ADOLESCENTS WITH PROBLEMS

The Benefits of Autonomy Support for Adolescents
with Severe Emotional and Behavioral Problems

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Abstract

The benefits of autonomy support in the domain of education have been well established within the general population, but have yet to be demonstrated within clinical populations. The present study investigated the benefits of an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style on teenage girls' self-determination, internalization and subjective experience during a tedious clinical workshop. Participants were female teenagers placed in a social rehabilitation center for their severe emotional and behavioral problems ($N = 29$). An experimental design allowed comparing the impact of learning a tedious, but important workshop with or without autonomy support on internalization and experiential outcomes. Results demonstrate that autonomy support leads to higher self-determined motivation, perceived task's value, task liking as well as less negative affect compared to a condition without autonomy-support. By uncovering benefits of autonomy support to a clinical population of adolescents, the present study supports Self-Determination Theory's tenet that the benefits of autonomy support are universal.

Keywords: Autonomy support, motivation, self-determination, internalization, clinical population

The Benefits of Autonomy Support for Adolescents with Severe Emotional and Behavioral Problems

After facing several contextual and developmental challenges, youths placed in social rehabilitation centers (SRCs) who show severe psychosocial difficulties are at especially high risk for later mental health problems. Social Rehabilitation Centers (SRCs) are residential placement settings in the province of Quebec (Canada),¹ aiming to protect youths from their milieu and to offer treatment for psychosocial problems, both internalized and externalized. SRCs provide residential setting services during which socialization is mainly assumed by educators and prompted with clinical workshops to improve social skills such as communication and problem solving. Because educators are becoming youths' primary socialization agents, the interpersonal style they use may be an important factor in providing an optimal social rehabilitation environment.

Within SRCs, clinical workshops are offered to foster youths' social skills and eventually, their social rehabilitation. Unfortunately, youths' motivation and internalization of such skills is lacking. Indeed, the few studies following teenagers who had received SRCs services report persistent problems and recurrent need of social services (Jean Toupin et al., 2005), suggesting that the new skills have not been internalized. For example, 67% of adolescents who receive services in Quebec SRCs have already received social services and 61% have already been placed in SRCs in the past (Thibault, 2005). Besides, many youths who leave SRCs still present social, emotional and behavioral problems when reevaluated later in life (Lanctôt, 2006; Thibault, 2005). For instance, many are poorly educated, live in precarious socio-economical conditions, and/or with violent partners. There are also high rates of delinquency, substance abuse and mental health problems among those youths.

Perhaps because of the manifested behavioral and emotional problems, socializing agents (i.e., responsible adults such as parents, educators and teachers) who interact with difficult youths tend to use controlling strategies (Anderson et al., 1986; Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002; Jelsma, 1982). Not only do difficult youths 'pull for control' (Grolnick, 2003) by eliciting strong emotional

reactions, but it is often believed that authoritarian interpersonal styles and controlling strategies are the only means to foster difficult youths' motivation and cooperation (e.g., external contingencies; see Witzel & Mercer, 2003, for a review). In contrast to this common practice and belief in controlling interpersonal styles, which might be influenced by several reasons (see Reeve, 2009, for a review), a wealth of research demonstrates that paradoxically, a controlling interpersonal style impairs youths' motivation and internalization. Furthermore, such strategies were also found to increase the likelihood of psychosocial problems among youngsters (Barber, 1996; Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Soenens, 2006).

A fundamental goal of socialization is the internalization of socially accepted rules, behaviors and values. Internalization is the process by which individuals can actively change external requests from the socialization context into personally endorsed values and autonomous behaviours (Grusec, Goodnow, & Kuczynski, 2000; Grusec & Kuczynski, 1997; Ryan, 1995). Within the Self-Determination Theory perspective (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985, 1991, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), internalization is said to be a natural and universal tendency. In other words, individuals are viewed as active organisms that naturally tend to "take in" social values, in order to gain or maintain well-being and self-development. Although natural, the essential need for autonomy (along with relatedness and competence) has to be fulfilled for this process to take place. Internalization thus depends on social contexts, which can either nurture or thwart the need for autonomy (see Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006a, for a review).

Autonomy refers to the experience of initiating and/or regulating behaviors from one's sense of self, with a sense of volition, as opposed to feeling controlled (Richard De Charms, 1968; Ryan et al., 2006a). According to SDT, the need for autonomy is inherent to all human beings, without exception (e.g., age, culture, or socio-demographic background). If the need for autonomy is universal, maladjusted teenagers should also benefit from autonomy-supportive contexts.

Within SDT, there are distinctions made between the quality (vs. amount) of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). A qualitative differentiation can be made to reflect the degree to which motivation is autonomous/self-determined; that is, congruent with personal will and values (Deci & Ryan, 2000). A highly self-determined motivation style is intrinsic motivation, when a behavior is enacted for its own sake, out of pleasure or interest (Deci, 1975). In contrast to intrinsically motivating activities, extrinsic motivation pertains to important tasks that are externally prompted and that may be perceived as uninteresting. Such tasks can be internalized in a more or less autonomous way. A highly self-determined style of extrinsic motivation is *identified regulation*. Although the task is not done out of pleasure, it is done because individuals identify with the behaviour, endorse it and self-regulate with a sense of volition (e.g., participate during a social skill workshop because they value improved relationships). In contrast, *external regulation* is a controlled rather than self-determined form of regulation, such as participation in order to obtain rewards or avoid punishments. According to SDT, the success of the internalization process varies as a function of the extent to which the regulation is self-determined (Vansteenkiste et al., 2010).

To foster internalization, it has been proposed that socializing agents should provide autonomy support. The concept of autonomy support was first operationalized as offering choice, rationale, and empathy (Koestner et al., 1984). This definition was based on Ginott's (1959) writings on impersonal and empathic limit setting, which also inspired a parenting program teaching autonomy-supportive communication and strategies (e.g., impersonal feedback and expectations; Faber & Mazlish, 1980). Autonomy support should not be confused with permissiveness, the opposite of behavioural control (or structure; i.e. clear and consistent guidelines, expectations and consequences; Nie & Lau, 2009). The opposite of autonomy support is psychological control; a controlling interpersonal style that constrains, invalidates and manipulates youths (Barber, 1996). While psychological control is associated with negative developmental and psychological outcomes (e.g., Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002; Soenens, 2006),

structure is associated with positive motivational outcomes and has a complementary role with autonomy support (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Grolnick, 2003; Jang et al., 2010; Sierens, Vansteenkiste, et al., 2009).

Empirical studies across various life domains (e.g., education, sports, health) have shown that when individuals perceive their socializing agents to be autonomy-supportive, they experience higher levels of self-determined types of motivation, along with other positive experiential outcomes (see Ryan & Deci, 2000, for a review). In the education domain, associated benefits found within normative student populations of adults, adolescents and children include increased well-being (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000), persistence (Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992; Vallerand et al., 1997), engagement, interest and value (Jang, 2008; Reeve et al., 2004; Tsai et al., 2008), and competence (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Jang, 2008).

Importantly, a number of experimental studies have repeatedly shown that autonomy support promotes self-determined motivation and the internalization of the tasks taught by socializing agents. Conducted within the general population, the following experiments have looked at the direct impact of autonomy support (vs. controlling or neutral contexts) in an extrinsic motivation context (i.e., when limits are set or uninteresting tasks are prompted).

First, in a study with young children, Koestner et al. (1984) manipulated the manner in which limits were set during a painting activity (neatness). Results revealed that intrinsic motivation, enjoyment, creativity and quality of arts were greater when limits were set with an autonomy-supportive style, compared to the condition with controlling limits (shoulds and musts). This study suggests that autonomy support can promote healthy motivation, pleasure and performance, even in a context of external constraints.

In a study with university students, Boggiano et al. (1993) looked at the impact of offering choices (vs. controlling directives) on students' learning of problems solving strategies. Students who had been offered choices when asked to solve problems felt significantly more self-determined and performed better

than students who received controlling directives. Surprisingly, in spite of these positive outcomes of the autonomy-supportive condition, it was also found that students perceived their instructor as less competent (e.g., less useful and effective teaching strategies) when directives were given with choices.

In an experiment with young adults, Deci et al. (1994) tested whether the autonomy-supportive elements of choice, empathy and rationale (Koestner et al., 1984) fostered more self-determined forms of motivation for an uninteresting activity. Results revealed that directives including a higher number of autonomy-supportive elements led to higher self-determined forms of self-regulation, measured by congruency between feelings toward the task and later decisions to freely engage in it.

Furthermore, three studies with college students (Jang, 2008; Reeve et al., 2002) demonstrated that during uninteresting activities, providing a rationale in an autonomy-supportive way promotes higher self-determined motivation as well as subsequent task effort in the task, compared to a context without rationale and autonomy-supportive communication.

Finally, Joussemet et al. (2004) conducted two experiments with regular school children to compare the effects of autonomy support and rewards on children's motivation to engage in a tedious task. Results revealed that autonomy support promoted more positive affect, perceived task's value, and self-determined regulation compared to rewards. Interestingly, the benefits of autonomy support were not moderated by students' self-regulatory capacity, as assessed by teachers, suggesting that autonomy support was beneficial even for more difficult children.

This idea that the benefits of autonomy-supportive contexts can also be present for more challenging students has also been supported in two recent studies (Black & Deci, 2000; Reeve et al., 2004). In both experiments, a training was found to increase instructors' autonomy support which, in turn, led to an improvement in students' well-being, self-determination, performance and engagement, even when students' initial motivation toward the task was poor (Black & Deci, 2000), and in spite of prior engagement (Reeve et al., 2004).

Thus, although youths' characteristics do influence the level of autonomy support used by their socializing agents, the motivational and learning benefits of autonomy support do not seem to be limited to well-adjusted students.

These studies provide strong empirical support to the idea that autonomy-supportive contexts facilitate individuals' autonomous motivation. It appears that autonomy support tends to be associated with higher internalization and more self-determined regulation than a controlling interpersonal style. The experimental studies suggest that the positive impact of autonomy support holds true even when a task is not interesting and when participants show a wide range of motivation/regulation.

Unfortunately, youths in social rehabilitation centers (SRCs) seem to poorly identify with the social values underlying the skills taught within social rehabilitation workshops. When youths do not perceive that these skills are congruent with their own values or feelings, their sense of volition and responsibility is low, hindering the internalization process. If the main goal socializing agents have for youths is a healthy and long-term internalization of skills rather than mere situational obedience, it seems that an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style should be favoured within learning environments (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

To our knowledge, no study has investigated the benefits of autonomy support among a population of severely impaired youths. The present study aims at extending previous findings to a population of teenage girls with severe emotional and behavioral problems. Considering that in previous studies (Black & Deci, 2000; Joussemet et al., 2004; Reeve et al., 2004), autonomy support was beneficial for a heterogeneous group of students (e.g., various levels of initial motivation, engagement and self-regulation), it seems important to verify whether the seemingly universal positive effects of autonomy support will extend and hold true within a clinical population of teenage girls. In other words, do adolescents with severe emotional and behavioral difficulties also profit from autonomy support? The goal of the present experiment, conducted with teenage girls placed in SRCs, was to measure the impact of an autonomy-supportive (AS)

interpersonal style (vs. without autonomy support, NoAS) on the internalization of a tedious task. It was hypothesised that an AS context would be predictive of more self-determined forms of motivation, higher feelings of autonomy, as well as a higher subjective internalization of the task (i.e., perceived value) and a better appraisal of its experience (i.e., task liking, subjective well-being and perceived instructor's competence).

Method

Participants

Participants were 29 French-speaking female adolescents between 12 and 17 years old, placed in a youth's SRC in the Montreal area for their severe emotional and behavioral difficulties. It is important to highlight that SRCs are residential facilities dedicated to those who are too severely impaired behaviourally and/or emotionally to receive services or placements within the community. When placed in a SRC, youths have often grown up into the adversity of neglect and/or abuse and are now suffering from important social, behavioral and emotional maladjustment. Within our sample, teenage girls had received social services for an average of 3 years (ranging from 1 month to 13 years; $M = 36.76$ months; $SD = 43.42$ months). This information illustrates the severity of their maladjustment and the need for long term rehabilitation services for many. Boys were not included in the sample since SRCs are gender specific (difficulties, needs and services offered may vary largely across placements settings; e.g., young offenders units are available in boys SRCs only).

After having received the approval from the ethic committee, parental or legal guardian consents were obtained by phone, before soliciting adolescents. Next, girls for whom parental consent was obtained were recruited. They were told that the participation consisted of completing an initial questionnaire assessing how they usually feel during clinical workshops in SRCs and, during a subsequent visit, engaging in a one-hour clinical workshop on interpersonal problem solving, followed by a questionnaire. The compensation offered was a chance ($\geq 1/6$) to win a bookstore gift certificate of 20\$. Eight experimental groups (n from 2 to 6) were formed randomly, within 5 living units (comprising

up to 12 teenagers living together). Groups' size was not homogeneous because experimental groups were formed with youths of the same living unit only. Indeed, since they are usually not allowed to mix together between units this clinical restriction was respected. Since all participants took part in the study with peers they knew well, it also insured a certain homogeneity in the pre-existing relationships between youths a factor that could have influenced their perceptions of the workshop. A day-by-day testing schedule was planned. Only one of the two conditions was done during a given day: with or without autonomy support (AS, $n = 17$; NoAS, $n = 12$)². Thereafter groups were randomly assigned to a workshop day.

Experimental task

The experimental task was a clinical workshop, teaching the necessary steps of interpersonal problem solving. It is considered as a potentially uninteresting activity that is important to internalize for teenagers placed in SRCs. Although problem solving might be interesting, this activity was chosen based on the clinical experiences of a “development agent” working at SRCs, who attests that some clinical activities are more interesting to teenage girls than others, and that this one is not much appreciated because of its tedious format requiring learning a “recipe” (S. Fagnan, personal communications, August 2007; August 3rd, 2009). The experimental task was inspired from a workshop already used in other SRCs (S. Fagnan, personal communication, August 3rd, 2009) and designed by Schultz, Selman, and Yeates (1989). The working material was chosen to avoid stimulating girls' interest with specific topics. Thus, this clinical workshop is ecologically valid, represents a monotonous task and corresponds to the kind of social rehabilitation workshops that teenage girls have to attend to, when placed in SRCs.

Procedure

Clinical workshop. Two experimenters were present during the workshop. The first was presented as a workshop instructor from the University of Montreal who is interested in offering and evaluating this particular activity. The second experimenter was introduced as a workshop evaluator.

After introducing herself, the instructor distributed name tags and workbooks, with written information that matched the group's experimental condition. Before beginning the activity, the instructor presented its learning objectives (to define the problem, generate various solutions, oversee their consequences) and stated her expectations (i.e. listening to explanations, asking questions, raising hands before talking, etc.) A first interpersonal problem was then introduced:

Luc goes to his best friend Jérôme's place. When he arrives, he finds on the bed the latest iPod he will never be able to get because of its price. Luc is dying to have it. Thus, he takes Jérôme's iPod and hides it in his bag without a second thought. When Jérôme comes back into his bedroom, he does not see right away that his iPod has disappeared, but when Luc leaves, he realises that his iPod is no longer there. Jérôme knows that Luc took his iPod.

First, the steps required to solve problems were presented and the group solved the problem together for about 40 minutes. The group identified the problem and brainstormed about why the situation was problematic, and what were the possible emotions Jérôme felt. Then, Jérôme's potential solutions to deal with the situation were identified by the group and advantages/disadvantages were thought through. The best solution was thereafter chosen by the group, keeping in mind the underlying expectations of how each boy would possibly feel with that solution. As a final step, the group predicted the possible consequences of the solution to make sure it would be fair to both boys.

After having learned the steps and solving a problem in group, participants were presented a second interpersonal problem and asked to solve it individually, using their workbook. The same problem solving steps were involved. Individual work lasted 10 minutes, as the instructor answered questions and gave positive individual feedback to all.

Experimental manipulation. Experimental conditions were created by manipulating the instructor's instructions and interpersonal style. Girls in both

conditions attended to the same clinical workshop which was presented either in an autonomy-supportive (AS) or a non autonomy-supportive (NoAS) way. The elements added to the experimental condition to support autonomy and show empathy were scripted. The instructor learned scripts prepared for each type of instructions to minimize differences in other interpersonal aspects that could influence participants (e.g., level of enthusiasm, irritability; see below). In addition, the instructor was trained to interact in one or the other style spontaneously, by learning responses and reactions corresponding to each experimental condition. These efforts were made to ensure that interactions would be coherent with the experimental context, throughout the workshop, within each condition. Experimental manipulation accuracy was verified by the second experimenter, who observed the activity, followed the script to insure fidelity, and categorized each additional, spontaneous interventions used as AS or NoAS, to insure coherence within each condition.

The AS condition was based on the operational definition of autonomy support: providing rationale, choice and empathy (Koestner et al., 1984). The wording of instructions was adapted from previous studies (Deci et al., 1994; Joussemet et al., 2004). For example, after presenting the dilemma to the group, the instructor conveyed rationale and empathy:

Before we start girls, I would like to tell you the reason why we will practice together with an imaginary story today. It's because it might be easier to solve an imaginary problem than a real life problem, like a fight for example. Even then, it is not necessarily easy to solve a pretend problem, because it is new and it might seem like a lot of steps to learn! So, first we will practice with fake problems and then, the more we practice, the more it might become easier and more natural for you to do. Later on, when you will be facing a real fight that you want to solve, this is likely to help you.

Rationale and empathy were also offered when it was time to work individually. During that second part of the workshop, choice was provided by

allowing girls to choose how to proceed: “This answer sheet contains the same questions (steps) as in the first dilemma; you can do it in the order that is the most helpful to you”.

As to setting limits when needed during the activity, impersonal limit statements (Koestner et al., 1984) and other non-controlling communication skills (Faber & Mazlish, 1980; Ginott, 1965) were used. In addition to the AS elements from the script, possible AS interventions were learned to insure that, when additional spontaneous interventions were needed (e.g., limit setting), it would match the experimental condition. For instance, when setting limits about talking during an inappropriate moment, the instructor stated her expectations in an impersonal way (e.g., “This part of the workshop requires to be done in silence”). When inappropriate behaviours needed to be ended, the instructor could use non-controlling communication skills such as empathy: “It might be very difficult to remain silent when sitting beside a friend”; choice: “If it is too difficult you can choose to sit elsewhere”; and actions: “I see you chose to sit elsewhere”.

Finally, the positive feedback the instructor gave during the individual part of the activity was descriptive rather than evaluative (Faber & Mazlish, 1980; Ryan, 1982). This type of feedback prevents evaluative pressure. It included either a description of what had been accomplished or of what remained to be done (e.g., “I see you found 3 solutions!; There was a lot of thinking done here, only one step left and it’s completed”).

In contrast, groups in the NoAS condition did not receive any of the autonomy-supportive elements of rationale, empathy or choice during instructions. As in other studies (e.g., Edmunds, Ntoumanis, & Duda, 2008; Sheldon & Filak, 2008), the purpose of this non autonomy-supportive condition was to obtain, as much as possible, a “neutral” or typical condition, that would imitate the interpersonal style commonly used within clinical workshops given by SRCs’ educators. Contrary to other experiments creating controlling conditions to make participants feel pressured (e.g., Sheldon & Filak, 2008), no controlling strategies were added because this condition did not attempt to undermine the participants’ subjective experience of autonomy. Neither was the absence of

autonomy-supportive elements in the NoAS condition made salient. However, since requests had to be made in the present study, limits were set and behavioral control was obtained, by using traditional language such as “you have to...” and sentences beginning with verbs. The positive feedback provided was evaluative in nature, reproducing praise typically offered (e.g., “Wow, you did an excellent job!”; see Table 1 for a comprehensive comparison between AS and NoAS statements)³.

Self-reports and debriefing. Thereafter, two research assistants that had been waiting outside of the room came in to hand out questionnaires. One of them read it out loud along with participants, to avoid misunderstanding due to reading problems, a common problem among this population. The second assistant was there to answer individual questions. The assistants reminded participants that questionnaires allow them to express what they thought of the activity and how they felt while doing it. The scales were adapted for uniformity, with all Likert scale items ranging from 1 (*do not agree at all*) to 7 (*very strongly agree*). A week later, experimenters met with each participant individually to give descriptive positive feedback and debrief them about the exact purpose of the project (i.e., to assess motivation and appraisal of the task) and the presence of two ways in which it was offered. The understanding of participants and the impact of this information on them was evaluated carefully and discussed unhurriedly.

Measures

Considering the clinical nature of the population studied, most measures had to be adapted to suit the participants and the experimental task. Therefore, the validity of each scale was computed and Cronbach alphas are reported below.

Instructor’s interpersonal style. In addition to AS interventions made from the script, spontaneous utterances were quantified and categorized as AS or NoAS by the second experimenter. In addition, the level of enthusiasm and irritability of the instructor was assessed for each group on a scale from 1 (*low*) to 6 (*high*).

Individual differences. Information was collected in order to control for individual differences if needed. Teenage girls answered questions about their origin, age, academic level and grades (mathematics and French) and the length of their own use of social services. Girls' SRC educators were also asked to provide information about teenagers' self-regulatory capacity, using a computed score of items from an adapted version of the Conners' Teacher Rating Scales assessing opposition, anxiety, emotional lability and aggressiveness (15 items, $\alpha = .79$; Conners, 2000).

Motivation and Internalization. Subscales from the Situational Motivation Scale were used to measure girls' motivation styles (SIMS; Frederic Guay, Vallerand, & Blanchard, 2000). Youths rated their agreement with 4 reasons on each subscale to do the interpersonal problem solving activity, yielding scores of Intrinsic motivation ($\alpha = .91$; "Because I think that this activity is pleasant"), Identified regulation ($\alpha = .85$; "Because I am doing it for my own good"), and External regulation ($\alpha = .68$; "Because I feel that I have to do it"). No introjected motivation subscale is included in this scale. The amotivation subscale could not be used given that youths had to provide their consent to participate in the study. Therefore, amotivated youths were expected to have refused to participate. The French version was used and subscales internal consistencies were good and similar to those of the original subscales. To assess internalization further, teenage girls' perceived value of the workshop was also estimated, with five items ($\alpha = .86$) translated and adapted from previous studies (Boggiano et al., 1993; Tsai et al., 2008).

Feeling of Autonomy. Items of already existing scales were adapted to measure how much adolescents felt autonomous during the workshop. A total of 11 items were used to measure feelings of Autonomy ($\alpha = .89$; Blais & Vallerand, 1991; Forest & Mageau, 2008; La Guardia et al., 2000; Sheldon & Filak, 2008). Items were adapted in order to reflect the situational context of the experiment as well as girls' perceived need satisfaction rather than their perception of the instructor's autonomy support (e.g., "During the activity, I felt I had choices about how to apply the learned skills" rather than "The instructor

offered me choices about how to apply the learned skills”). While already existing scales tend to use both types of items, our goal was to measure girls’ sense of autonomy. Hence, this measure does not represent a manipulation check of how the instructor behaved, but the inner feelings of teenagers’ perceived autonomy during the workshop (items can be found in the Appendix).

Baseline Feeling of Autonomy. Because clinical workshops that are similar to the experimental task are commonly offered within SRCs, a baseline measure of autonomy felt during clinical workshops in general was obtained, during the first visit. All but one item from the measure used to assess autonomy during the situational, experimental task was used (10 items, $\alpha = .82$). The stem and items were adapted in order to reflect the contextual level (e.g., “In general, during clinical workshops... I feel respected.”)

Subjective experience. Participants’ perceived liking of the workshop was estimated with four items ($\alpha = .91$) translated and adapted from previous studies (e.g., “I appreciated solving dilemma”; Boggiano et al., 1993; Tsai et al., 2008).

Moreover, as in the Boggiano et al. (1993) study, girls’ evaluation of the instructor’s competence was measured by two items: “I consider that the instructor was efficacious to teach me to solve problems” and “I consider that the tips and strategies of the instructor were useful to me” ($\alpha = .84$).

In order to assess positive and negative affect among a population of teenage girls with possible reading/academic and emotional difficulties, we created a new French scale. Indeed, a pilot study with our population using an adapted French version of the 20-item positive and negative affect scales (PANAS; Laurent et al., 1999; Watson et al., 1988) revealed that the vocabulary was difficult to understand for severely impaired youths. Consequently, the psychometric structure differed from previous validation studies (Huebner & Dew, 1995, 1996) Taking the academic difficulties of this population into account, a new scale was constructed using the PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) and the PANAS for children (Laurent et al., 1999) as models. The scale includes 10 positive (e.g., “Happy”; $\alpha = .93$) and 10 negative (e.g., “Sad”; $\alpha = .90$) emotion

items. The instructions targeted how participants felt during the workshop, using simple vocabulary (items can be found in the Appendix).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

In order to assure that the experimental conditions had been coherent throughout the workshop and were different from each other on the key autonomy support (AS) factor, spontaneous, additional interventions (aside from the scripts) noted/categorized by the second experimenter were computed and univariate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were performed (Table 2). Results revealed significant differences in the expected directions in the mean number of spontaneous AS comments ($F(1, 27) = 84.70, p < .01$) and of NoAS comments ($F(1, 27) = 245.06, p < .01$). No difference was found between groups in the level of the instructor's enthusiasm and irritability displayed.

To verify that the AS condition had an impact on participants' feeling of autonomy and to ensure that the NoAS condition represented a neutral (vs. controlling) context, we compared the level of autonomy habitually felt during SRCs clinical workshops to the autonomy felt during the experiment, within each condition (i.e., split group analysis). While there was a non-significant increase in autonomy in the NoAS group, there was a significant increase in the AS group ($T(1, 16) = 2.10, p < .05$). This comparison demonstrates that within the AS group, feelings of autonomy increased significantly with the experimental condition, compared to what participants usually feel during clinical workshops. Regarding the non-significant autonomy increase within the NoAS group, this result indicates that the NoAS condition was not controlling.

Preliminary analyses also investigated the possible impact of individual differences on the main dependent variables (i.e., intrinsic/identified/external motivation, value, autonomy, liking, positive and negative affect, perceived instructor's competence). Correlational analyses examined the influence of the following factors: origin, age, academic level, grades (mathematics and French), length of use of social services, self-regulatory capacity and baseline feeling of autonomy. Baseline feeling of autonomy was significantly correlated with

intrinsic motivation ($r = .54, p < .00$), identified motivation ($r = .44, p < .05$), feeling of autonomy ($r = .41, p < .05$), and Value ($r = .39, p < .05$). These correlations indicate that the higher the habitual feeling of autonomy during clinical workshops, the more participants experienced self-determined motivation, felt autonomous during the experimental task and valued it more. Aside from baseline feeling of autonomy, the only other significant correlation that emerged was between length of use of social services and perceived instructor's competence, indicating that the more youths received social services, the less competent they perceived the instructor to be ($r = -.40, p < .05$).

Principal analyses

ANOVAs were performed on external motivation, task liking, positive and negative affect with experimental condition as the independent variable. ANCOVAs were used to analyse the impact of the experimental condition on intrinsic and identified motivation, feeling of autonomy and value using baseline feeling of autonomy as a covariate. Finally, the analysis examining the impact of the experimental condition on perceived instructor's competence was performed with length of use of social services as a covariate. All means can be found in Table 3.

Motivation. It is usually found that AS contexts are associated to positive motivational outcomes. We hypothesised that youths participating to the workshop in the AS condition would present higher levels of self-determined motivation than youths in the NoAS condition. Results indicate that girls in an AS context reported higher levels of all forms of motivation than girls in the NoAS condition, even after controlling for their initial perceived feeling of autonomy during clinical workshops in general. AS led to higher intrinsic motivation, $F(1, 27) = 5.35, p < .05, d = .90$, identified motivation, $F(1, 27) = 5.52, p < .05, d = .92$, and surprisingly, external motivation, $F(1, 27) = 6.46, p < .05, d = .98$. All of these effects are of large magnitude (Cohen, 1988).

When taking a closer look at the mean of each motivation style within each group (see Table 3), it can be seen that while the AS group reported high intrinsic and identified motivation, the NoAS group was low on intrinsic

motivation and mid-point on identified motivation. Participants having received autonomy support while doing the monotonous workshop reported more intrinsic reasons (i.e., because it is interesting/pleasant) and more identified reasons (i.e., because it is personally important) to have engaged in the activity than their counterparts who had not received autonomy support. Regarding the external type of motivation, it seems that the difference between groups stems from youths in the NoAS group reporting a particularly low level of external regulation (compared to AS participants, reporting mid-point external motivation). NoAS participants saw very little external reasons (i.e., because I have to do it) to engage in the workshop.

The motivation style results suggest that an AS context leads to positive motivational outcomes, even among difficult teenage girls. While a higher level of external motivation was unforeseen (discussed shortly), the predicted benefits of AS on self-determined forms of motivation (i.e., intrinsic and identified reasons to engage in the activity) are encouraging.

Task Value. A related matter associated with self-determined motivation is the value adolescents assign to the target task, which can be used as an indicator of internalization. In keeping with previous studies documenting the positive impact of AS on the subjective appraisal of task's value, we inquired whether participants' ratings of the workshop value would differ across both interpersonal contexts. It was expected that attending a workshop in an AS context would help participants see the importance and worth of the activity. The results gave strong support to this hypothesis, as youths in the AS condition rated the task as more important, useful and meaningful to them, $F(1, 27) = 7.92, p < .01, d = 1.17$, compared to participants in the NoAS condition, regardless of their baseline feeling of autonomy during clinical workshops in general (Table 3). Similarly to the impact of AS on identified type of motivation, this interpersonal style also conveys that the targeted task is meaningful and valuable, with a large effect size.

Feeling of Autonomy. Theoretically, the relationship between an AS context and positive outcomes is said to be mediated by the satisfaction of

autonomy, a basic psychological need (Deci & Ryan, 2000). An interesting research question was thus to explore whether a manipulation of moderate duration of the interpersonal style would influence youths' feeling of autonomy. We hypothesised that the teenage girls who had attended the workshop with an autonomy-supportive instructor (vs. NoAS) would report feeling more autonomous than those in the NoAS condition. Although mean ratings were in the expected directions, the ANCOVA did not reach significance.

Task Liking. The level to which participants reported liking an experimental task has been assessed in previous experiments. We were curious to see whether girls' liking of the workshop had been influenced by the interpersonal style, even though the task was a tedious one. In line with studies conducted with normative population, results demonstrated that task liking was higher when teenagers attended the workshop in the AS condition, compared to the NoAS one, $F(1, 27) = 6.28, p < .05, d = .93$. The difference between both groups was of large magnitude.

Well-being. Well-being is an important part of a healthy learning environment and has been found to be increased by AS. We speculated that the well-being of difficult teenage girls would also be significantly facilitated by an AS interpersonal style. While there was no discernable difference in positive affect across conditions, negative affect was significantly lower in the AS interpersonal context, $F(1, 27) = 10.54, p < .01, d = -1.15$, compared to youths in the NoAS condition, with a large effect size. Thus, it seems the experience of learning a tedious activity was eased for difficult teenage girls by the providing them an autonomy-supportive learning environment. In this experiment, AS reduced the level of negative affect experienced by girls during their clinical activity. However, it was not conducive to an increase in positive affect.

It is noteworthy that the NoAS context was not associated with especially high negative affect (Table 3) nor especially low positive affect (both being mid-point), suggesting that this interpersonal style was neutral, and did not induce unpleasant feelings. This is probably related to the fact that the instructor's enthusiasm and irritability were very similar across conditions.

Perceived Instructor's Competence. In one study (Boggiano et al., 1993), one element of AS (i.e., providing choice) was linked to students perceiving the instructor's as less competent. We were interested to assess how an AS interpersonal style would influence participants' perception of the instructor's competence. Results from the analysis show that the perceived instructor's competence was actually significantly higher in the AS condition than in the NoAS condition, even after controlling for girls' length of use of social services, $F(1, 27) = 4.82, p < .05, d = 1.07$. It seems that AS had a large, positive impact on the way difficult teenage girls evaluated the competence of a new socializing agent.

Supplemental Analyses

Testing participants in groups may have created score dependency, which in turn can decrease error term estimates and increase type I error probabilities. To estimate the importance of this potential bias, we conducted HLM analyses to explore whether similar results would be obtained (despite the obvious lack of power and stability that result from using a small sample size). Results showed that the experimental condition had a significant effect for four dependent variables (i.e., value, $p = .039$, external motivation, $p = .044$, negative affect, $p = .026$, instructor's competence, $p = .05$) and a marginally significant effect for the three other dependent variables that were originally reported to be affected by the experimental condition (i.e., task liking, $p = .082$, intrinsic motivation, $p = .107$, and identified motivation, $p = .097$).

Discussion

The goal of the present study was to assess whether the motivation and internalization benefits of autonomy support would be found within a clinical population of teenage girls. The present results give support to the hypothesis that, although adolescents placed in SRCs display severe emotional and behavioural impairments, they can still benefit from an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style when learning and internalizing important social skills during their social rehabilitation workshops.

In the autonomy support (AS) experimental condition, participants were found to have experienced more self-determined motivation. They reported more intrinsic reasons (e.g., because it is interesting) and, importantly, more identified reasons (e.g., because it is personally important) to participate in the workshop, regardless of their habitual feeling of autonomy during clinical workshops. These results are in line with youths' evaluation of the task. Indeed, it was found that girls in the AS condition perceived the task as more enjoyable, reporting that they liked it more than participants who did it without AS. In addition, autonomy support increased girls' perceived value of the workshop, leading them to see the task as more important and meaningful. In combination to self-determined motivation, perceived value is a key matter in the internalization of an important, but tedious task. Given that the coherence between behaviors and personal values is inherent to a healthy internalization process, the increased value given to a clinical workshop when conducted with AS is promising. Autonomy-supportive interpersonal style is likely to be beneficial within the social rehabilitation context if it increases the perceived value of socially appropriate behaviours.

Regarding a less self-determined form of motivation, unexpectedly, girls in the AS reported a higher level of external motivation. This result emerged because participants in the NoAS condition reported especially low level of external reasons to have engaged in the workshop (i.e., because they had to do it). It is unclear why teenage girls in the NoAS reported much lower levels of the external regulation style. Perhaps that in this neutral context, when a "tedious" task is taught, youths did not feel responsible to meet an external expectation.

In sum, it seems that when introducing a tedious task to these participants, adding AS fostered identification with that task, even promoting its potentially pleasant aspects. It also led girls to find some external reasons to engage in the task, in addition to internal ones. On the contrary, a neutral context (without AS) seems to have made the absence of external controls salient.

Basic need satisfaction is hypothesised to be the mechanism by which an AS context fosters positive outcome variables (e.g., motivation, well-being; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Hence, we aimed to measure the degree to which participants felt

that their need for autonomy was satisfied. Though participants in the AS condition reported slightly higher autonomy than teenage girls in NoAS groups, it seems that the situational AS manipulation did not allow participants to feel significantly more autonomous during the workshop. Past studies have found autonomy support to interact with the factor of time and to have an increasingly stronger influence on positive motivation and engagement over time (Jang, 2008). Perhaps the duration of the AS manipulation (about one hour) was insufficient in conducting participants to feel, notice, and report a higher sense of autonomy. In a recent study (Edmunds et al., 2008), an experimental manipulation of instructors' autonomy-support (vs. neutral) led to a higher level of perceived autonomy support (instructors' behaviors) and of positive motivational outcomes, but without significant changes in need satisfaction. These results indicate that AS interventions can be effective in increasing perceived autonomy support from the instructor and in fostering positive motivational outcomes (see Su & Reeve, 2011 for a meta-analysis) without significantly altering participants' sense of autonomy. It is possible that *feeling autonomous* is a subjective experience that is subtle and difficult to detect, perhaps particularly among youths with severe emotional problems. Similarly to emotion words that are used less frequently, the concept of *feeling free or respected* may be a new and relatively more difficult concept to grasp, identify and monitor.

The experiment also aimed at measuring the impact of autonomy support on the participants' subjective experience during the task. In addition to promoting task liking, autonomy support seems to have affected the way girls felt during the tedious workshop. A significant difference was found between the two groups, indicating that teenage girls in the AS condition felt significantly less negative emotions than those in the NoAS context (e.g., less mad, sad, nervous). Seemingly, autonomy support decreases uncomfortable emotions such as potential anxiety or frustration during a monotonous activity. This finding is coherent with Black and Deci's study (2000) who found that autonomy support decreases anxiety in a learning situation.

Regarding positive affect, the difference between groups was not significant. This result is possibly related to the experimental task, chosen for its tedious nature. It is unsurprising that participants did not endorse a high level of positive affect, especially considering that the positive words listed in the scale were not only in the positive valence, but high in activation/arousal (e.g., joyful, enthusiastic; Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, & Tellegen, 1999). Perhaps positive deactivation words (e.g., contentment) would have better reflected the impact of autonomy support on girls' affective experience.

Lastly, one goal was to see what impact autonomy support would have on the way teenage girls would see not only the targeted task, but the adult introducing it. In a previous study with college students (Boggiano et al., 1993), results suggested that providing choices (one element of AS) led instructors to be judged as less competent. To the contrary, within our sample of teenage girls with severe emotional and behavioral difficulties, participants in the AS condition perceived the new instructor as more competent than youths who interacted with the same instructor, but not using AS. These inconsistent findings may result from differences in manipulation and population. In the study with college students, only the element of choice was manipulated, and students may have perceived this as being a less serious or unexpected attitude for a teacher. In contrast, an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style was manipulated in the present study and perhaps that for youths in SRCs, who are used to interact with social rehabilitation professionals, the use of empathy, rationale, choice, and non-controlling language was seen as a strength. Interestingly, the length of received social services also influenced the perceived instructor's competence, but negatively. It is encouraging to see that autonomy support might not only be appealing to maladjusted teenagers, but also promote youths' positive attitude toward new socializing agents, even when taking into account their tendency to see instructors as less competent, the more they spent time in SRCs.

Together, these findings are coherent with previous studies that have found autonomy support to facilitate the development of more self-determined motivation and to allow the internalization of external tasks to take place in a

positive manner (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Replicated with a clinical population of severely impaired teenage girls, these findings demonstrate that an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style has a positive effect on the internalization of tedious but important tasks, even for more difficult youths who might be nonetheless “pulling” for more controlling strategies (Grolnick, 2003; Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002). These findings contradict the popular belief and the usual tendency to introduce external contingencies to prompt tasks that are believed not to be appealing enough to trigger motivation (Reeve et al., 2002).

Limitations and future research Conducted with a clinical population, the present study makes an original contribution to the motivation literature. However, it was not without limits. First, the clinical nature of our population made it very challenging to recruit participants, for various reasons (e.g., obtaining parental consent, availability of participants). Therefore, only a small sample was reached and satisfactory statistical power could not be obtained. However, several differences between groups have been detected, suggesting a strong impact of the experimental condition. On the other hand, the small sample size prevented us from examining possible interaction effects with individual characteristics.

Though conducting a clinical workshop is ecologically valid, the group format may have created score dependency (the experience of participants was not totally independent of the experience of others). Supplemental, HLM analyses that can take this aspect into consideration were conducted to explore whether similar results would be obtained, despite the small size of the sample. A similar pattern of results emerged, suggesting that the reported findings were not spurious and reflect the experimental condition’s impact. Nevertheless, the present findings should be replicated using a larger sample and HLM analyses.

Second, the specificity of our population (teenage girls experiencing impairments severe enough to be placed in SRCs) entails precautions relative to the generalization of the results. The population investigated did not include boys because SCRs are gender specific. Recruiting in diverse SRCs to include boys would have added several confounding variables, since SRCs may have different

rehabilitation purposes, types of clients and interventions. This entails that the results of this study cannot be generalized to a clinical sample of teenage boys. Further work should include both genders and adapt the experimental procedure (e.g., same-sex instructor, interest level of the problem-solving task).

Furthermore, it is worth to keep in mind that participants had been given the choice to participate or not in the workshop and that by doing so, uninterested girls did not take part into the study. The informed consent to participation also implicated that youths had the knowledge that their choice to participate or not was without possible negative consequences and that a draw (i.e., possible compensation) would take place to thank them for their participation. These two elements could have influenced girls' motivation, but were the same across both conditions.

The experimental manipulation was of moderate duration. Although a recent review has evaluated even shorter duration AS manipulations as successfully promoting motivational outcomes (Su & Reeve, 2011), it is possible to expect that the impact of an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style could be different, potentially magnified, if applied at a contextual level of motivation and over a longer period of time. Indeed, our experimental task consisted of a single learning activity, whereas the majority of girls had already taken part in several clinical workshops, most likely provided in a traditional interpersonal style. If internalization is seen as a process gradually unfolding over time, it is possible that teenagers would benefit from consistent and continuous autonomy support, occurring over a longer period of time, even throughout their social rehabilitation program.

Furthermore, in the context of this experiment, the instructor was a stranger with an unestablished alliance with youths. The impact of an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style may be different within pre-existing relationships (e.g., with SRCs educators). We do not know how educators' habitual style might have influenced girls' perception of the new instructor's style. A related limit of this study is the absence of a measure of perceived autonomy support from the instructor, such as the Learning Climate Questionnaire (Williams & Deci, 1996).

Such measure could have served as a manipulation check, examining what interpersonal style participants actually perceived, and confirm that girls in the AS condition perceived more autonomy-supportive behaviors from the instructor (e.g., more empathy, rationales) than participants in the NoAS condition.

Thus, future studies could attempt to replicate the findings of this study with a larger population of youths, within other clinical populations and across gender. A larger sample would also allow investigating more precisely which elements of an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style are the most beneficial to youths with severe emotional and behavioral problems. Within a larger sample, it would also be possible to investigate the impact of pre-existing factors at both the individual and interpersonal levels that could potentially influence the effect of an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style. In a study conducted with two samples of youths with different impairments, Deci et al. (1992) found that within emotionally handicapped students, it was autonomy (both personal and contextual) that produced the most variance on school achievement and adjustment, whereas it was competence that mattered the most for learning disabled students. Thus, it would be interesting to evaluate how youths' individual differences (e.g., type of impairment, gender, etc.) would influence the impact of an autonomy-supportive manipulation. At the interpersonal level, the relationships with educators may also influence how they react to an autonomy-supportive style.

It would also be interesting to explore what interpersonal style educators actually use during the daily life activities and workshops with youths in SRCs, given that the relationship youths have with them may have a pervasive impact on their motivation and contribute to their social rehabilitation. Future studies could assess both youths and educators' self-determination and subjective experience in order to shed light on the processes involved in the social rehabilitation context. For example, possible reasons to be autonomy-supportive or not could be identified among educators. Indeed, Grolnick and Apostoleris (2002) identify child characteristics or "pressure from below" as influencing the ability of socializing agents to be autonomy-supportive or not, as well as

additional factors, such as “pressure from within” (e.g., educators’ affect) and/or “pressure from without” (e.g., environmental stressors such as pressure from colleagues). Before trying to teach socializing agents to be autonomy-supportive, it would be important to explore how they can be supported themselves in using this approach with an especially difficult population that is recognized as to “pull for control” (Grolnick, 2003). Thereafter, experimental studies could explore in vivo the impact of teaching AS strategies to educators on youths’ internalization and social rehabilitation.

Implications

As it has been theoretically and empirically supported in other contexts and within the general population, autonomy support seems to be protective and support a healthy motivational development of teenage girls placed in SRCs. Notwithstanding that self-determination and its putative benefits do not represent a sufficient condition in preventing the recurrence of youths’ problems, this study suggests that AS can facilitate internalization and sustain the development of social adjustment. Indeed, the present results extend previous findings by demonstrating that not only autonomy-support promotes self-determined motivation and healthy internalization, it can also improve the subjective experience during a tedious task and do so within a clinical population of severely maladjusted teenage girls. This study suggests that not only regular, well-developed and well-functioning youths benefit from autonomy support. The fact that more difficult youths pull for control does not imply that they need more controlling tactics. This study contradicts the prevalent belief that difficult youths need more extrinsic motivators.

By extending the benefits of autonomy support to especially difficult teenage girls who require to be placed in SRCs to be rehabilitated, this study supports the universality proposed by SDT. It seems that the natural tendency to grow healthy can be supported by autonomy-supportive social contexts, regardless of youths’ vulnerabilities and general tendencies (see Ryan et al., 2006a, p. 840). If our society is oriented toward long-term social rehabilitation rather than mere coercive restrictions of social misconducts, autonomy-

supportive contexts that promote a healthy development should be provided to youths in social rehabilitation. Social and educational policies should be oriented as to support and promote the learning and the integration of an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style within educational and clinical settings, such as youths' social rehabilitation centers.

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Footnotes

¹In Quebec (Canada), Youth and Family Centres (YFCs; *Centres Jeunesse*) provide psychosocial, rehabilitation, and social integration services in relation to The Youth Protection Act (81%), The Youth Criminal Justice Act (14%) and An Act respecting Health Services and Social Services (4%; Centre Jeunesse de Montréal, 2011). These laws and their related services all entail to a same purpose, to allow children and youths to live and grow in safe and stable environments by providing services related to child placement, adoption/adoption disclosure, expertise to court and mediation. Quebec has a unique and complex social rehabilitation system which may defer from those encountered in the rest of Canada and the United States. Social Rehabilitation Centers (SRCs) are residential placement settings that cannot be compared to detention centers, foster homes/groups or in-patient mental hospitals because it has goals of protection (individuals and society) and treatment.

² Groups were assigned to a workshop time according to availabilities. In order to facilitate the instructor's script fidelity, the schedule was established so that only one interpersonal style (AS or NoAS) would be used within a testing day. The experimental condition of the day was decided by chance for the first day and alternating subsequently.

³ Despite the presence of orders and evaluative feedback, the NoAS experimental condition is conceptualized here as typical/neutral because this language is considered mainstream and widely used during learning activities. Controlling contexts are not only defined by the use of controlling language, but also by the use of expected rewards, intrusion, pressure, threats and guilt induction (Reeve, 2009). None of those elements were present in the NoAS condition. Therefore, though in this study requests had to be made and limits set, we believe that the use of mainstream language without the addition of controlling components makes this condition a "neutral" one.

Appendix

Questionnaires items

For informational purpose, items from the scales used to measure the task value, task liking, feeling of autonomy and affect appear below (items were freely translated from French to English). The French versions can be obtained from the corresponding author.

Task Value

The topic was meaningful to me

It was important to me that I thoroughly understand the material covered

I thought that the content of the lesson could be useful in real life

This activity was personally important to me

I consider that doing this activity was worthless to me (Reversed)

Task Liking

I appreciated solving dilemmas

I found the activity interesting

I did this activity because it was fun for me

I found the dilemmas interesting

Feeling of Autonomy

During the activity...

I was allowed to modify things to be more capable

I felt free to be myself

I felt like I was in jail (Reversed)

I felt free to express my ideas and my opinions

I felt suppressed (Reversed)

I felt I had to do what I was told

I felt free to do the tasks at my own pace and according to my values

I felt pressured (Reversed)

I felt respected

I felt there was space for my ideas

I felt I had choices about how to apply the learned skills

Affect

During the activity, I felt...

Positive Affect :

Happy

Energetic

Good mood

Attentive

Enthusiastic

In a good shape

Alert

Interested

Cheerful

Glad

Negative Affect :

Angry

Impatient

Nervous

Frustrated

Anxious

Sad

Worried

Stressed

Disappointed

Depressed

Table 1

Experimental conditions comprehensive comparison

	<u>Autonomy Support</u>	<u>No Autonomy Support</u>
Interventions		
Rational	“Before starting girls, I would like to tell you the reason why we practice together with a fictive story today. It’s because it might be easier to solve an imaginary problem than a real life problem, like a fight for example. [...] So, first we practice with fake problems and then, the more we practice, the more it might become natural and easier to do. After that, when you will be facing a real fight that you want to solve, this is likely to help you!”	None
Empathy	“Even then, it is not necessarily easy to solve a fictive problem, because it is new and it might seem like a lot of steps to learn!” “It might be very difficult to remain silent when sitting beside a friend”	None
Choice	“This answer sheet contains the same questions (steps) as in the first vignette; you can do it in the order that is the most helpful to you”.	None
Limit setting	“I’m expecting that...” “This part requires to be done in silence”.	“What you have to do is...” “Please be quiet”.
Taking action	“It might be very difficult to be silent when sitting beside a friend ...”; “ if it is too difficult, you can choose to sit elsewhere”; “I see you chose to sit elsewhere”.	“Stop talking”; “if you don’t stop, you will have to sit elsewhere”; “Go sit there”.
Feedback	Descriptive: “I see you have found 3 solutions!”	Evaluative: “Amazing! You are really good at this!”

Table 2

Experimental conditions differences

Measure	Autonomy Support (n = 17)		No Autonomy Support (n = 12)		<i>F</i> (1,27)	<i>P</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Age	14.8	0.86	14.08	1.51	2.42	0.13
AS interventions	7.12	1.97	1.50	0.91	84.70	<0.01
NoAS interventions	0.35	0.79	4.42	0.52	245.06	<0.01
Instructor's enthusiasm	5.00	0.61	4.75	0.45	1.44	0.24
Instructor's irritability	1.35	0.39	1.17	0.49	1.19	0.29
Baseline feeling of autonomy	4.61	1.33	4.19	0.97	0.84	0.37

Table 3

Experimental conditions differences on dependant variables

Measure	Autonomy Support (n = 17)		No Autonomy Support (n = 12)		<i>F</i> (1, 27)	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>				
Intrinsic motivation	4.46	1.53	2.94	1.84	5.35	0.03	0.18	.90
Identified motivation	4.88	1.67	3.42	1.51	5.52	0.03	0.18	.92
External motivation	3.49	1.3	2.31	1.11	6.46	0.02	0.19	.98
Value	5.05	1.46	3.40	1.36	7.92	0.01	0.24	1.17
Autonomy	5.23	1.18	4.64	1.45	0.54	0.47	0.02	.45
Positive affect	4.54	1.61	3.64	1.72	2.08	0.16	0.07	.54
Negative affect	1.82	0.84	3.37	1.71	10.54	<0.01	0.28	-1.15
Liking	4.79	1.65	3.19	1.78	6.28	0.02	0.19	.93
Perceived instructor's competence	5.59	1.16	3.71	2.21	4.82	0.04	0.16	1.07

Conclusion

Teenagers suffering from severe emotional and behavioral problems are at high risk for later maladjustment. While studies have found autonomy support (AS) and intrinsic need satisfaction (INS) to be associated with healthier motivation and positive outcomes among normative populations, very little work investigated the role of these key motivational constructs among clinical populations. Because positive school experience is a resilience factor and motivation a key determinant of learning, a crucial issue was to determine how socializing agents in rehabilitation contexts may support youths' adjustment. The present thesis used Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000) to better understand how socializing agents may promote the academic and social adjustment of youths in social rehabilitation.

To conclude this dissertation, the main findings of the two studies will be summarized to provide a clear portrait of the influences of socializing agents' interpersonal style on teenagers' academic and social adjustment in the context of social rehabilitation. Next, the original contributions of the thesis will be highlighted and the limits exposed, in line with future research avenues. Finally, significant practical and social implications will be discussed.

Findings summary

The first article presents a longitudinal study which investigated the relations between key SDT constructs in predicting adjustment of teenagers enrolled in SRCs special schools. The results highlight that teachers' interpersonal style has a long term impact on students' INS, motivation and adjustment. More precisely, it was found that improvement in teachers' provision of AS and involvement (but not structure) over the course of the school year led students to experience an increase in INS, which led to improvement in self-determined motivation and less dropout intentions at the end of the school year. Improvement in INS was also associated to more positive and less negative affect at school. This longitudinal study suggests that when teaching maladjusted teenagers, SDT is a reliable theoretical framework to apply in order to guide

teachers toward providing an optimal learning context, promoting students' academic persistence and well-being.

The second article describes an experimental study exploring the impact of using an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style in the context of teaching a tedious clinical workshop to adolescent girls in social rehabilitation. The findings demonstrate that, compared to a typical learning environment, an AS context is beneficial to adolescents by promoting higher motivation, internalization and a more positive subjective experience of the workshop. Indeed, the results indicate that when maladjusted girls were taught in an AS interpersonal style, they reported higher self-determination, perceived task value, task liking and less negative affect compared to those who had not received AS.

Taken together, the results of these studies indicate that SDT is a useful framework for studying maladjusted youths' motivation. Findings suggest useful guidelines about what interpersonal style socializing agents may adopt to promote the academic and social adjustment of adolescents needing social rehabilitation. First, at the contextual level (Vallerand, 1997), the results of the longitudinal study with maladjusted students indicate that in the domain of rehabilitation, all motivational key factors were important in order to promote academic persistence and well-being at school. Indeed, the demonstrated relations indicate that teachers' provision of AS and involvement throughout the school year has an impact on students' INS, self-determined motivation, persistence and well-being. In addition, at the situational level (Vallerand, 1997), the experimental study has demonstrated that when socializing agents are autonomy-supportive with maladjusted teenage girls during a clinical workshop, it supports their motivation and leads to positive experiential outcomes. Taken together, these results give strong support to the hypothesis that socializing agents' interpersonal style has a positive impact on youths' INS, motivation and adjustment (both academic and social). The present thesis indicates that the postulated SDT model remains applicable in the context of social rehabilitation with a clinical population of maladjusted teenagers and thereby, provides helpful

tips regarding what teachers and educators may do to enhance the benefits of social rehabilitation services.

Original contributions

There are several original contributions in this thesis. First, the research designs of both studies entail advantages. The longitudinal design of Study 1 allowed predicting improvement in teenagers' INS, self-determined motivation, and school adjustment over a school year. While previous studies often tested the relations between some of the key motivational constructs, very little studies have explored all of the mediational links postulated by SDT (e.g., Filak & Sheldon, 2008). For example, some studies showed that teachers' interpersonal style promote positive school outcomes (e.g., Reeve et al., 2004) and others indicate that students' INS foster various academic outcomes (e.g., Milyavskaya & Koestner, 2011). By looking at the sequential path of all key motivational constructs, Study 1 is a comprehensive test of the mechanisms proposed in SDT. It is also unique that the model tested the value of providing students with AS, involvement and structure to discern what interpersonal elements constitute the principal determinants of positive adjustment. It was found that for severely maladjusted youths, AS and involvement were key factors while structure did not predict students' INS. Finally, instead of focusing on cognitive or behavioural indicators of academic adjustment (e.g., performance, task engagement), this study measured experiential outcomes (i.e., INS, self-determined motivation, intentions to dropout and well-being at school), in line with the premise that a positive motivation should be the initial target of intervention when working with maladjusted youths (Adelman & Taylor, 1983). Therefore, this study provided further knowledge about what aspects of socializing agents' interpersonal style may support maladjusted students and help them experiencing school more positively.

The experimental design of the second study allowed testing causal relationships, a very important step in establishing knowledge. Indeed, while prior experimental studies have shown a positive causal influence of an AS interpersonal style on task internalization, none had done so in a clinical setting.

This study thus contributes to extend the finding that AS leads to positive outcomes, even among youths with severe emotional and behavioral problems. In addition, these findings were found for an ecologically valid task used in the social rehabilitation context, providing solid empirical ground for future clinical applications.

An additional positive contribution is that in both studies, all the measures made clear distinctions between the key constructs. Therefore, perceived AS represented the socializing agents' behaviors, as perceived by teenagers (e.g., "My teachers listen to my opinion and point of view when I disagree with them") whereas perceived autonomy represented youths' autonomous feelings (e.g., "I felt free to be myself"). Self-determined motivation represented youths' regulation, based on their reasons to behave (e.g., "I go to school because I think that a high school education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen"). This focus on differentiating constructs related to autonomy is a strength, compared to numerous studies in the existing literature in which these constructs are commonly overlapping or in which there is confusion about need satisfaction, its contextual support, and the degree to which regulation for an activity is self-determined.

Another important contribution of this thesis comes from the population studied. In the domain of education, very few studies explored whether SDT predictions apply to maladjusted teenagers. The goal of most prior studies conducted with special students was to compare them to normative populations (Chouinard et al., 2004; Fulk et al., 1998). Only Deci et al. (1992) had explored how INS, motivation and contextual support relate to special students' adjustment. Study 1 built on this prior knowledge and explored longitudinally how these constructs relate to students' adjustment at school, in a rehabilitation milieu. It is interesting that as in Deci et al. (1992) cross-sectional study, it was found that the provision of AS and involvement significantly predicted maladjusted students' INS, self-determined motivation and academic adjustment. This finding sheds light on the debated question of what constitutes a supportive

environment. It seems that involvement and AS are important contextual “nutriments” for maladjusted students.

Change in structure during the school year did not predict improvements among SRC students. This finding was unexpected and should be interpreted with caution. Structure has repeatedly been considered important and beneficial, especially for this population (Greene et al., 2004; Jang et al., 2010; Sierens, Vansteenkiste, et al., 2009). Furthermore, a lack of structure (i.e., permissiveness) has been positively related to impulsive, rebellious and dependent behaviors (e.g., Gray & Steinberg, 1999; Véronneau & Dishion, 2010). However, the absence of structure’s predictive power may point to the way maladjusted teenagers perceive their environment. Perhaps maladjusted teenagers are sensitive to certain aspects, according to what has been lacking during their development. As hypothesized in the need satisfaction literature (Ryan et al., 2006b, p. 820), the weight given by individuals to supportive elements in the social context (i.e., autonomy, involvement, structure) may be the result of prior “need deprivation”, such as a lack of AS and relatedness. Perhaps that youths’ exposure to coercive, abusive and neglectful growing environments thwarted primarily the needs for relatedness and autonomy, and could possibly explain why, from maladjusted youths’ perspective, it is what had been lacking the most that matters the most (i.e., AS and involvement).

It appears that the heterogeneity of the clinical population studied is a strength of this thesis. Indeed, because maladjusted youths who receive social rehabilitation services come from heterogeneous backgrounds and display various psychosocial difficulties, it seems reasonable to think that the results could apply to a wide range of adolescents who experience difficult developmental trajectories. Globally, the results of these studies conducted with a clinical population support the idea that regardless of youths’ vulnerabilities and general tendencies (Ryan et al., 2006b), INS and socializing agents’ supportive interpersonal style remain key factors in sustaining youths’ self-determined motivation, which in turns leads to their academic and social adjustment. Thus, this thesis provides some support to the universality of SDT and shows that not

only regular, well-developed and well-functioning youths benefit when social contexts support their intrinsic needs.

As mentioned by Witzel & Mercer (2003), “It has long been thought that students with disabilities require more extrinsic support (i.e., motivation) for both academic and social behaviour”. However, other authors have hypothesised that by using supportive rather than coercive strategies (e.g., providing clarification and rational for demands, eliciting choices and goals based on mutual agreement, and giving feedback on progress), socializing agents promote competence, personal valuing, personal choice, responsibility, effectiveness, and self-determination (Adelman & Taylor, 1983). Thus far, it had remained unclear what socializing agents’ interpersonal style could adopt in order to provide an optimal learning environment to maladjusted teenagers. Considering that the foremost aim of this thesis was to shed some light onto what social context can promote youths’ social and academic adjustment, it is possible to see the goal as having been reached. The major contribution of this thesis remains that the findings allow better defining what makes a social context “supportive”. By identifying AS and involvement as being key factors fostering INS, internalization, motivation and adjustment, a clearer portrait of what teachers and educators may do to promote youths’ rehabilitation is provided. Though youths’ self-regulation can be undermined by past adversity, which increases the risk for further academic and social maladjustment, this thesis suggests that these maladjustment trajectories could be positively altered by making the social context a more supportive one, thereby sustaining youths’ INS and motivation.

Limits

In addition to the interesting contributions of this thesis, general limitations also need to be highlighted. First, the population studied put forward specific challenges, such as recruitment. Indeed, recruiting minor participants within a social rehabilitation context made access to parental consents a very complex task. Not only this resulted in small sample sizes, but it might also have influenced the samples qualitatively, as adolescents who were allowed to

participate might differ from other adolescents. Indeed, it is possible that the severity of maladjustment is somewhat higher for youths whose legal guardians could not be reached. Furthermore, accessibility to participants was restrained by the relatively small number of youths who were placed in SRCs at the time of recruitment, as the special schools and SRCs were not running at full capacity at the time. In addition, because the number of girls in SRCs is smaller than the number of boys, there was an unbalanced gender ratio in Study 1. Of course, the small sample sizes limited some methodological aspects of the studies. For example, the number of variables had to be kept to a minimum, limiting the analyses that could be performed (e.g., moderational analysis). Also, the expected relation between the learning context (AS) and youths' perceived autonomy was not detected in Study 2, possibly because of the small sample size. For these reasons, the results necessitate to be replicated with larger samples.

Also, it is noteworthy to specify that Quebec has a particular social rehabilitation system and that both the special education and social rehabilitation services offered in SRCs are specific to that system. This implies that although the results might be applicable to youths with diverse range of difficulties, the generalizability of the results may not extend to other special schools or other social rehabilitation contexts.

The presented studies' main limit is the exclusive use of self-report measures to investigate all motivational key constructs. Only youths' self-regulation/difficulties were reported by socializing agents. In Study 1, this measure was only available at Time 1. It is therefore not possible to know if improvements in AS and involvement had an impact on youths' self-regulation capacities as reported by socializing agents. Although it has been demonstrated within prior SDT research that the subjective perceptions of the interpersonal style matters more than the objective style itself (Deci, Nezlek, & Sheinman, 1981), the objectivity of participants' perceptions remains unclear in the present studies. With this unique informant methodology, the links between what teachers really do and youths' perception is lacking since the former variable was not assessed in Study 1. It is also unclear if the studied outcomes, all from the

students' perspective, would also be manifested behaviourally and observed from other informants. For example, it is not possible to know if youths who reported less negative affect would have also been rated as manifesting a better affective experience by educators or teachers. Furthermore, youths' self-report might have been affected by social desirability, although the confidentiality from teachers (Study 1) and the instructor (Study 2) were emphasized by experimenters when youths completed the questionnaires.

Future Research

This thesis brings a unique contribution to a field of study which had been neglected up to this point and therefore, much empirical evidence remains to be demonstrated within social rehabilitation contexts. The following section aims at providing an overview of future research avenues that would be worth exploring.

First, the studies presented in this thesis explored a limited range of the possible learning outcomes, selected to illustrate specific aspects of academic and social adjustment, namely INS, motivation, internalization, persistence and well-being. Researchers in the domain of education have frequently demonstrated that behavioral engagement, learning and performance were also increased by a supportive learning context and INS (see Reeve, 2009 for a summary of benefits by categories). Therefore, future research in clinical settings could study the potential advantages of involvement, AS and INS on various indicators of task learning and subsequent performance. Another interesting research goal is to explore how INS and self-determined motivation may serve to explain the impact of other important predictors of adjustment. For example, a recent study by Frédéric Guay et al. (2010) has demonstrated that there is a relation between adolescents' academic self-concept (i.e., perceived competence, based on prior experiences) and academic achievement and that this relation is mediated by academic motivation. These results are interesting and appear important to replicate with maladjusted teenagers, as most of them have developed a negative academic self-concept because of their history of social, learning, and behavioral difficulties at school. Moreover, the mediating role of motivation suggests that

improving students' motivation could have a significant impact on their achievement, in spite of their poor academic self-concept.

Another area of research which remains to be explored is the current context in which maladjusted youths receive rehabilitation services. Indeed, the present thesis targeted aspects of the interpersonal style that were hypothesised to foster resiliency in two domains in which maladjusted youths seem to remain fragile throughout their social rehabilitation, namely the internalization of social skills and their academic motivation. To develop a more comprehensive view of what might be an optimal rehabilitation environment, it would be interesting to know what interpersonal style educators and teachers actually use, and how youths perceive these interpersonal styles. Exploring socializing agents' natural tendencies toward controlling or autonomy-supportive strategies would set the stage for further applied studies and interventions.

Confidence in the finding that AS and involvement are worth implementing into special school settings would be strengthened by field experiments, determining a causal relationship between the key motivational constructs. Some prior studies have shown that when AS is taught to teachers, this training increases the frequency of their AS behaviors as well as students' adjustment (e.g., Reeve et al., 2004). It would be interesting to replicate these findings in a social rehabilitation context. This would allow determining whether training increases teachers' AS in special schools settings and if this increase is as beneficial to students' adjustment as it is within the general population. Studies aiming at training socializing agents' who already work with maladjusted youths would have the double advantage of demonstrating causal relations as well as doing so in an ecologically valid way.

Furthermore, as it was done in previous studies (Deci et al., 1994; Joussemet et al., 2004) it would be valuable to include free choice periods within applied experimental designs, so that the concordance between participants' feelings and behaviors could be studied, indicating how well the task was internalized by participants. This procedure would allow a better understanding

of the internalization process fostered by the interpersonal style within clinical settings.

In addition, it would be useful to integrate multiple informants in such future research. For example, it would be interesting to measure socializing agents' interpersonal style with maladjusted teenagers by using direct observations with a codification system. The same could also apply to youths' experience in order to obtain more objective learning outcomes such as an observer's rating of behavioral engagement, affect, or an objective evaluation of students' performance.

Finally, it has been established by researchers that many factors might influence socializing agents' interpersonal style (Reeve, 2009). These factors, classified into three categories, represent the various forces that may lead one to use more controlling strategies rather than AS. Among these, researchers have stipulated that difficult youths tend to pull for control and elicit the use of more controlling strategies ("pressure from below", Grolnick, 2003; Reeve, 2009). It would be useful to gain a better understanding of what might be the predominant influences on social rehabilitation workers. Indeed, while the present thesis demonstrates that AS and involvement are beneficial in supporting difficult youths' adjustment, it does not shed light on what may prevent socializing agents from providing such key interpersonal elements to this clinical population. Knowing this, future research should investigate the factors potentially preventing socializing agents to convey involvement and AS.

Social, Political and Practical Implications

Notwithstanding that self-determination and other positive experiential outcomes do not represent either necessary or sufficient conditions in predicting the stability or recurrence of youths' academic or social maladjustment, this thesis suggests that involvement and AS can facilitate INS, healthy motivation and positive learning experiences. These findings are encouraging because they illustrate that, in spite of their difficult life trajectories, adolescents in social rehabilitation might still benefit from a supportive environment and improve in

two important life domains: academic and social. Considering the many risk factors and the severe adversity these youngsters have faced during their development, it can be thought that school is not a primordial issue for them. However, we argue that the potential benefit (both cognitive and social) associated with a positive academic experience is a primordial goal worth to pursue. Indeed, for these youths, it is thought that the academic domain is a potentially positive milieu which, once reinvested, can foster both social and cognitive skills acquisition, thereby becoming the “rescue plan” for at-risk youths (Ménard, 2009).

This thesis has important social implications since it indicates that, as a society, efforts should be made to ensure that maladjusted youths obtain services in an optimal social context to favour a meaningful change in their alienated life trajectories. Socially, this implies that academic and social rehabilitation can be ameliorated and that social policies should aim to better identify youths’ needs as well as to provide socializing agents the necessary tools and conditions to create an optimal learning environment. However, this orientation about rehabilitation entails a major shift in current beliefs and practices about behavioral management in education. Indeed, in North America, behavioural techniques such as rewards and punishments are the most widely taught strategies (Boggiano, Barrett, Weiher, McClelland et al., 1987) and, importantly, they are largely endorsed and used, especially by newly recruited teachers (Newby, 1991). The present thesis suggests that even in special education or social rehabilitation settings, teachers and educators would benefit from learning how to be involved with maladjusted teenagers and support their autonomy. Within the general population, it has repeatedly been shown that AS training is successful in modifying socializing agents’ interpersonal style (see Su & Reeve, 2011 for a meta-analysis).

Considering that there is an additional challenge in being autonomy-supportive with difficult youths, because of the pull for control (“pressure from below”; Reeve, 2009), training in the domain of specialized education and rehabilitation should include education about providing AS to this population. Such training should acknowledge and explain this pull for control, helping

special educators to identify it and lessening potential guilt about controlling interactions. Indeed, educators should receive their own education within an autonomy-supportive context, which facilitates learning, well-being, and the integration of a need-supportive communication style. A non-judgmental training which communicates empathy may diminish socializing agents' guilt about using controlling tactics with these youths who do pull for control. This could decrease the pressure from within they may be experiencing (i.e., psychological stress, guilt), allowing them to be more autonomy-supportive (Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002; Reeve, 2009). Furthermore, it is thought that a working climate which is in itself need-supportive facilitates the use of AS (lower "pressure from above"; Reeve, 2009). It has been shown that socializing agents are more likely to use controlling strategies when they experience high levels of stress from working with severely impaired children and when they do not feel supported in their milieu (Lynch Jr, Plant, & Ryan, 2005; Ryan et al., 2006b).

Furthermore, the present findings have implications for the working environments of socializing agents who work with maladjusted youths. Indeed research suggests that the working environment should pay a very special attention to the determinants of teachers' interpersonal style and facilitate the use of need-supportive communication. In a recent article, Reeve (2009) describes thoroughly how socializing agents might be pressured toward more controlling styles by social/educational policies, superiors, administrators as well as parental and societal expectations (i.e., pressure from above). This suggests that efforts should be made to educate not only socializing agents who directly work with maladjusted teenagers, but also their superiors and society as a whole in order to decrease the external pressure that is put on them, and decrease the odds that they will adopt a controlling interpersonal style.

In sum, this dissertation has demonstrated that when socializing agents use a supportive interpersonal style, it promotes the adjustment of youths in social rehabilitation by allowing them to feel greater INS, healthier motivation and to experience the learning environment more positively. These findings shed

light about what socializing agents might do to support already at-risk youths, and foster academic and social adjustment within a clinical population. The findings of this thesis invalidate the widely held belief that because difficult youths pull for control, they need more controlling strategies and that motivation can only be obtained by external prompts to foster an interest in learning (Niemic & Ryan, 2009; Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Inversely, it indicates that AS and involvement from socializing agents might change the course of their academic and social maladjustment trajectories, by positively enhancing their INS, internalization and self-determined motivation.

By extending the benefits of AS to maladjusted youths in social rehabilitation, this thesis supports the universality of the intrinsic psychological needs proposed by SDT, including autonomy. Indeed, it appears that academic and social adjustment can be supported by a social context which is autonomy-supportive and sustain INS, regardless of youths' emotional and behavioral difficulties. If our society values genuine social rehabilitation of maladjusted teenagers rather than the mere coercive restrictions of their social misconduct, then need supportive contexts that promote academic and social adjustment should be favored during youths' social rehabilitation. Therefore, it seems crucial that research and educational policies look thoroughly at the social and organizational determinants that may support teachers and educators. Training should also be provided to help socializing agents adopt an optimal interpersonal style, to promote healthy development among the most vulnerable youths and, by doing so, to provide them with the opportunity to improve their difficult life path. By allowing youths to hang on to the education system and internalize academic and social skills, an optimal social rehabilitation environment could well enhance key protective factors, contributing to a more promising future for these at-risk youths and, eventually, the society they live in.

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ANNEXE A

Formulaires de consentement pour l'étude 1 (parents/élèves/enseignants)



FORMULAIRE D'INFORMATION POUR LE CONSENTEMENT VERBAL DES PARENTS D'ÉLÈVES

« *L'ÉCOLE EN CENTRE JEUNESSE : MON EXPÉRIENCE!* »

Cette recherche est sous la responsabilité de Mireille Joussemet, professeure, Université de Montréal, qu'on peut rejoindre au _____. Chercheuses principales: Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D. et Mireille Joussemet, professeure.

Bonjour!

Votre jeune est invité(e) à participer à un projet de recherche à son école. Pour ce faire, nous avons besoin de votre consentement et nous avons de l'information à vous donner. Il se peut que vous ayez des questions. Si c'est le cas, n'hésitez pas à nous en faire part. Prenez tout le temps nécessaire pour vous décider.

1) **En quoi consiste cette recherche?**

Notre projet de recherche vise à décrire l'expérience des adolescent(e)s lorsqu'ils fréquentent les écoles internes du Centre jeunesse de Montréal (CJM). Notre but est de demander aux élèves de décrire comment ils se sentent à l'école et avec les autres, pourquoi ils vont à l'école et d'examiner si et comment l'expérience des élèves change avec le temps. Notre étude nous aidera à identifier ce qui rend l'expérience scolaire des jeunes plus positive. Nous demandons donc aux élèves de la Commission scolaire de Montréal fréquentant les écoles internes du CJM de participer à cette étude ainsi qu'à leurs enseignants.

2) **Si mon jeune s'implique dans cette recherche, que sera-t-il concrètement attendu de lui?**

La participation à ce projet requiert que votre jeune...

- Complète un questionnaire deux fois durant l'année : une 1^{ère} fois aujourd'hui et une 2^{ème} fois à la fin de l'année scolaire. Cela devrait prendre environ 45 minutes à chaque fois.
 - Le questionnaire porte sur ce que votre jeune pense de son milieu scolaire, sur sa motivation et sur comment il se sent à l'école, avec ses professeurs et les autres élèves.
- Accepte que son enseignant réponde à un court questionnaire à propos de lui (comment ça va avec le travail à faire, avec les consignes et la vie en groupe).
- Accepte que son dossier scolaire soit consulté par les chercheuses pour qu'elles puissent connaître :
 - Ses résultats scolaires.
 - Ses difficultés en lien avec les services reçus par l'école et le Centre jeunesse, par exemple s'il a des problèmes de nature physique, psychologique ou comportementale.

3) Y aura-t-il des avantages pour mon jeune à participer à cette recherche?

En participant à cette recherche, votre jeune ne retirera aucun avantage direct. Cependant, sa participation lui permettra de contribuer à faire avancer les connaissances actuelles et nous aidera à mieux connaître et comprendre la situation des jeunes lorsqu'ils fréquentent les écoles internes du CJM. Nous souhaitons que ces informations puissent aider à améliorer le contexte scolaire en fonction des besoins des jeunes. Sa participation pourra également lui donner l'occasion de s'impliquer à dresser le portrait d'un milieu qu'il connaît bien et qui le concerne.

4) La participation de mon jeune à cette recherche entraînera-t-elle des risques ou des inconvénients?

Il y a peu de risques liés à la participation de votre jeune. Toutefois, notre étude pourrait amener quelques inconvénients mineurs. Le questionnaire contient des questions qui pourraient sembler personnelles pour votre jeune, comme ses notes et comment il se sent par exemple. D'autres questions au sujet de l'école pourraient le rendre mal à l'aise. Si cela arrive, votre jeune pourra en parler avec la chercheuse qui sera disponible pour en discuter avec lui et le diriger vers une ressource appropriée si nécessaire. De plus, si vous acceptez que votre jeune participe, compléter le questionnaire lui prendra 45 minutes de son temps scolaire et ce, à deux reprises.

5) Est-ce que les renseignements que mon jeune donnera seront confidentiels?

Tous les renseignements recueillis seront traités de manière confidentielle et ne seront utilisés que pour ce projet de recherche. Les membres de l'équipe de recherche doivent signer un formulaire d'engagement à la confidentialité c'est-à-dire qu'ils s'engagent à ne pas divulguer les réponses de votre jeune à personne, même pas à son professeur et à son intervenant. Les informations qu'il donnera ne seront pas mentionnées dans son dossier au Centre jeunesse.

On lui attribuera un numéro de code pour sa participation et seules les chercheuses principales et leurs assistantes auront la liste correspondante. Les renseignements seront conservés dans un classeur sous clé situé dans le bureau fermé des chercheuses principales. Aucune information permettant d'identifier votre jeune d'une façon ou d'une autre ne sera publiée c'est à dire qu'il ne sera pas possible de savoir qui a dit quoi. Les renseignements personnels de votre jeune seront détruits 7 ans après la fin du projet de recherche. Seules les données ne permettant pas d'identifier votre jeune seront conservées après cette date.

Cependant, il est possible que nous devions permettre l'accès aux dossiers de recherche au comité d'éthique de la recherche du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire et aux organismes subventionnaires de la recherche à des fins de vérification ou de gestion de la recherche. Tous adhèrent à une politique de stricte confidentialité.

6) Est-ce que je pourrai connaître les résultats de la recherche?

Les résultats du projet seront diffusés en tant que données de groupe à l'intérieur d'une thèse de doctorat et d'articles scientifiques. Cela signifie que ni vous, ni votre jeune ne pourrez obtenir les résultats individuels de votre jeune.

Si vous souhaitez obtenir un résumé écrit des résultats généraux de la recherche, veuillez indiquer une adresse (postale ou courriel) où nous pourrions vous le faire parvenir :

CHERCHEURE : INSCRIRE L'INFORMATION DANS LE FORMULAIRE À ENVOYER AU PARENT

7) Est-ce que mon jeune recevra une compensation pour sa participation à la recherche?

Votre jeune aura une chance sur 10 de gagner un certificat-cadeau (valeur de 20\$ chez Archambault) lors de chacune de ses participations à ce projet de recherche. Le tirage sera fait parmi les participants de son école à la fin de chaque participation. Le prix sera remis le jour même du tirage.

8) Est-ce que mon jeune est obligé de participer à la recherche ou d'y participer jusqu'à la fin?

Non, il n'est pas obligé. Votre jeune est libre de ne pas participer à la recherche sans que vous ou lui ayez besoin de vous justifier et sans que cela nuise à ses relations avec les enseignants, les intervenants et autres professionnels impliqués au Centre jeunesse de Montréal. Le refus de participation ne sera d'ailleurs pas mentionné dans le dossier de votre jeune au Centre jeunesse. La participation de votre jeune à ce projet de recherche est entièrement volontaire.

De plus, même si vous acceptez que votre jeune participe, il est libre de se retirer de la recherche en tout temps sur simple avis verbal sans explication et sans que cela ne lui cause un quelconque tort. Si votre jeune décide de se retirer de la recherche ou que vous souhaitez qu'il se retire, il peut le communiquer directement à la chercheuse ou vous pouvez la contacter par téléphone (le numéro est indiqué au point 9) de ce document). Les renseignements que votre jeune aura déjà donnés seront alors détruits.

Les chercheuses pourraient aussi décider d'interrompre la participation ou d'arrêter la recherche si elles pensent notamment que c'est dans l'intérêt de votre jeune ou celui de l'ensemble des participants.

9) Si j'ai besoin de plus d'informations avant de me décider ou tout au long de la recherche, qui pourrai-je contacter?

Si vous avez des questions concernant cette recherche, vous pouvez contacter Mireille Joussemet, professeure à l'Université de Montréal, au numéro de téléphone suivant : _____ ou à l'adresse courriel suivante :

Si vous souhaitez vous renseigner sur vos droits ou pour formuler toute plainte, vous pouvez contacter le commissaire local aux plaintes et à la qualité des services du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire au numéro suivant : ____.

10) Consentement à la recherche

Je comprends le contenu de ce qui m'a été expliqué aujourd'hui au téléphone et je consens à ce que mon jeune participe à cette recherche sans contrainte ni pression. Je certifie qu'on m'a expliqué verbalement et que je relirai la feuille d'information qui me sera envoyée par la poste. J'ai pu poser toutes mes questions et j'ai obtenu des réponses satisfaisantes. J'ai eu tout le temps nécessaire pour prendre ma décision.

Je comprends que je suis libre d'accepter que mon jeune participe ou non à la recherche sans que cela lui nuise. Je sais qu'il peut se retirer en tout temps sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne lui cause un tort.

Je comprends aussi qu'en signant ce formulaire, mon jeune et moi ne renonçons à aucun de nos droits légaux et ne libérons ni les chercheurs ni le Centre jeunesse et le commanditaire de la recherche de leur responsabilité civile ou professionnelle.

Je recevrai une copie signée et datée par la chercheuse, en mon nom.

CHERCHEURE : REMPLIR LE CONSENTEMENT À ENVOYER PAR LA POSTE ET FAIRE COPIE POUR LE PARENT

L'original du formulaire sera conservé au bureau de la chercheuse principale situé à l'Université de Montréal et une copie signée sera remise au participant.

- Le projet de recherche et le présent formulaire de consentement ont été approuvés par le CER du CJM-IU le: 15 décembre 2008
- No de dossier : **08-11/ 018**
- Date de la version du présent formulaire : 17 août 2009



FORMULAIRE D'INFORMATION ET D'ASSENTIMENT DES ÉLÈVES

« L'ÉCOLE EN CENTRE JEUNESSE : MON EXPÉRIENCE! »

Cette recherche est sous la responsabilité de Mireille Joussemet, professeure, Université de Montréal, qu'on peut rejoindre au _____. Chercheuses principales: Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D. et Mireille Joussemet, professeure.

Bonjour!

Tu es invité(e) à participer à un projet de recherche. Il est important de bien lire et comprendre le présent formulaire d'information et de consentement. Il se peut que cette lettre contienne des mots ou des expressions que tu ne comprends pas ou que tu aies des questions. Si c'est le cas, n'hésite pas à nous en faire part. Prends tout le temps nécessaire pour te décider.

1) En quoi consiste cette recherche?

Notre projet de recherche vise à décrire l'expérience des adolescent(e)s lorsqu'ils (elles) fréquentent les écoles internes du Centre jeunesse de Montréal (CJM). Notre but est de demander aux élèves de décrire comment ils se sentent à l'école et avec les autres, pourquoi ils vont à l'école et d'examiner si et comment l'expérience des élèves change avec le temps. Notre étude nous aidera à identifier qu'est-ce qui rend l'expérience scolaire des jeunes plus positive. Nous demandons donc aux élèves de la Commission scolaire de Montréal fréquentant les écoles internes du CJM de participer à cette étude, ainsi qu'à leurs enseignants.

2) Si je m'implique dans cette recherche, que sera-t-il concrètement attendu de moi?

La participation à ce projet requiert que tu...

- Complètes le questionnaire que nous venons de te remettre deux fois durant l'année : une 1^{ère} fois aujourd'hui et une 2^{ème} fois à la fin de l'année scolaire. Cela devrait te prendre environ 45 minutes à chaque fois.

- Le questionnaire porte sur ce que tu penses de ton milieu scolaire, sur ta motivation et comment tu te sens à l'école, avec tes professeurs et les autres jeunes.
- Acceptes que ton enseignant réponde à un court questionnaire à propos de toi (comment ça va avec le travail à faire, avec les consignes et la vie en groupe).
- Acceptes que ton dossier scolaire soit consulté par les chercheuses pour qu'elles puissent connaître :
 - Tes résultats scolaires.
 - Tes difficultés en lien avec les services reçus par l'école et le Centre jeunesse, par exemple; si tu as des problèmes de nature physique, psychologique ou comportementale.

3) Y aura-t-il des avantages pour moi à participer à cette recherche?

En participant à cette recherche, tu ne retireras aucun avantage direct. Cependant, ta participation te permettra de contribuer à faire avancer les connaissances actuelles et nous aidera à mieux connaître et comprendre la situation des jeunes quand ils fréquentent les écoles internes du CJM. Nous souhaitons que ces informations puissent aider à améliorer le contexte scolaire en fonction des besoins des jeunes. Ta participation pourra également te donner l'occasion de t'impliquer à dresser le portrait d'un milieu que tu connais bien et qui te concerne. C'est l'occasion de t'exprimer!

4) Ma participation à cette recherche entraînera-t-elle pour moi des risques ou des inconvénients?

Il y a peu de risques liés à ta participation. Toutefois, notre étude pourrait amener quelques inconvénients mineurs. Le questionnaire contient des questions qui pourraient te sembler personnelles comme ta performance scolaire par exemple. D'autres questions pourraient te rendre mal à l'aise. Si cela t'arrive, tu peux en parler avec la chercheuse qui pourra en parler avec toi. De plus, si tu acceptes de participer, compléter le questionnaire te prendra 45 minutes de ton temps scolaire et ce, maintenant et à la fin de l'année scolaire.

5) Est-ce que les renseignements que je donnerai seront confidentiels?

Tous les renseignements recueillis seront traités de manière confidentielle et ne seront utilisés que pour ce projet de recherche. Les membres de l'équipe de recherche doivent signer un formulaire d'engagement à la confidentialité c'est-à-dire qu'ils s'engagent à ne pas divulguer tes réponses à personne, même pas à ton professeur et à ton intervenant. Les

informations que tu donneras ne seront pas mentionnées dans ton dossier au Centre jeunesse.

On t'attribuera un numéro de code pour ta participation et seules les chercheuses principales et leurs assistantes auront la liste correspondante. Les renseignements seront conservés dans un classeur sous clé situé dans le bureau fermé des chercheuses principales. Aucune information permettant de t'identifier d'une façon ou d'une autre ne sera publiée c'est-à-dire qu'il ne sera pas possible de savoir qui a dit quoi. Tes renseignements personnels seront détruits 7 ans après la fin du projet de recherche. Seules les données ne permettant pas de t'identifier seront conservées après cette date.

Cependant, il est possible que nous devions permettre l'accès aux dossiers de recherche au comité d'éthique de la recherche du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut universitaire et aux organismes subventionnaires de la recherche à des fins de vérification ou de gestion de la recherche. Tous adhèrent à une politique de stricte confidentialité.

6) Est-ce que je pourrai connaître les résultats de la recherche?

Les résultats du projet seront diffusés en tant que données de groupe à l'intérieur d'une thèse de doctorat et d'articles scientifiques. Cela signifie que tu ne pourras pas obtenir tes résultats individuels.

Si tu souhaites obtenir un résumé écrit des résultats généraux de la recherche, indique une adresse (postale ou courriel) où nous pourrions te le faire parvenir :

7) Est-ce que je recevrai une compensation pour ma participation à la recherche?

Tu auras une chance sur 10 de gagner un certificat-cadeau (valeur de 20\$ chez Archambault) lors de chacune de tes participations à ce projet de recherche. Le tirage sera fait parmi les participants de ton école à la fin de chaque participation. Le prix sera remis le jour même du tirage.

8) Est-ce que je suis obligé (e) de participer à la recherche ou d'y participer jusqu'à la fin?

Non, tu n'es pas obligé(e). Tu es libre de ne pas participer à la recherche, sans que tu aies besoin de te justifier et, sans que cela nuise à tes relations avec les enseignants, les intervenants et autres professionnels impliqués au Centre jeunesse de Montréal. Ton refus ne sera d'ailleurs pas mentionné dans ton dossier au Centre jeunesse. Ta participation est entièrement volontaire.

De plus, même si tu acceptes de participer, tu es libre de te retirer de la recherche en tout temps sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne te cause un quelconque tort. Si tu décides de te retirer de la recherche, tu peux communiquer directement avec la chercheuse ou par téléphone (le numéro est indiqué à la dernière page de ce document). Les renseignements que tu auras déjà donnés seront alors détruits.

Les chercheuses pourraient, elles aussi, décider d'interrompre ta participation ou d'arrêter la recherche si elles pensent notamment que c'est dans ton intérêt ou celui de l'ensemble des participants.

9) Si j'ai besoin de plus d'informations avant de me décider ou tout au long de la recherche, qui pourrai-je contacter?

Si tu as des questions concernant cette recherche, tu peux contacter Mireille Joussemet, professeure à l'Université de Montréal, au numéro de téléphone suivant : _____ ou à l'adresse courriel suivante :

Si tu souhaites te renseigner sur tes droits ou pour formuler une plainte, tu peux contacter le commissaire local aux plaintes et à la qualité des services du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire au numéro suivant : _____.

10) Consentement à la recherche

Je comprends le contenu de ce formulaire de consentement et je consens à participer à cette recherche sans contrainte ni pression. Je certifie qu'on me l'a expliqué verbalement. J'ai pu poser toutes mes questions et j'ai obtenu des réponses satisfaisantes. J'ai eu tout le temps nécessaire pour prendre ma décision.

Je comprends que je suis libre de participer ou non à la recherche sans que cela me nuise. Je sais que je peux me retirer en tout temps, sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne me cause un tort.

Je comprends aussi qu'en signant ce formulaire, je ne renonce à aucun de mes droits légaux et ne libère ni les chercheurs ni le Centre jeunesse et le commanditaire de la recherche de leur responsabilité civile ou professionnelle.

Je recevrai une copie signée et datée de ce formulaire de consentement.

Nom du participant

Signature

Date

11) Déclaration de la chercheure

Je certifie avoir expliqué au participant la nature de la recherche ainsi que le contenu de ce formulaire et lui avoir clairement indiqué qu'il reste à tout moment libre de mettre un terme à sa participation au projet. Je lui remettrai une copie signée du présent formulaire.

Nom de la chercheure et
rôle dans la recherche

Signature de la chercheure

Date

L'original du formulaire sera conservé au bureau de la chercheure principale situé à l'Université de Montréal et une copie signée sera remise au participant.

- Le projet de recherche et le présent formulaire de consentement ont été approuvés par le CER du CJM-IU le (date) : 15 décembre 2008

- No de dossier : **08-11/ 018**

- Date de la version du présent formulaire : 04 août 2009



FORMULAIRE D'INFORMATION ET DE CONSENTEMENT POUR LES ENSEIGNANTS

« *L'ÉCOLE EN CENTRE JEUNESSE : MON EXPÉRIENCE!* »

Cette recherche est sous la responsabilité de Mireille Joussemet, professeure, Université de Montréal, qu'on peut rejoindre au _____. Chercheuses principales: Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D. et Mireille Joussemet, professeure.

Bonjour!

Vous êtes invité(e)s à participer à un projet de recherche. Il est important de bien lire et comprendre le présent formulaire d'information et de consentement. Il se peut que cette lettre contienne des mots ou des expressions que vous ne compreniez pas ou que vous ayez des questions. Si c'est le cas, n'hésitez pas à nous en faire part. Prenez tout le temps nécessaire pour vous décider.

1) **En quoi consiste cette recherche?**

Notre projet de recherche vise à décrire l'expérience des adolescent(e)s lorsqu'ils fréquentent les écoles internes du Centre jeunesse de Montréal (CJM). Notre but est de demander aux élèves de décrire comment ils se sentent à l'école et avec les autres, pourquoi ils vont à l'école et d'examiner si et comment l'expérience des élèves change avec le temps. Notre étude nous aidera à identifier qu'est-ce qui rend l'expérience scolaire des jeunes plus positive. Nous demandons donc aux élèves de la Commission scolaire de Montréal fréquentant les écoles internes du CJM de participer à cette étude. Nous souhaitons aussi solliciter les enseignants afin d'obtenir une autre source d'information concernant les élèves.

2) **Si je m'implique dans cette recherche, que sera-t-il concrètement attendu de moi?**

La participation à ce projet requiert que vous...

- Complétez un questionnaire, en début d'année scolaire seulement, au sujet de chacun de vos élèves participants à notre étude. Le

questionnaire prendra environ 5 à 10 minutes pour chacun de vos élèves.

- Le questionnaire porte sur les caractéristiques personnelles de nature cognitive, psychologique et comportementale de vos élèves et sur leur fonctionnement en classe.
- Acceptez que vos élèves complètent un questionnaire d'environ 45 minutes, une 1^{ère} fois en début d'année scolaire et une 2^{ème} fois à la fin.

3) Y aura-t-il des avantages pour moi à participer à cette recherche?

En participant à cette recherche, vous ne retirerez aucun avantage direct. Cependant, votre participation permettra de contribuer à faire avancer les connaissances actuelles et nous aidera à mieux connaître et comprendre la situation des jeunes lorsqu'ils fréquentent les écoles internes du CJM. Nous souhaitons que ces informations puissent aider à améliorer le contexte scolaire, en fonction des besoins des jeunes. Votre participation pourra également vous donner l'occasion de vous impliquer à dresser le portrait des jeunes que vous connaissez bien et avec qui vous travaillez au quotidien.

4) Ma participation à cette recherche entraînera-t-elle des risques ou des inconvénients?

Il y a peu de risques liés à votre participation. Toutefois, notre étude pourrait amener quelques inconvénients mineurs. Le questionnaire contient des questions qui pourraient vous sembler personnelles à propos de vos élèves, comme leurs difficultés particulières par exemple. Ces questions pourraient vous rendre mal à l'aise. Si cela arrive, vous pourrez en parler avec la chercheuse qui sera disponible pour en discuter avec vous et vous diriger vers une ressource appropriée si nécessaire. De plus, si vous acceptez de participer, compléter le questionnaire vous prendra environ 5 à 10 minutes par élève participant à notre étude. De plus, les chercheuses prendront 45 minutes du temps scolaire pour le questionnaire aux élèves et ce, à deux reprises.

5) Est-ce que les renseignements que je donnerai seront confidentiels?

Tous les renseignements recueillis seront traités de manière confidentielle et ne seront utilisés que pour ce projet de recherche. Les membres de l'équipe de recherche doivent signer un formulaire d'engagement à la confidentialité, c'est-à-dire qu'ils s'engagent à ne pas divulguer les réponses que vous donnerez à personne, même pas aux élèves concernés et à leurs parents. Les informations que vous donnerez ne seront pas mentionnées dans les dossiers de vos élèves.

Un numéro de code, celui de votre élève, identifiera le(s) questionnaire(s) au(x)quel(s) vous répondrez et seules les chercheuses principales et leurs assistantes auront la liste correspondante. Les renseignements seront conservés dans un classeur sous clé situé dans le bureau fermé des chercheuses principales. Aucune information permettant de vous identifier d'une façon ou d'une autre ne sera publiée, c'est-à-dire qu'il ne sera pas possible de savoir qui a dit quoi. Vos renseignements personnels seront détruits 7 ans après la fin du projet de recherche. Seules les données ne permettant pas de vous identifier seront conservées après cette date.

Cependant, il est possible que nous devions permettre l'accès aux dossiers de recherche au comité d'éthique de la recherche du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire et aux organismes subventionnaires de la recherche à des fins de vérification ou de gestion de la recherche. Tous adhèrent à une politique de stricte confidentialité.

6) Est-ce que je pourrai connaître les résultats de la recherche?

Les résultats du projet seront diffusés en tant que données de groupe à l'intérieur d'une thèse de doctorat et d'articles scientifiques. Cela signifie que ni vous, ni les élèves ne pourrez obtenir les résultats individuels de notre étude.

Si vous souhaitez obtenir un résumé écrit des résultats généraux de la recherche, veuillez indiquer une adresse (postale ou courriel) où nous pourrions vous le faire parvenir :

7) Est-ce que je recevrai une compensation pour ma participation à la recherche?

Selon la ligne de conduite élaborée par le Comité de direction clientèle du CJM-IU, les enseignants ne peuvent recevoir directement de compensation pour leur participation à la recherche.

8) Est-ce que je suis obligé(e) de participer à la recherche ou d'y participer jusqu'à la fin?

Non, vous n'êtes pas obligé. Vous êtes libre de ne pas participer à la recherche sans que vous ayez besoin de vous justifier et sans que cela nuise à vos relations de travail. Le refus de participation ne sera d'ailleurs pas mentionné à votre employeur. Votre participation à ce projet de recherche est entièrement volontaire.

De plus, même si vous acceptez de participer, vous êtes libre de vous retirer de la recherche en tout temps sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne vous cause un quelconque tort. Si vous décidez de vous retirer de la recherche, vous pouvez le communiquer directement à la chercheuse ou vous pouvez la contacter par téléphone (le numéro est indiqué au point 9) de ce document). Les renseignements que vous aurez déjà donnés seront alors détruits.

Les chercheuses pourraient aussi décider d'interrompre la participation ou d'arrêter la recherche si elles pensent notamment que c'est dans votre intérêt ou celui de l'ensemble des participants.

9) Si j'ai besoin de plus d'informations avant de me décider ou tout au long de la recherche, qui pourrais-je contacter?

Si vous avez des questions concernant cette recherche, vous pouvez contacter Mireille Joussemet, professeure à l'Université de Montréal, au numéro de téléphone suivant : _____ ou à l'adresse courriel suivante :

Si vous souhaitez vous renseigner sur vos droits ou pour formuler toute plainte, vous pouvez contacter le commissaire local aux plaintes et à la qualité des services du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire au numéro suivant :

10) Consentement à la recherche

Je comprends le contenu de ce formulaire de consentement et je consens à participer à cette recherche en tant qu'informant secondaire, sans contrainte ni pression. Je certifie qu'on m'a expliqué verbalement et que j'ai bien lu la feuille d'information. J'ai pu poser toutes mes questions et j'ai obtenu des réponses satisfaisantes. J'ai eu tout le temps nécessaire pour prendre ma décision.

Je comprends que je suis libre d'accepter de participer ou non à la recherche sans que cela me nuise. Je sais que je peux me retirer en tout temps, sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne me cause un tort.

Je comprends aussi qu'en signant ce formulaire, je ne renonce à aucun de mes droits légaux et ne libère ni les chercheurs ni le Centre jeunesse et le commanditaire de la recherche de leur responsabilité civile ou professionnelle.

Je recevrai une copie signée et datée de ce formulaire de consentement.

Nom du participant Signature Date

11) Déclaration de la chercheure

Je certifie avoir expliqué au participant la nature de la recherche ainsi que le contenu de ce formulaire et lui avoir clairement indiqué qu'il reste à tout moment libre de mettre un terme à sa participation au projet. Je lui remettrai une copie signée du présent formulaire.

Nom de la chercheure et rôle Signature de la chercheure Date
dans la recherche

L'original du formulaire sera conservé au bureau de la chercheure principale situé à l'Université de Montréal et une copie signée sera remise au participant.

- Le projet de recherche et le présent formulaire de consentement ont été approuvés par le CER du CJM-IU le : 15 décembre 2008
- No de dossier : **08-11/ 018**
- Date de la version du présent formulaire : 4 août 2009

ANNEXE B

Questionnaire élèves étude 1

Code:

*L'école en Centre
jeunesse :
Mon expérience!*



Questionnaire élève

Université 
de Montréal

 Centre jeunesse
de Montréal
Institut universitaire

SI VOUS AVEZ DES QUESTIONS, COMMUNIQUEZ AVEC :	CETTE ÉTUDE EST SOUS LA DIRECTION DE :
Audrey Savard Candidate au Ph.D. en Psychologie Département de Psychologie Faculté des Arts et des Sciences Université de Montréal	Mireille Joussemet Professeure adjointe Département de Psychologie Faculté des Arts et des Sciences Université de Montréal

Section 1 : Tes relations

** Indique ton degré d'accord avec chacun de ces énoncés en encerclant le chiffre approprié.*

Voici une liste d'énoncés portant sur ce que tu peux ressentir vis-à-vis des autres élèves de ton école et tes professeurs.

Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Très fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Dans mes relations avec les autres élèves de mon école, je me sens...

1. près d'eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. attaché-e à eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. un-e ami-e pour eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Dans mes relations avec mes professeurs, je me sens...

1. appuyé-e.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. près d'eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. compris-e.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. attaché-e à eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. écouté-e.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. lié-e à eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. estimé-e.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. uni-e à eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. en confiance avec eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. apprécié-e.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. important-e pour eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. étranger-ère à eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Voici des énoncés portant sur ce que peuvent faire des professeurs. Indique à quel point tu penses que tes professeurs font les choses décrites ci-dessous.

Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Très fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Mes professeurs...

1. s'assurent que je comprenne pourquoi ils m'interdisent certaines choses :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. accordent beaucoup d'importance à mon opinion lorsqu'ils prennent des décisions à mon sujet :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. écoutent mon opinion et mon point de vue même lorsque je ne suis pas d'accord avec eux :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. mettent beaucoup de pression sur moi :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. me donnent plusieurs occasions de prendre mes propres décisions pour mes activités scolaires :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. m'encouragent à être moi-même et à donner mon opinion :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. sont ouverts à mes pensées et mes émotions même lorsqu'elles diffèrent des leurs :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. sont inflexibles :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. sont capables de se mettre à ma place et de comprendre mes sentiments :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. essaient de contrôler tout ce que je fais :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. utilisent un ton autoritaire :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. souhaitent que je fasse des choix selon mes intérêts et mes préférences, peu importe leur opinion :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. sont constamment sur mon dos :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. font en sorte que je me sente coupable quand mes notes sont moins bonnes :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. me traitent de façon juste :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. se soucient vraiment de moi :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. ne réagissent jamais de la même façon quand je fais quelque chose de mal :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. me connaissent bien:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. expliquent clairement ce qu'ils attendent de moi à l'école:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. passent du temps avec moi :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. parlent avec moi :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. changent continuellement les règles en classe :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. sont disponibles; je peux compter sur eux :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. me laissent toujours savoir quand je fais bien les choses :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Indique à quel point tu es en accord avec chacun des énoncés suivants.

Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Tout-à-fait en accord				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
25. m'aiment bien :				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. ne semblent pas apprécier m'avoir dans leur classe:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
27. changent continuellement comment ils agissent envers moi :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
28. ne me comprennent juste pas :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
29. sont là pour moi quand j'ai besoin d'eux :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
30. utilisent des récompenses :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
31. utilisent des punitions :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
32. Je dois toujours faire ce que mes professeurs veulent sinon ils me menacent de m'enlever des privilèges :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
33. Dès que les choses ne vont pas exactement comme mes professeurs le souhaitent, ils menacent de me punir :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
34. À l'intérieur de certaines limites, mes professeurs me donnent des choix dans mes activités scolaires :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			

Lorsque...

35. mes professeurs veulent que je fasse quelque chose, je dois obéir sinon je suis puni-e :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
36. mes professeurs m'enseignent quelque chose, ils m'expliquent à quoi ça peut servir :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
37. mes professeurs veulent que je fasse quelque chose différemment, ils me font sentir coupable :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
38. je refuse de faire quelque chose, mes professeurs menacent de m'enlever certains privilèges:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
39. mes professeurs me demandent de faire quelque chose, ils m'expliquent pourquoi il est important de le faire :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			

40. je ne veux pas faire ce que mes professeurs me demandent, ils me font sentir tellement coupable que je change d'idée :

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

41. je demande pourquoi je dois faire ou ne pas faire quelque chose, mes professeurs m'expliquent pourquoi c'est important :

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

42. mes professeurs souhaitent que j'agisse autrement, ils font en sorte que j'aie honte pour m'obliger à changer :

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section 2: Tes sentiments

4. Les prochains items portent sur différents sentiments et émotions que tu peux ressentir dans ta vie à l'école. Indique à quel point tu as ressenti chacune de ces émotions au cours des deux (2) dernières semaines à l'école.

Pas du tout	Très peu	Un peu	Moyennement	Assez	Fortement	Très fortement
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Fâché-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	11. Éveillé-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Heureux-se	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	12. Anxieux-se	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. De bonne humeur	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	13. Inquiet-ète	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Impatient-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	14. Intéressé-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Nerveux-se	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	15. Joyeux-se	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Attentif-ve	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	16. Stressé-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Enthousiaste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	17. Content-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Frustré-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	18. Déçu-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. En forme	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	19. Déprimé-e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Triste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	20. Énergique	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Les prochains items portent sur comment tu peux te sentir dans ta vie à l'école.

Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Très fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

À l'école...

1. je me sens étouffé-e :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. je me sens incompetent-e:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. je me sens libre d'être moi-même :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. j'ai développé de très bonnes compétences comme élève :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. je me sens respecté-e:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. je ressens de la pression :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. je me sens un-e élève compétent-e:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. je me sens libre d'exprimer mes idées et mes opinions :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. j'éprouve des difficultés à bien faire mes travaux scolaires :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. je me sens comme dans une prison:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. je ne crois pas que je sois un-e élève très efficace :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. dans l'ensemble, je crois être un-e bon-ne élève:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. je me sens obligé-e de faire ce qu'on me dit :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. je me sens libre d'exécuter mes tâches à mon rythme et selon mes valeurs :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. je me sens inadéquat-e:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. je sens qu'il y a de la place pour mes idées :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. je me sens efficace :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3 : Tes raisons d'aller à l'école

Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Très fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Je vais à l'école...

1. parce que ça me prend au moins un diplôme d'études secondaires si je veux me trouver un emploi assez payant plus tard :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. parce que j'éprouve du plaisir et de la satisfaction à apprendre de nouvelles choses:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. parce que selon moi des études secondaires vont m'aider à mieux me préparer à la carrière que j'ai choisie :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. honnêtement je ne le sais pas; j'ai vraiment l'impression de perdre mon temps à l'école:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. pour me prouver à moi-même que je suis capable de faire mon cours secondaire:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. pour pouvoir décrocher un emploi plus important plus tard:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. pour le plaisir que j'ai à découvrir de nouvelles choses jamais vues auparavant:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. parce que cela va me permettre de travailler plus tard dans un domaine que j'aime:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. j'ai déjà eu de bonnes raisons pour aller à l'école mais maintenant je me demande si je devrais continuer à y aller:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. parce que le fait de réussir à l'école me permet de me sentir important à mes propres yeux:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. parce que je veux pouvoir faire "la belle vie" plus tard:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. pour le plaisir d'en savoir plus long sur les matières qui m'attirent:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. parce que cela va m'aider à mieux choisir le métier ou la carrière que je ferai plus tard:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. je ne parviens pas à voir pourquoi je vais à l'école et franchement je m'en fous pas mal :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. pour me prouver que je suis une personne intelligente :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. pour avoir un meilleur salaire plus tard :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Je vais à l'école...

17. parce que mes études me permettent de continuer à en apprendre sur une foule de choses qui m'intéressent :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. parce que je crois que mes études de niveau secondaire vont augmenter ma compétence comme travailleur-se :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. je ne le sais pas; je ne parviens pas à comprendre ce que je fais à l'école :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. parce que je veux me prouver à moi-même que je suis capable de réussir dans les études:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Indique à quel point tu es en accord avec chacun des énoncés suivants.

Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Très fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Cette école est un milieu de vie important pour moi:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. J'ai l'intention de lâcher l'école:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Ce que nous apprenons en classe est intéressant :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Je suis très content(e) quand j'apprends quelque chose de nouveau qui a du sens:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. J'aime l'école :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. J'ai du plaisir à l'école:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Tous les ans, je me demande si je vais continuer l'école:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Ce qu'on fait à l'école me plaît :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Souvent, je n'ai pas envie d'arrêter de travailler à la fin d'un cours:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Je suis fier-ère de fréquenter cette école:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Parfois, je pense à « lâcher » l'école:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. Indique à quel point tu es en accord avec chacun des énoncés suivants.

Pas du tout en accord 1	Très peu en accord 2	Un peu en accord 3	Moyennement en accord 4	Assez en accord 5	Fortement en accord 6	Tout-à-fait en accord 7	
<i>Quand quelque chose de « plate » m'arrive à l'école (comme avoir une mauvaise note à un test ou ne pas être capable de répondre à une question importante en classe)...</i>							
1. je dis que les professeurs n'ont pas couvert la matière de l'examen :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. j'essaie de voir ce que j'ai mal fait :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. je dis que c'est la faute des professeurs :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. j'essaie de trouver qu'est-ce que j'ai fait de pas correct afin que ça ne se reproduise pas :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. je me fâche après mes professeurs :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. je me dis que je ferai mieux la prochaine fois :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Très peu 1	2	Un peu 3	4	Pas mal 5	6	Beaucoup 7
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9. Indique...

1. combien de temps es-tu prêt(e) à consacrer au français?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. combien d'efforts es-tu prêt(e) à consacrer au français?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. combien d'énergie es-tu prêt(e) à consacrer au français?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. combien d'efforts es-tu prêt(e) à consacrer aux mathématiques?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. combien de temps es-tu prêt(e) à consacrer aux mathématiques?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. j'ai envie d'approfondir ce qu'on fait en mathématiques :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 4 : Renseignements Socio-Démographiques

** Coche la case appropriée et/ou inscris l'information sur la ligne*

1. Où es-tu né-e?

- Province de Québec
- Autre province Canadienne
- Autre pays (précisez) _____

2. Où (pays) sont nés tes parents?

Mère :

- Province de Québec
- Autre province canadienne
- Autre pays (précisez) _____ Je ne sais pas

Père :

- Province de Québec
- Autre province canadienne
- Autre pays (précisez) _____
- Je ne sais pas

3. Depuis combien de temps obtiens-tu des services du Centre jeunesse de Montréal?

_____ mois _____ ans

4. Quel service obtiens-tu du Centre jeunesse de Montréal?

- Je vis en centre de réadaptation
- Je vis en foyer de groupe
- Je vis en famille d'accueil
- Je vis avec ma famille en réinsertion sociale
- Je vis avec ma famille mais j'ai reçu des services dans le passé.
- Je vis en appartement supervisé.

5. Quel est ton statut d'élève ici?

- Je suis un(e) élève de l'interne (je vis sur le site)
- Je suis un(e) élève de l'externe (je ne vis pas sur le site)

6. As-tu déjà abandonné l'école?

- Oui
- Non

Si tu vis en centre de réadaptation, répond aux questions 7 et 8. Sinon, passe à la question 9.

7. À quelle fréquence as-tu des sorties de moins de 24 heures (1 jour)

a) Avec un ou des membres de ta famille?

- Jamais
- Une fois par mois
- À toutes les deux semaines
- À toutes les semaines

b) Avec un(e) ou tes ami(e)s?

- Jamais
- Une fois par mois
- À toutes les deux semaines
- À toutes les semaines

c) Seul-e pour une activité (ex. : bibliothèque, sport...)?

- Jamais
- Une fois par mois
- À toutes les deux semaines
- À toutes les semaines

8. À quelle fréquence reçois-tu de la visite?

a) D'un ou des membres de ta famille?

- Jamais
- Une fois par mois
- À toutes les deux semaines
- À toutes les semaines

b) D'un-e ou de tes ami-e (s)?

- Jamais
- Une fois par mois
- À toutes les deux semaines
- À toutes les semaines

9. Est-ce que tes parents sont vivants?

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Ma mère : | Mon père : |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Oui | <input type="checkbox"/> Oui |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Non | <input type="checkbox"/> Non |

10. Es-tu en contact avec tes parents?

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Ma mère : | Mon père : |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Oui | <input type="checkbox"/> Oui |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Non | <input type="checkbox"/> Non |

11. Combien de temps tes parents sont allés à l'école... (fais un X)	Ma mère	Mon père
A fini son primaire	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A fini son secondaire	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Est allé(e) au Cégep	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Est allé(e) à l'université	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Autre (Précisez) _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Je ne sais pas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. Est-ce que tes parents travaillent? :

Ma mère : Mon père :

- Oui Oui
 Non Non

13. Depuis quand es-tu dans cette école?

- C'est la 1^{ère} année
 C'est la 2^{ème} année
 C'est la 3^{ème} année
 C'est la 4^{ème} année
 C'est la 5^{ème} année
 Ça fait plus de 5 ans

14. Y a-t-il au moins une personne dans ta classe que tu considères comme un-e vrai-e ami-e?

- Oui Non

15. Comment décrirais-tu ta performance depuis le début de l'année scolaire?

En Mathématiques

- Très mauvaise
 Mauvaise
 Moyenne
 Bonne
 Très bonne

En Français

- Très mauvaise
 Mauvaise
 Moyenne
 Bonne
 Très bonne

16. Combien de périodes scolaires manques-tu par semaine en raison de :

Activités cliniques

- Aucune (0)
- Une (1)
- Deux (2)
- Trois (3)
- Quatre et plus (4+)

Rendez-vous (ex. : éducateur de suivi, TS, psychologue, etc.)

- Aucune (0)
- Une (1)
- Deux (2)
- Trois (3)
- Quatre et plus (4+)

Autres (ex. : retraits à l'unité, arrêt d'agir, maladies)

- Aucune (0)
- Une (1)
- Deux (2)
- Trois (3)
- Quatre et plus (4+)

17. Combien d'activités parascolaires fais-tu?

- Aucune (0)
- Une (1)
- Deux (2)
- Trois (3)
- Quatre et plus (4+)

Merci de ta participation!!! 😊

ANNEXE C

Questionnaire enseignants pour l'étude 1

*L'école en Centre
jeunesse :
L'expérience des jeunes!*



Questionnaire enseignant

<p>SI VOUS AVEZ DES QUESTIONS, COMMUNIQUEZ AVEC :</p>	<p>CETTE ÉTUDE EST SOUS LA DIRECTION DE :</p>
<p>Audrey Savard Candidate au Ph.D. en Psychologie Département de Psychologie Faculté des Arts et des Sciences Université de Montréal</p>	<p>Mireille Joussemet Professeure adjointe Département de Psychologie Faculté des Arts et des Sciences Université de Montréal</p>

Questionnaire aux enseignant(e)s

Nom de l'élève: _____	Sexe : M F
	(Encerclez)
Niveau scolaire : _____	Programme : _____
Date d'aujourd'hui : ____/____/____	
jour mois année	

Instructions : Vous trouverez ci-bas un certain nombre de problèmes communs que peuvent avoir les jeunes à l'école. Veuillez évaluer chacun des items selon l'importance que ce problème représente dans le dernier mois. À chaque item, demandez-vous : « À quel point cela a-t-il été un problème dans le dernier mois » et encerclez la meilleure réponse pour chacun des énoncés. Pour « jamais ou très rarement », encerclez 0. Si cela se produit « très souvent ou très fréquemment », encerclez 3. Choisissez la cote 1 ou 2 pour ceux qui se classent entre le 0 et le 3. Prière de coter tous les énoncés.

AUCUNEMENT VRAI (jamais, rarement)	UN PEU VRAI (à l'occasion)	PLUTÔT VRAI (souvent, assez souvent)	TRÈS VRAI (très souvent, fréquemment)	JE NE SAIS PAS
--	----------------------------------	--	---	----------------------

1. Défiant(e).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Oublie des choses qu'il/elle a déjà apprises.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Ne semble pas être accepté(e) par le groupe.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Sentiments facilement blessés.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Explosif(ve), crise de colère, comportement imprévisible.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Effronté(e).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Évite, exprime une réticence à ou, a de la difficulté à s'engager dans des tâches qui demandent un effort mental soutenu et constant (tels que les travaux d'école ou les devoirs)	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Est l'un(e) des derniers(ères) à être choisi(e) pour des jeux ou des équipes.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Est un(e) enfant émotionnel(le).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. N'arrive pas à finir les choses qu'il/elle débute	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Défi(e) activement ou refuse de se plier aux demandes des adultes.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Faible en orthographe.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. N'a pas d'amis.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Timide, facilement effrayé(e).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Pleure souvent et facilement.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Habileté de lecture inférieure à ses pairs.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Ne sait pas comment se faire des amis.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Sensible aux critiques.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. S'obstine avec les adultes.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Manque d'intérêt dans les travaux scolaires.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. A peu d'habiletés sociales.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Ses demandes doivent être immédiatement répondues, facilement frustré(e).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Rancunier(ère) ou vindicatif(ve).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Perd des choses nécessaires pour ses tâches ou activités, (ex : devoirs scolaires, crayons, livres, outils, ou jouets).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Gêné(e), retiré(e).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Humeur change rapidement et de façon drastique.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Faible en arithmétique.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Agressif(ve) avec les autres, se bat.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Dans ma classe, cet(te) élève semble attentif(ve).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Cet(te) élève est impoli (e) avec les professeurs.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. Cet(te) élève fait plus que ce qui est requis.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. Cet(te) élève participe à une/des activité(s) parascolaire(s)	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Cet(te) élève vient en classe préparé(e).....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Cet(te) élève dérange la classe par exprès.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>

ANNEXE D

Formulaires de consentement pour l'étude 2 (parents/jeunes/éducateurs)



FORMULAIRE D'INFORMATION POUR LE CONSENTEMENT VERBAL DES PARENTS

L'EXPÉRIENCE DES JEUNES LORS D'UNE ACTIVITÉ CLINIQUE DE RÉSOLUTION DE PROBLÈMES INTERPERSONNELS

Cette recherche est sous la responsabilité de Mireille Joussemet, professeure, Université de Montréal, qu'on peut rejoindre au ____. Chercheuses principales: Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D. et Mireille Joussemet, professeure.

Bonjour!

Votre jeune est invitée à participer à un projet de recherche « *Une Activité Clinique En Centre jeunesse : Mon Expérience !* » Il est important de bien lire et comprendre le présent formulaire d'information. Il se peut que cette lettre contienne des mots ou des expressions que vous ne compreniez pas ou que vous ayez des questions. Si c'est le cas, n'hésitez pas à nous en faire part.

1) **En quoi consiste cette recherche?**

Notre projet de recherche vise à évaluer une activité clinique de résolution de problèmes interpersonnels offerte par une animatrice de l'Université de Montréal. Il est important pour les jeunes que cette activité réponde à leurs besoins puisqu'elle vise à les aider à apprendre à résoudre des conflits interpersonnels. Notre but est de demander aux jeunes de décrire comment elles se sentent pendant l'activité, de décrire leur expérience. Suite à l'activité, des questionnaires seront remis afin de décrire comment les jeunes ont trouvé l'activité et comment elles se sont senties. Recueillir leurs commentaires nous aidera à identifier qu'est-ce qui rend l'activité clinique plus positive dans le but de l'améliorer. Nous demandons donc à toutes les adolescentes des unités globalisantes du Centre RVP du CJM de participer à cette étude ainsi qu'à leurs éducateurs (trices).

2) Si ma jeune s'implique dans cette recherche, que sera-t-il concrètement attendu d'elle?

La participation à ce projet requiert que votre jeune...

- Participe, en groupe, à une activité clinique de résolution de problèmes interpersonnels (d'une durée d'environ une heure) pendant laquelle :
 - Elle apprendra comment résoudre un dilemme.
 - Elle complètera un dilemme en groupe.
 - Elle complètera un dilemme individuellement.
- Complète un questionnaire d'une durée d'environ 15 minutes.
 - Le questionnaire porte sur ce que les jeunes ont pensé de l'activité, ce qu'elles ont ressenti pendant l'activité avec l'animatrice et les autres jeunes.
- Rencontre l'animatrice une semaine suivant l'activité afin qu'elle puisse redonner les dilemmes de la semaine précédente et qu'elle puisse répondre aux questions sur les dilemmes de pratique s'il y a lieu.
- Accepte que leur éducateur (trice) de suivi réponde à un court questionnaire à propos d'elle (comment ça va avec les activités à faire, avec les consignes et la vie en groupe).

3) Y aura-t-il des avantages pour ma jeune à participer à cette recherche?

En participant à cette recherche, votre jeune ne retirera aucun avantage direct. Cependant, sa participation lui permettra de contribuer à faire avancer les connaissances actuelles et nous aidera à mieux connaître et comprendre la situation des jeunes quand elles participent à des activités cliniques visant à les aider. Nous souhaitons que ces informations puissent aider à améliorer l'animation des activités, en fonction des besoins des jeunes. Sa participation pourra également lui donner l'occasion de s'exprimer sur un sujet qui la concerne et de s'impliquer dans l'avancement des connaissances afin d'aider les jeunes à apprendre des habiletés sociales.

4) La participation de ma jeune à cette recherche entraînera-t-elle des risques ou des inconvénients?

Il y a peu de risques liés à la participation de votre jeune. Toutefois, notre étude pourrait amener quelques inconvénients mineurs. Il est possible que cette activité importante semble plus ou moins intéressante pour votre jeune et qu'elle lui demande de faire des efforts. Le questionnaire contient des questions qui pourront sembler personnelles, comme celles visant à mieux la connaître par exemple. D'autres questions pourraient la rendre mal à l'aise. Si cela arrive, votre jeune pourra en parler avec la chercheuse qui sera disponible pour en discuter avec elle et la diriger vers une

ressource appropriée si nécessaire. De plus, si vous acceptez que votre jeune participe, l'activité prendra du temps de la programmation régulière. L'activité durera environ une heure et compléter le questionnaire prendra 15 minutes. Finalement, une semaine plus tard, la jeune rencontrera une chercheure pour un maximum de 20 minutes.

5) Est-ce que les renseignements que ma jeune et son éducateur (trice) donneront seront confidentiels?

Tous les renseignements recueillis seront traités de manière confidentielle et ne seront utilisés que pour ce projet de recherche. Les membres de l'équipe de recherche doivent signer un formulaire d'engagement à la confidentialité, c'est-à-dire qu'ils s'engagent à ne pas divulguer les réponses de la jeune participante et de son éducateur (trice) à personne, même pas aux intervenants. Les informations données ne seront pas mentionnées dans son dossier au Centre jeunesse.

On lui attribuera un numéro de code pour sa participation et seules les chercheuses principales et leurs assistantes auront la liste correspondante. L'animatrice n'aura pas accès aux questionnaires et à la liste de correspondance avant la fin de l'étude. Les renseignements seront conservés dans un classeur sous clé situé dans le bureau fermé des chercheuses principales. Aucune information permettant d'identifier la jeune d'une façon ou d'une autre ne sera publiée, c'est à dire qu'il ne sera pas possible de savoir qui a dit quoi. Les renseignements personnels de la jeune seront détruits 7 ans après la fin du projet de recherche. Seules les données ne permettant pas d'identifier la jeune seront conservées après cette date.

Cependant, il est possible que nous devions permettre l'accès aux dossiers de recherche au comité d'éthique de la recherche du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire et aux organismes subventionnaires de la recherche à des fins de vérification ou de gestion de la recherche. Tous adhèrent à une politique de stricte confidentialité.

6) Est-ce que je pourrai connaître les résultats de la recherche?

Les résultats du projet seront diffusés en tant que données de groupe à l'intérieur d'une thèse de doctorat et d'articles scientifiques. Cela signifie que ni vous, ni votre jeune ne pourrez obtenir les résultats individuels.

Si vous souhaitez obtenir un résumé écrit des résultats généraux de la recherche, veuillez indiquer une adresse où nous pourrions vous le faire parvenir :

**CHERCHEURE : INSCRIRE L'INFORMATION DANS LE
FORMULAIRE À ENVOYER AU PARENT**

7) Est-ce que ma jeune recevra une compensation pour sa participation à la recherche?

Votre jeune aura une chance sur 6 de gagner un certificat-cadeau (valeur de 20\$ chez Archambault) lors de sa participation à ce projet de recherche. Le tirage sera fait parmi les participantes de son groupe le jour où le groupe sera rencontré en individuel et le prix sera remis à ce moment.

8) Est-ce que ma jeune est obligée de participer à la recherche ou d'y participer jusqu'à la fin?

Non, elle n'est pas obligée. Votre jeune est libre de ne pas participer à la recherche sans que vous ou elle ayez besoin de vous justifier et sans que cela nuise à vos relations avec les intervenants et autres professionnels impliqués au Centre jeunesse de Montréal. Le refus de participation ne sera d'ailleurs pas mentionné dans le dossier de votre jeune au Centre jeunesse. La participation de la jeune à ce projet de recherche est entièrement volontaire.

De plus, même après avoir accepté de participer, vous ou votre jeune êtes libre de la retirer de la recherche en tout temps sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne lui cause un quelconque tort. Si votre jeune décide de se retirer de la recherche ou que vous souhaitez qu'elle se retire, vous pouvez le communiquer directement à la chercheuse, ou la contacter par téléphone (le numéro est indiqué au point 9 de ce document). Les renseignements que la jeune aura déjà donnés seront alors détruits.

Les chercheuses pourraient aussi décider d'interrompre la participation ou d'arrêter la recherche si elles pensent notamment que c'est dans l'intérêt de la jeune ou celui de l'ensemble des participantes.

9) Si j'ai besoin de plus d'informations avant de me décider ou tout au long de la recherche, qui pourrais-je contacter?

Si vous avez des questions concernant cette recherche, vous pouvez contacter, Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D R/I en psychologie, au numéro de téléphone suivant : ____ ou à l'adresse courriel suivante :

Si vous souhaitez vous renseigner sur les droits d'une jeune ou pour formuler toute plainte, vous pouvez contacter le commissaire local aux plaintes et à la qualité des services du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire au numéro suivant : ____.

10) Consentement à la recherche

Je comprends le contenu de ce qui m'a été expliqué aujourd'hui au téléphone et je consens à ce que ma jeune participe à cette recherche sans contrainte ni pression. Je certifie qu'on m'a expliqué verbalement et que je relirai la feuille d'information qui me sera envoyée par la poste. J'ai pu poser toutes mes questions et j'ai obtenu des réponses satisfaisantes. J'ai eu tout le temps nécessaire pour prendre ma décision.

Je comprends que je suis libre d'accepter que ma jeune participe ou non à la recherche sans que cela lui nuise. Je sais qu'elle peut se retirer en tout temps sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne lui cause un tort.

Je comprends aussi qu'en signant ce formulaire, ma jeune et moi ne renonçons à aucun de nos droits légaux et ne libérons ni les chercheuses ni le Centre jeunesse et le commanditaire de la recherche de leur responsabilité civile ou professionnelle.

Je recevrai une copie signée et datée par la chercheuse, en mon nom.

CHERCHEURE : REMPLIR LE CONSENTEMENT À ENVOYER PAR LA POSTE ET FAIRE COPIE

L'original du formulaire sera conservé au bureau de la chercheuse principale situé à l'Université de Montréal et une copie signée sera remise à la participante.

- Le projet de recherche et le présent formulaire de consentement ont été approuvés par le CER du CJM-IU le: 15 décembre 2008

- No de dossier : **08-11/ 018**

- Date de la version du présent formulaire : 03 septembre 2009



FORMULAIRE D'INFORMATION ET D'ASSENTIMENT DES JEUNES

« UNE ACTIVITÉ CLINIQUE EN CENTRE JEUNESSE : MON EXPÉRIENCE! »

Cette recherche est sous la responsabilité de Mireille Joussemet, professeure, Université de Montréal, qu'on peut rejoindre au _____. Chercheuses principales: Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D. et Mireille Joussemet, professeure.

Bonjour!

Tu es invitée à participer à un projet de recherche. Il est important de bien lire et comprendre le présent formulaire d'information et de consentement. Il se peut que cette lettre contienne des mots ou des expressions que tu ne comprennes pas ou que tu aies des questions. Si c'est le cas, n'hésite pas à nous en faire part. Prends tout le temps nécessaire pour te décider.

1) En quoi consiste cette recherche?

Notre projet de recherche vise à évaluer une activité clinique de résolution de problèmes interpersonnels offerte par une animatrice de l'Université de Montréal. Il est important pour les jeunes que cette activité réponde à leurs besoins puisqu'elle vise à les aider à apprendre à résoudre des conflits interpersonnels. Notre but est de demander aux jeunes de décrire comment elles se sentent pendant l'activité, de décrire leur expérience. Suite à l'activité, des questionnaires seront remis afin de décrire comment tu as trouvé l'activité et comment tu t'es sentie en la faisant. Recueillir tes commentaires nous aidera à identifier qu'est-ce qui rend l'activité clinique plus positive dans le but de l'améliorer. Nous demandons donc à toutes les adolescentes des unités globalisantes du Centre Rose-Virginie-Pelletier du CJM de participer à cette étude ainsi qu'à leurs éducateurs (trices).

2) Si je m'implique dans cette recherche, que sera-t-il concrètement attendu de moi?

La participation à ce projet requiert que tu...

- Participes, en groupe, à une activité clinique de dilemmes de négociation interpersonnelle (durée d'environ une heure) pendant laquelle :
 - Tu apprendras comment résoudre un dilemme.
 - Tu complèteras un dilemme en groupe.
 - Tu complèteras un dilemme individuellement.
- Complètes un questionnaire d'une durée d'environ 15 minutes.
 - Le questionnaire porte sur ce que tu as pensé de l'activité, ce que tu as ressenti pendant l'activité avec l'animatrice et les autres jeunes.
- Rencontres l'animatrice une semaine suivant l'activité afin de discuter de ton dilemme qu'elle aura commenté afin de t'aider dans ton apprentissage et afin qu'elle puisse répondre à tes questions sur l'étude.
- Acceptes que ton éducateur (trice) de suivi réponde à un court questionnaire à propos de toi (comment ça va avec les activités à faire, avec les consignes et la vie en groupe).

3) Y aura-t-il des avantages pour moi à participer à cette recherche?

En participant à cette recherche, tu ne retireras aucun avantage direct. Cependant, ta participation te permettra de contribuer à faire avancer les connaissances actuelles et nous aidera à mieux connaître et comprendre la situation des jeunes quand elles participent à des activités cliniques visant à les aider. Nous souhaitons que ces informations puissent aider à améliorer l'animation des activités en fonction des besoins des jeunes. Ta participation pourra également te donner l'occasion de t'exprimer sur un sujet qui te concerne et t'impliquer dans l'avancement des connaissances afin d'aider les jeunes à développer leurs habiletés sociales.

4) Ma participation à cette recherche entraînera-t-elle pour moi des risques ou des inconvénients?

Il y a peu de risques liés à ta participation. Toutefois, notre étude pourrait amener quelques inconvénients mineurs. Il est possible que cette activité importante te semble plus ou moins intéressante et qu'elle te demande de faire des efforts. Le questionnaire contient des questions qui pourront te sembler personnelles comme les questions visant à mieux te connaître par exemple. D'autres questions pourraient te rendre mal à l'aise. Si cela t'arrive, tu peux en parler avec la chercheuse ou ses assistantes qui pourront en parler avec toi. De plus, si tu acceptes de participer, l'activité

te prendra de ton temps de programmation habituelle. L'activité durera environ une heure et compléter le questionnaire te prendra 15 minutes. Finalement, une semaine plus tard, tu rencontreras la chercheuse pour un maximum de 20 minutes.

5) Est-ce que les renseignements que je donnerai seront confidentiels?

Tous les renseignements recueillis seront traités de manière confidentielle et ne seront utilisés que pour ce projet de recherche. Les membres de l'équipe de recherche doivent signer un formulaire d'engagement à la confidentialité c'est-à-dire qu'ils s'engagent à ne pas divulguer tes réponses à personne, même pas à tes parents et ton éducateur (trice) de suivi. Les informations que tu donneras ne seront pas mentionnées dans ton dossier au Centre jeunesse.

On t'attribuera un numéro de code pour ta participation et seules les chercheuses principales et leur(s) assistante (s) auront la liste correspondante. L'animatrice n'aura pas accès aux questionnaires et à la liste de correspondance avant la fin de l'étude. Les renseignements seront conservés dans un classeur sous clé situé dans le bureau fermé des chercheuses principales. Aucune information permettant de t'identifier d'une façon ou d'une autre ne sera publiée c'est à dire qu'il ne sera pas possible de savoir qui a dit quoi. Tes renseignements personnels seront détruits 7 ans après la fin du projet de recherche. Seules les données ne permettant pas de t'identifier seront conservées après cette date.

Cependant, il est possible que nous devions permettre l'accès aux dossiers de recherche au comité d'éthique de la recherche du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire et aux organismes subventionnaires de la recherche à des fins de vérification ou de gestion de la recherche. Tous adhèrent à une politique de stricte confidentialité.

6) Est-ce que je pourrai connaître les résultats de la recherche?

Les résultats du projet seront diffusés en tant que données de groupe à l'intérieur d'une thèse de doctorat et d'articles scientifiques. Cela signifie que tu ne pourras pas obtenir tes résultats individuels.

Si tu souhaites obtenir un résumé écrit des résultats généraux de la recherche, indique une adresse (postale ou courriel) où nous pourrons te le faire parvenir :

7) Est-ce que je recevrai une compensation pour ma participation à la recherche?

Tu auras une chance sur six de gagner un certificat-cadeau (valeur de 20\$ chez Archambault). Un tirage aura lieu dans ton groupe afin de te remercier de ta participation. Le tirage sera fait le jour où ton groupe sera rencontré en individuel et le prix sera remis à ce moment.

8) Est-ce que je suis obligée de participer à la recherche ou d’y participer jusqu’à la fin?

Non, tu n’es pas obligée. Tu es libre de ne pas participer à la recherche sans que tu aies besoin de te justifier et sans que cela nuise à tes relations avec les intervenants et autres professionnels impliqués au Centre jeunesse de Montréal. Ton refus ne sera d’ailleurs pas mentionné dans ton dossier au Centre jeunesse. Ta participation est entièrement volontaire.

De plus, même si tu acceptes de participer, tu es libre de te retirer de la recherche en tout temps sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne te cause un quelconque tort. Si tu décides de te retirer de la recherche, tu peux communiquer directement avec la chercheuse ou par téléphone (le numéro est indiqué à la dernière page de ce document). Les renseignements que tu auras déjà donnés seront alors détruits.

Les chercheuses pourraient, elles aussi, décider d’interrompre ta participation ou d’arrêter la recherche si elles pensent notamment que c’est dans ton intérêt ou celui de l’ensemble des participantes.

9) Si j’ai besoin de plus d’informations avant de me décider ou tout au long de la recherche, qui pourrais-je contacter?

Si tu as des questions concernant cette recherche, tu peux contacter Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D R/I en psychologie, au numéro de téléphone suivant : ____ ou à l’adresse courriel suivante :

Si tu souhaites te renseigner sur tes droits ou pour formuler une plainte, tu peux contacter le commissaire local aux plaintes et à la qualité des services du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire au numéro suivant : ____.

10) Consentement à la recherche

Je comprends le contenu de ce formulaire de consentement et je consens à participer à cette recherche sans contrainte ni pression. Je certifie qu'on me l'a expliqué verbalement. J'ai pu poser toutes mes questions et j'ai obtenu des réponses satisfaisantes. J'ai eu tout le temps nécessaire pour prendre ma décision.

Je comprends que je suis libre de participer ou non à la recherche sans que cela me nuise. Je sais que je peux me retirer en tout temps, sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne me cause un tort.

Je comprends aussi qu'en signant ce formulaire, je ne renonce à aucun de mes droits légaux et ne libère ni les chercheurs ni le Centre jeunesse ni le commanditaire de la recherche de leur responsabilité civile ou professionnelle.

Je recevrai une copie signée et datée de ce formulaire de consentement.

Nom de la participante	Signature	Date

11) Déclaration de la chercheure

Je certifie avoir expliqué à la participante la nature de la recherche ainsi que le contenu de ce formulaire et lui avoir clairement indiqué qu'elle reste à tout moment libre de mettre un terme à sa participation au projet. Je lui remettrai une copie signée du présent formulaire.

Nom de la chercheure et rôle dans la recherche	Signature de la chercheure	Date

L'original du formulaire sera conservé au bureau de la chercheure principale situé à l'Université de Montréal et une copie signée sera remise à la participante.

- Le projet de recherche et le présent formulaire de consentement ont été approuvés par le CER du CJM-IU le 15 décembre 2008

- No de dossier : **08-11/ 018**

- Date de la version du présent formulaire : 31 août 2009



FORMULAIRE D'INFORMATION ET DE CONSENTEMENT POUR LES ÉDUCATEURS(TRICES) DE SUIVI

L'EXPÉRIENCE DES JEUNES LORS D'UNE ACTIVITÉ CLINIQUE DE RÉSOLUTION DE PROBLÈMES INTERPERSONNELS

Cette recherche est sous la responsabilité de Mireille Joussemet, professeure, Université de Montréal, qu'on peut rejoindre au _____. Chercheuses principales: Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D. et Mireille Joussemet, professeure.

Bonjour!

Vous êtes invité(e)s à participer à un projet de recherche « *Une Activité Clinique En Centre jeunesse: Mon Expérience!* » portant sur les adolescentes entre 12 et 17 ans des unités du Centre Rose-Virginie-Pelletier (RVP) du Centre jeunesse de Montréal. Il est important de bien lire et comprendre le présent formulaire d'information et de consentement. Il se peut que cette lettre contienne des mots ou des expressions que vous ne compreniez pas ou que vous ayez des questions. Si c'est le cas, n'hésitez pas à nous en faire part. Prenez tout le temps nécessaire pour vous décider.

1) **En quoi consiste cette recherche?**

Notre projet de recherche vise à évaluer une activité clinique de résolution de problèmes interpersonnels offerte par une animatrice de l'Université de Montréal. Il est important pour les jeunes que cette activité réponde à leurs besoins puisqu'elle vise à les aider à apprendre à résoudre des conflits interpersonnels. Notre but est de demander aux jeunes de décrire comment elles se sentent pendant l'activité, de décrire leur expérience. Suite à l'activité, des questionnaires seront remis afin de décrire comment les jeunes ont trouvé l'activité et comment elles se sont senties. Recueillir leurs commentaires nous aidera à identifier qu'est-ce qui rend l'activité clinique plus positive dans le but de l'améliorer. Nous demandons donc à toutes les adolescentes des unités du Centre RVP du CJM de participer à cette étude ainsi qu'à leurs éducateurs (trices).

2) **Si je m'implique dans cette recherche, que sera-t-il concrètement attendu de moi?**

La participation à ce projet requiert que vous...

- Demandez au parent responsable ou au tuteur légal, lors d'une communication téléphonique, s'il consent à ce que son numéro de téléphone nous soit transmis. Si le DPJ est responsable de la jeune ou que le parent n'est plus présent, il faut simplement nous transmettre les coordonnées du travailleur social.
- Complétez un questionnaire, au sujet de chacune de vos jeunes de suivi qui participe à notre étude. Le questionnaire sera d'environ 5 à 10 minutes pour chacune des jeunes.
 - Le questionnaire porte sur les caractéristiques personnelles de nature cognitive, psychologique et comportementale de vos jeunes de suivi et sur leur fonctionnement en Centre jeunesse.
- Acceptez que, pendant la programmation, les jeunes participent à une activité clinique d'environ une heure et complètent un questionnaire d'environ 15 minutes.
- Acceptez que, pendant leurs temps libres, les jeunes qui le désirent pratiquent des dilemmes supplémentaires.
- Acceptez que, pendant la programmation, une semaine plus tard les jeunes soient rencontrées en individuel pour un maximum de 20 minutes.

3) Y aura-t-il des avantages pour moi à participer à cette recherche?

En participant à cette recherche, vous ne retirerez aucun avantage direct. Cependant, votre participation permettra de contribuer à faire avancer les connaissances actuelles et nous aidera à mieux connaître et comprendre la situation des jeunes quand elles participent à des activités cliniques visant à les aider. Nous souhaitons que ces informations puissent aider à améliorer l'animation des activités, en fonction des besoins des jeunes. Votre participation pourra également vous donner l'occasion de vous exprimer au sujet de jeunes que vous connaissez bien et de vous impliquer dans l'avancement des connaissances afin d'aider les jeunes à développer leurs habiletés sociales.

4) Ma participation à cette recherche entraînera-t-elle des risques ou des inconvénients?

Il y a peu de risques liés à votre participation. Toutefois, notre étude pourrait amener quelques inconvénients mineurs. Le questionnaire contient des questions qui pourront vous sembler personnelles à propos de vos jeunes comme leurs difficultés particulières par exemple. Ces questions pourraient vous rendre mal à l'aise. Si cela arrive, vous pourrez en parler avec la chercheuse qui sera disponible pour en discuter avec vous et vous diriger vers une ressource appropriée si nécessaire. De plus, si vous acceptez de participer, compléter le questionnaire vous prendra

environ 5 à 10 minutes par jeune participant à notre étude. De plus, les chercheuses prendront une heure du temps de programmation lors de l'activité et 20 minutes maximum lors du retour la semaine suivante.

5) Est-ce que les renseignements que je donnerai seront confidentiels?

Tous les renseignements recueillis seront traités de manière confidentielle et ne seront utilisés que pour ce projet de recherche. Les membres de l'équipe de recherche doivent signer un formulaire d'engagement à la confidentialité c'est-à-dire qu'ils s'engagent à ne pas divulguer les réponses que vous donnerez à personne même pas aux jeunes concernées et à leurs parents. Les informations que vous donnerez ne seront pas mentionnées dans les dossiers des jeunes.

On vous attribuera un numéro de code pour votre participation et seules les chercheuses principales et leurs assistantes auront la liste correspondante. Les renseignements seront conservés dans un classeur sous clé situé dans le bureau fermé des chercheuses principales. Aucune information permettant de vous identifier d'une façon ou d'une autre ne sera publiée c'est-à-dire qu'il ne sera pas possible de savoir qui a dit quoi. Vos renseignements personnels seront détruits 7 ans après la fin du projet de recherche. Seules les données ne permettant pas de vous identifier seront conservées après cette date.

Cependant, il est possible que nous devions permettre l'accès aux dossiers de recherche au comité d'éthique de la recherche du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire et aux organismes subventionnaires de la recherche à des fins de vérification ou de gestion de la recherche. Tous adhèrent à une politique de stricte confidentialité.

6) Est-ce que je pourrai connaître les résultats de la recherche?

Les résultats du projet seront diffusés en tant que données de groupe à l'intérieur d'une thèse de doctorat et d'articles scientifiques. Cela signifie que ni vous, ni les élèves ne pourrez obtenir les résultats individuels de notre étude.

Si vous souhaitez obtenir un résumé écrit des résultats généraux de la recherche, veuillez indiquer une adresse où nous pourrions vous le faire parvenir :

7) Est-ce que je recevrai une compensation pour ma participation à la recherche?

Selon la ligne de conduite élaborée par le Comité de direction clientèle du CJM-IU, les intervenants ne peuvent recevoir directement de compensation pour leur participation à la recherche.

8) Est-ce que je suis obligé(e) de participer à la recherche ou d'y participer jusqu'à la fin?

Non, vous n'êtes pas obligé(e). Vous êtes libre de ne pas participer à la recherche sans que vous ayez besoin de vous justifier et sans que cela nuise à vos relations de travail. Le refus de participation ne sera d'ailleurs pas mentionné à votre employeur. Votre participation à ce projet de recherche est entièrement volontaire.

De plus, même si vous acceptez de participer, vous êtes libre de vous retirer de la recherche en tout temps sur simple avis verbal sans explication et sans que cela ne vous cause un quelconque tort. Si vous décidez de vous retirer de la recherche, vous pouvez le communiquer directement à la chercheuse ou vous pouvez la contacter par téléphone (le numéro est indiqué à la dernière page de ce document). Les renseignements que vous aurez déjà donnés seront alors détruits.

Les chercheuses pourraient aussi décider d'interrompre la participation ou d'arrêter la recherche si elles pensent notamment que c'est dans votre intérêt ou celui de l'ensemble des participantes.

9) Si j'ai besoin de plus d'informations avant de me décider ou tout au long de la recherche, qui pourrais-je contacter?

Si vous avez des questions concernant cette recherche, vous pouvez contacter Audrey Savard, candidate au Ph.D R/I en psychologie, au numéro de téléphone suivant :

Si vous souhaitez vous renseigner sur vos droits ou pour formuler toute plainte, vous pouvez contacter le commissaire local aux plaintes et à la qualité des services du Centre jeunesse de Montréal-Institut Universitaire au numéro suivant :

10) Consentement à la recherche

Je comprends le contenu de ce formulaire de consentement et je consens à participer à cette recherche en tant qu'informant secondaire, sans contrainte ni pression. Je certifie qu'on m'a expliqué verbalement et que j'ai bien lu la feuille d'information. J'ai pu poser toutes mes questions et j'ai obtenu des réponses satisfaisantes. J'ai eu tout le temps nécessaire pour prendre ma décision.

Je comprends que je suis libre d'accepter de participer ou non à la recherche sans que cela me nuise. Je sais que je peux me retirer en tout temps sur simple avis verbal, sans explication et sans que cela ne me cause un tort.

Je comprends aussi qu'en signant ce formulaire, je ne renonce à aucun de mes droits légaux et ne libère ni les chercheurs ni le Centre jeunesse et le commanditaire de la recherche de leur responsabilité civile ou professionnelle.

Je recevrai une copie signée et datée de ce formulaire de consentement.

Nom de l'éducateur(trice)

Signature

Date

11) Déclaration de la chercheure

Je certifie avoir expliqué à la participant(e) la nature de la recherche ainsi que le contenu de ce formulaire et lui avoir clairement indiqué qu'il reste à tout moment libre de mettre un terme à sa participation au projet. Je lui remettrai une copie signée du présent formulaire.

Nom de la chercheure et rôle
dans la recherche

Signature de la chercheure

Date

L'original du formulaire sera conservé au bureau de la chercheure principale situé à l'Université de Montréal et une copie signée sera remise à la participant(e).

- Le projet de recherche et le présent formulaire de consentement ont été approuvés par le CER du CJM-IU le: 15 décembre 2008

- No de dossier : **08-11/ 018**

- Date de la version du présent formulaire : 31 août 2009

ANNEXE E

Script de l'instructeur version « soutien à l'autonomie »

SCRIPT : Condition Soutien à l'autonomie.

Faire connaissance...

Bonjour les filles!

Pour commencer, j'aimerais ça qu'on fasse connaissance! Alors moi, je m'appelle Julie et je travaille à l'Université de Montréal où je crée des activités cliniques pour les jeunes. Aujourd'hui, je suis ici pour faire avec vous une activité de résolution de problèmes interpersonnels donc comment régler des conflits, des chicanes. Je suis ici parce que j'aimerais avoir vos commentaires sur l'activité. C'est aussi pour ça qu'Audrey va être avec nous pendant l'activité. Elle va prendre des notes sur mon animation. Puis, après l'activité, (nom), va revenir pour vous remettre un questionnaire qui me donnera vos commentaires sur l'activité! Aujourd'hui, la contribution et la participation de chacune pendant l'activité sont très importantes pour qu'on puisse continuer d'améliorer notre activité avec vos commentaires.

Avant de commencer, j'ai placé des cartons et des crayons devant vous, j'aimerais que vous y écriviez vos noms clairement. S.V.P.

[SA] C'est plus facile, pour moi, quand j'anime de connaître les prénoms et les cartons vont m'aider à m'en souvenir pendant l'activité.

[Toujours s'adresser aux jeunes par leur prénom]

Point de départ positif :

Parfait! Donc, bienvenue à toutes et merci d'avoir accepté de participer!

Remise des cahiers d'activités : Voici vos cahiers pour l'activité.

Mise en Situation : Je ne sais pas pour vous mais, moi, lorsque je me sens triste ou en colère, c'est souvent parce que j'ai eu une chicane avec quelqu'un. Par exemple, l'autre jour, en rentrant à l'école, je n'avais pas déjeuné chez-moi parce que j'avais laissé un yogourt et une banane à mon bureau la veille. Quand je suis rentrée, ils n'étaient plus là pis j'avais très très faim. Étant donné qu'on est juste deux dans le bureau ben j'imagine que c'est ma collègue qui l'a pris ! Moi, je n'aime pas ça que quelqu'un prenne mes choses sans me les demander ! Donc, toute la journée, j'étais fâchée en plus d'avoir ben faim et j'ai rien dit à ma collègue.

C'est jamais le fun de devoir régler une chicane pis, dès fois, on dirait qu'on ne sait pas comment faire et on ne la règle pas vraiment.

Donc aujourd'hui, on va apprendre une recette qui va nous aider à régler des chicanes justement! Comme c'est mentionné à la page 2 de votre cahier d'activités, cette recette va nous permettre de définir un problème, d'envisager diverses solutions, de prévoir les conséquences des solutions et d'évaluer ces conséquences pour vous et les autres (les objectifs et rationnelles)

[Si les filles demandent : ben pourquoi t'as pas fait ta recette avec ta collègue?!? Tu pourrais répondre : hum, c'est une question intéressante! Qu'est-ce que tu penses qui peut faire en sorte que parfois on n'utilise pas nos habiletés quand une chicane arrive? Si ne sait pas, peut-être que tu peux embarquer le rationnel tout de suite!

« En fait [nom], tu viens de nous permettre de souligner que la raison pour laquelle on se pratique ensemble aujourd'hui avec une histoire inventée, c'est que ça peut être plus facile de régler un faux problème qu'un problème dans la vraie vie comme une chicane par exemple. Pis même à ça, ce n'est pas nécessairement facile avec un faux problème parce que c'est nouveau et que cela peut sembler beaucoup d'étapes à apprendre. Donc quand on se pratique avec de faux problèmes et plus on se pratique; plus cela devient naturel et facile de le faire. Alors, quand tu arrives dans la vraie vie avec une vraie chicane à régler, cela risque de nous aider.] ok? C'est bon? Donc...

Premièrement, on va faire un premier dilemme tout le monde ensemble après, il y aura un autre dilemme à faire en individuel.

Dilemme en groupe

Donc, pour le premier dilemme qu'on va faire tout le monde ensemble, il y a certaines consignes qui vont nous aider à ce que l'activité se déroule bien. Elles sont inscrites à la suite des objectifs, toujours à la page 2 de votre cahier! Donc, je m'attends à ce que :

- Vous écoutiez les explications.
- Vous posiez des questions si vous ne comprenez pas.
- Vous réfléchissiez à comment vous résoudriez le problème.
- Vous exprimiez vos idées en levant la main.
- Vous écoutiez le point de vue des autres : ne pas couper la parole aux autres.
- Que le tout soit fait dans le respect de soi, des autres et de l'environnement.

Le dilemme avec lequel nous allons travailler ensemble se trouve à la page 3 de votre cahier d'activités (SA = donner une information).

Êtes-vous prêtes ?

Est-ce que quelqu'un nous lirait le dilemme ou vous préférez que je le lise ? (SA)

Luc, se rend chez son meilleur ami Jérôme. En arrivant, il trouve sur le lit de son ami le superbe iPod dernier cri qu'il ne pourra jamais s'offrir vu le prix du iPod. Luc éprouve une irrésistible envie de l'avoir. Alors Luc prend le iPod de Jérôme et le met dans son sac sans réfléchir. Lorsque Jérôme arrive dans sa chambre, il ne remarque pas immédiatement la disparition de son iPod, mais quand Luc s'en va, Jérôme remarque que son iPod n'est plus là. Jérôme comprend alors que Luc a pris son iPod.

« Afin de s'assurer que toutes ont bien compris, on a besoin d'une volontaire pour nous résumer l'histoire » (SA)

Si personne ne résume, demander : « est-ce que vous auriez besoin qu'on le relise? »

sinon

Attendre 30 secondes que quelqu'un se décide...

Si personne ne parle : Qu'est-ce qui pourrait être un point important de l'histoire selon vous? (SA) J'aurais juste besoin que quelqu'un me dise le plus important de l'histoire pour que je sache que mon histoire est assez claire.

Merci! On a eu un résumé des points importants donc on peut partir de là!

Rationnel et empathie :

Avant de continuer les filles, j'aimerais vous dire que la raison pour laquelle on se pratique ensemble aujourd'hui avec une histoire inventée, c'est que ça peut être plus facile de régler un faux problème qu'un problème dans la vraie vie comme une chicane, par exemple. Pis même à ça, ce n'est pas nécessairement facile avec un faux problème parce que c'est nouveau et que cela peut sembler beaucoup d'étapes à apprendre. Donc on se pratique avec de faux problèmes et plus on se pratique plus cela peut devenir naturel et plus facile à faire. Alors, quand tu arrives dans la vraie vie avec une vraie chicane à régler, cela risque de vous aider.

Un mot sur l'empathie : Si, en cours de route, quelqu'un dit quelque chose par rapport à l'activité (ex. c'est plate); tenter de refléter avec (Ex) : Ça peut sembler ennuyeux ou ce n'est pas l'activité la plus amusante. Je pense que j'éviterais les reflets avec TU ou TE (ex, tu trouves ça... ça te semble...).

C'est une activité qui peut être difficile/dérangante/parle de choses pas très drôles/demande pas mal de ...patience, de réflexion, remue-méninges, d'efforts...

Alors, êtes-vous prêtes?

Animer le dilemme :

Si on reprend l'étape 1: « La première étape à la résolution de problème, c'est d'identifier quel est le problème. »

« Quel est le problème selon vous? »

Il y a de l'espace à la page 4 de votre cahier pour vos réponses.

Dans ce cas-ci, on a deux personnages dans notre histoire « Dans un conflit, les deux personnes peuvent avoir un problème, tout dépend de quelle façon on voit ça. D'ailleurs, dans la prochaine étape, nous allons regarder l'impact du problème sur les deux personnes mais pour commencer à réfléchir; il est utile de faire un choix et de voir le problème avec la perception d'un des personnages. Puisque c'est Jérôme qui s'est fait voler son Ipod, je vous suggère de commencer à réfléchir au problème avec son point de vue. D'accord? Oui? Ok...

– Comment Jérôme voit ça, ce qui vient d'arriver?

– C'est un problème, pour Jérôme, parce que...

Feedback : Ce que vous venez de dire sont plusieurs raisons qui font que c'est un problème pour Jérôme que Luc ait pris son Ipod.

Wrap-up : ...donc on a identifié le problème...

L'étape 2 : « Maintenant qu'on a bien défini notre problème, on va réfléchir ensemble au problème! » Pour faire ça, comme c'est inscrit dans votre cahier d'activités, il y a différentes choses qu'on **peut se demander**

Par exemple, on peut :

A. Faire ressortir les émotions des différents personnages :

Donc, qu'est-ce qu'on pourrait se demander à partir de ça selon vous?

Comment Jérôme se sent-il face à ce problème?

Comment tu penses qu'il se sent? Vous en pensez quoi? Autre chose?

Est-ce qu'on pourrait aussi se demander comment Luc se sent de son côté?

Si les jeunes ne parlent pas beaucoup pour animer :

SA : Qu'est-ce qu'on pourrait se poser d'autre comme questions? Par exemple, qu'est-ce que vous pourriez dire sur comment Luc se sent?

SA : Parfois, ça peut aider de se demander...

SA : Est-ce qu'on pourrait aussi se demander si...

Résumer les émotions.

On peut également penser à ce qui est problématique socialement dans la situation.

B. Identifier ce qui est problématique socialement dans le dilemme :

Pourquoi c'est un problème selon vous?

Par exemple, si ça vous arrivait, qu'est-ce que vous pourriez penser au sujet de votre amitié avec Luc?

Questions pour m'aider à animer

Angle Jérôme :

- Est-ce qu'on se vole entre amis?
- C'est-tu un vol ou un emprunt?
- Est-ce qu'on peut emprunter sans demander? Si oui, à qui ? Est-ce que ça fait une différence si c'est un ami ou une connaissance ?
- Est-ce que ça fait une différence si c'est la première fois?
- C'est quoi un vrai ami?
- C'est quoi la différence entre un vrai ami et une connaissance ?
- Un ami peut-il nous faire ça?
- Qu'est-ce que vous pensez qui va arriver dans leur relation d'amitié?
- D'après vous, comment se sent Jérôme ?

Angle Luc :

- Est-ce que Luc a fait un vol ?
- Est-ce qu'on peut emprunter sans demander? Si oui, à qui ? Est-ce que ça fait une différence si c'est un ami ou une connaissance?
- Est-ce que Luc a le droit de faire ça?
- Est-ce que Luc met sa relation d'amitié en jeu?
- Pensez-vous qu'un ami a des responsabilités envers son meilleur ami, un ami, une connaissance?
- D'après vous, comment se sent Luc après avoir pris le iPod?

Feedback : Voilà, c'était des exemples d'émotions! C'est possible que les personnages se sentent X,Y,Z dans une situation où....

Wrap-up

Maintenant, nous sommes rendues à se questionner sur les différentes solutions possibles

C. Identifier les solutions

- Qu'est-ce que [personnage choisi] pourrait faire pour résoudre son problème? Les diverses solutions qu'il pourrait prendre?
- Il y a un tableau pour écrire les idées qu'on a à la page 5 de votre cahier.
- Donc ici, je vois que pour vous, il y a # solutions possibles.

Pour m'aider à animer :

- **Piste de solutions possibles :**
- Jérôme :
- Couper la relation;
- Pardonner
- Donner une seconde chance.
- Luc :
- S'excuser
- Ramener le iPod.

Feedback : C'est tout un remue-méninge ça, vous avez nommé plusieurs solutions possibles!

Wrap-up

Maintenant, juste avant de choisir une solution à l'étape 3, c'est utile de reprendre les différentes solutions trouvées et d'identifier les avantages et les inconvénients des solutions trouvées. On fait tout ça dans le but de trouver la meilleure solution possible au problème de Luc et Jérôme.

D. Éventuelles avantages/inconvénients

- Qu'est-ce qui serait un « pour » de cette solution-là? Est-ce qu'il y a des « contres » selon vous? Qu'est-ce que vous en pensez (aux autres)?

Feedback : C'est ça, c'est un désavantage possible pour Luc.

Ça, ce serait un avantage de la solution x, oui...

Hum, donc si je comprends bien ce que tu dis, cette solution pourrait avoir comme inconvénient d'amener d'autres problèmes? C'est une possibilité oui!

Maintenant qu'on a bien pris le temps de réfléchir au problème, la 3^{ème} étape se trouve à la page 6 de votre cahier et c'est de choisir ce qui nous semble être la meilleure solution!

Étape 3 : Quelle serait la meilleure solution?

- Comment se sentirait-il s'il prenait cette solution?
- Comment se sentirait l'autre personnage si X prenait cette solution?

Feedback : Ce sont des sentiments possibles si on prenait cette décision-là...

Wrap-up : Selon vous, la meilleure solution serait donc de...

Étape 4 : S'assurer que la solution est juste et équitable

« Maintenant qu'on a identifié ce qu'on pense être la meilleure solution, on va s'assurer qu'elle est juste et équitable, afin d'être plus sûres de notre solution! »

On peut se demander...

Est-ce que cela convient aux deux partis? Pourquoi? Comment on le sait?
(Prévoir les conséquences)

- Qu'est-ce que tu penses qui se passerait si X prenait cette solution?
- Si tu étais à la place de Y, comment te sentirais-tu face à cette solution?
- Est-ce que cette solution est bonne pour les deux personnes impliquées dans cette situation?

Wrap-Up: Ça semble juste pour les deux donc; oui bonne solution... Sinon, il faudrait revenir à nos pour/contres... reprendre les étapes, peut-être qu'on a oublié quelque chose? (si le temps de le faire) sinon, dire que manque de temps, mais confiance que vous ayez compris que quand ...

Feedback positif – descriptif- : « Yeah! Nous avons réussi à passer à travers toutes les étapes! Vous vous êtes questionnées sur le problème de Luc et Jérôme, vous vous êtes mises à la place des personnages, vous avez pensé à différentes solutions et choisi celle qui semblait la meilleure. Wow, moi, c'est ce que j'appelle de la persévérance les filles!! Je suis confiante que maintenant vous allez être capables de résoudre le prochain dilemme seules. » (SA)

Un mot sur le feedback :

Merci!

Voilà, c'était un exemple d'émotions.

Oui, c'est possible que ...

C'est ça, c'est un désavantage possible pour Luc.

Wow, il y a du remue-méninges ici en ce moment!

Il y a plein d'idées, plein de possibilités sur le tableau.

Je trouve ça motivant et le fun (décrire comment on se sent. Mais attention : PAS de « quand » Ex. j'aime ça *quand* vous participez de même (trop conditionnel).

Empathie : Je sais que ça peut vous paraître moins le fun de le faire en individuel plutôt qu'en groupe. Je comprends ça...

ATTENTION !!! PAS DE MAIS !!! (Faire une pause)

Rationnel : En même temps, Vous savez...l'avantage de pratiquer seule; c'est que c'est une bonne pratique, parce que ça ressemble à ce qui arrive dans la vraie

vie. Quand on pense nous-mêmes à ce qui arrive et qu'on cherche une façon de régler une chicane...
Ça vous va?

Vous êtes prêtes?

Dilemme individuel

On va lire le prochain dilemme ensemble pour s'assurer que tout le monde comprend bien l'histoire. Par la suite, je m'attends à ce que vous poursuiviez les étapes pour résoudre le dilemme, seules et en silence, dans votre cahier réponses. Ne vous inquiétez pas, ce n'est pas un travail de mémorisation et vous allez avoir toute l'information qu'on a pratiquée ensemble avant et que vous avez dans votre cahier d'activités et au tableau.

Le dilemme avec lequel on va travailler se trouve à la page 7 de votre cahier d'activités.

Est-ce que quelqu'un voudrait lire le dilemme ou vous préférez que je le lise ? (SA)

Mia revient d'une fin de semaine de congé passée dans sa famille. Elle a été très difficile car il y a eu plusieurs chicanes avec ses parents. Aujourd'hui, à l'école, ça ne va pas bien non plus. Elle ne parvient pas à faire son travail scolaire et les autres jeunes ne cessent pas de l'agacer. Elle en vient même à sacrer et à envoyer promener un professeur qu'elle aime bien. Le professeur veut qu'elle reste après l'école mais Mia a une partie de soccer et l'équipe compte sur elle.

- ✓ « Afin de s'assurer que toutes ont bien compris, on a besoin d'une volontaire pour nous résumer l'histoire » (SA)
- ✓ Si personne ne résume, demander : « est-ce que vous auriez besoin qu'on le relise? »
- ✓ Sinon : Attendre 30 secondes que quelqu'un se décide...
- ✓ Si personne ne parle : Tout à l'heure pour résumer, on a mis en évidence les points principaux de l'histoire. Qu'est-ce qui pourrait être un point important de cette histoire selon vous? (SA)

Il semble que cette histoire a quelques points importants, qu'est-ce que ça pourrait être?

S'assurer que les 5 points du dilemme sont soulevés (oui, autre chose)
Feedback : oui, X, est le point du début de l'histoire! Ensuite?

Ok, maintenant si vous voulez bien, c'est à vous de jouer, vous connaissez maintenant les étapes pour résoudre un problème et vous les retrouverez également sur les feuilles-réponses de ce dilemme dans votre cahier d'activités à la page 8.

Ce sont les mêmes questions que dans le dilemme 1 mais vous pouvez les faire dans l'ordre qui vous aide le plus. Vous pouvez choisir la façon qui vous convient le mieux. (SA)

Pendant l'activité; je vais faire le tour au cas où vous auriez besoin d'aide

[Répondre aux questions individuelles sur les étapes comme dans le dilemme de groupe.]

[Laisser environ 10 minutes, faire le tour et donner un feedback descriptif selon le travail accompli.] (SA)

On se donne 10 minutes pour faire ça, ça vous va ? (SA)

Terminé?

Vous pouvez venir déposer vos cahiers ici. Merci beaucoup d'avoir participé! D'ici la semaine prochaine, je vais regarder vos dilemmes et quand nous reviendrons pour les rencontres individuelles; on pourra en discuter ensemble dans le but de vous aider.

Consignes Free-Choice

Maintenant, avant que (nom) vienne pour le questionnaire, je vais vous remettre un cahier de dilemmes supplémentaires. Comme je vais revenir dans une semaine pour vous rencontrer individuellement, j'ai pensé que certaines aimeraient peut-être pratiquer leurs nouvelles habiletés de résolution de problèmes entre-temps. J'ai donc préparé un petit cahier à votre nom, avec tout le matériel appris aujourd'hui ainsi que cinq dilemmes supplémentaires que vous pouvez regarder et essayer de résoudre pendant la semaine. Celles qui auront choisi de faire les dilemmes et qui voudront en discuter pourront le faire pendant notre rencontre la semaine prochaine. S.V.P., comme on va se servir du cahier pour le retour avec vous, même si vous ne faites aucun dilemme, j'aimerais que vous me rapportiez votre cahier la semaine prochaine. Est-ce qu'il y a des questions? Hey bien encore merci à toutes! X va venir voir voir!)

FIN

Questionnaire

Bonjour!

Alors comme Julie vous l'a dit au début de l'activité, moi, je m'appelle (nom) et je suis là pour vous remettre les questionnaires qui vont nous permettre de savoir comment vous avez trouvé l'activité d'aujourd'hui. Comme vous allez revoir Julie et Audrey la semaine prochaine, je tiens à vous assurer que ce sera moi qui conserverai les questionnaires jusqu'à ce moment-là et que ni Julie, ni Audrey n'y aura accès. Vous n'avez donc pas à vous inquiéter, vous pouvez répondre aux questions librement et le plus honnêtement possible.

Avez-vous des questions?

Alors voici le questionnaire, je vais le lire avec vous et si vous avez des questions ou que je vais trop vite, n'hésitez pas à me le dire.

Allons-y!

[Lecture des questions]

Voilà nous avons terminé! Merci!

ANNEXE F

Script de l'instructeur version « sans soutien à l'autonomie »

SCRIPT : Sans soutien à l'autonomie

Faire connaissance...

Bonjour les filles !

Pour commencer, j'aimerais ça qu'on fasse connaissance! Alors moi, je m'appelle Julie et je travaille à l'Université de Montréal où je crée des activités cliniques pour les jeunes. Aujourd'hui, je suis ici pour faire avec vous une activité de résolution de problèmes interpersonnels, donc comment régler des conflits, des chicanes. Je suis ici parce que j'aimerais avoir vos commentaires sur l'activité. C'est aussi pour ça qu'Audrey va être avec nous pendant l'activité. Elle va prendre des notes sur mon animation. Puis, après l'activité, (nom) va revenir pour vous remettre un questionnaire qui me donnera vos commentaires sur l'activité.

Avant de commencer, j'ai placé des cartons et des crayons devant vous, écrivez-y vos noms clairement. S.V.P.

[Toujours s'adresser aux jeunes par leur prénom]

Point de départ positif :

Parfait! Donc bienvenue à toutes et merci d'avoir accepté de participer!

Remise des cahiers d'activités : Voici vos cahiers pour l'activité.

Mise en Situation : Je ne sais pas pour vous mais, moi, lorsque je me sens triste ou en colère, c'est souvent parce que j'ai eu une chicane avec quelqu'un. Par exemple, l'autre jour, en rentrant à l'école, je n'avais pas déjeuné chez-moi parce que j'avais laissé un yogourt et une banane à mon bureau la veille. Quand je suis rentrée, ils n'étaient plus là pis j'avais très très faim. Étant donné qu'on est juste deux dans le bureau ben j'imagine que c'est ma collègue qui les pris ! Moi, je n'aime pas ça que quelqu'un prenne mes choses sans me les demander! Donc, toute la journée, j'étais fâchée en plus d'avoir ben faim et j'ai rien dit à ma collègue.

C'est jamais le fun de devoir régler une chicane pis des fois, on dirait qu'on ne sait pas comment faire et on la règle pas vraiment.

Donc, justement aujourd'hui, ce que je veux; c'est de vous faire apprendre une recette qui règle les chicanes. Prenez la page 2 de votre cahier d'activités. Vous voyez; cette recette va vous permettre de remarquer quand il y a un problème, de penser à différentes solutions, de prédire ce que ces solutions vont apporter, et

enfin, de prévoir ce que ça aurait comme conséquences pour vous et les autres.
(Les objectifs et rationnelles)

Premièrement, je vais vous faire faire un dilemme en groupe. Après, vous devrez en faire un autre, mais cette fois-ci en individuel.

Dilemme en groupe

Donc, pour le premier dilemme qu'on va faire, j'ai des consignes à vous donner. Regardez, elles sont après les objectifs à la page 2. Donc, ce que vous devez faire :

Pour le dilemme en groupe, tu dois :

- Écouter les explications.
- Poser des questions, si tu ne comprends pas.
- Réfléchir à comment tu résoudrais le problème.
- Exprimer tes idées en levant la main.
- Écouter le point de vue des autres : ne pas couper la parole.
- Être respectueuse de toi-même, des autres et de l'environnement.

Aller à la page 3 de votre cahier d'activités pour retrouver le dilemme avec lequel vous allez devoir travailler. S.V.P

Ok vous êtes prêtes, super!
Allons-y !

Quelqu'un nous lit le premier dilemme? (non?) ok je le lis.

Si quelqu'un lit; BRAVO « nom de la fille »!

Dilemme de Luc et Jérôme

Luc se rend chez son meilleur ami Jérôme. En arrivant, il trouve sur le lit de son ami le superbe iPod dernier cri qu'il ne pourra jamais s'offrir vu le prix du iPod. Luc éprouve une irrésistible envie de l'avoir. Alors, Luc prend le iPod de Jérôme et le met dans son sac sans réfléchir. Lorsque Jérôme arrive dans sa chambre, il ne remarque pas immédiatement la disparition de son iPod mais quand Luc s'en va, Jérôme remarque que son iPod n'est plus là. Jérôme comprend alors que Luc a pris son iPod.

- ✓ S'assurer que toutes ont bien compris l'histoire / si besoin, relire.
« **Maintenant, il faut que quelqu'un nous résume l'histoire.** »

Si personne ne résume, demander : « est-ce que vous auriez besoin qu'on le relise? » si non
 Nommer quelqu'un.
 Bravo « » !
 Si les filles ne veulent pas, même en les nommant, dire « ok, je vais vous les nommer moi les points importants de l'histoire: résumer.

« Maintenant que vous avez bien compris l'histoire, voici la recette de résolution qu'il faut suivre.»

Prenez la page 4 de vos cahiers d'activités.

Étape 1 : « À la première étape de la recette, il faut identifier quel est le problème. Dire c'est quoi le problème. »

Dans un conflit, les deux personnes peuvent avoir un problème, tout dépend de la perception qu'on a. Ici, autant Luc que Jérôme a un problème. Aujourd'hui, j'ai décidé qu'on regarderait le problème selon Jérôme. Vous devez vous mettre à sa place!

Donc,

« Quel est le problème de Jérôme selon vous? »

(Banque d'idées ici)

Je veux que vous me disiez...

- Comment Jérôme voit ça, ce qui vient d'arriver?
- C'est un problème, pour Jérôme, parce que...

Bravo! C'est une bonne définition, super! C'est bon ce que tu dis! Excellente raison!...

Wrap-up : ...donc là vous avez bien identifié le problème...

L'étape 2 : « **Maintenant à l'étape 2, vous allez réfléchir à pourquoi est-ce que c'est un problème pour Luc.»** Regardez dans votre cahier et commencez par faire ressortir les émotions.

A. Ok ! Maintenant, vous devez identifier les émotions de chacun des personnages.

- Dites-moi comment Jérôme se sent-il face à ce qui s'est passé selon vous? Vous en pensez quoi? Maintenant dites moi, comment Luc se sent lui? Si jeunes ne parlent pas beaucoup :
 Si vous ne trouvez pas, demandez-vous, comment vous vous sentiriez à leur place?

Résumer les émotions

OK, maintenant pensez à ce qui est problématique socialement dans la situation.

B. Identifier ce qui est problématique socialement dans le dilemme :

Trouvez, pourquoi c'est un problème?

Faites comme si ça vous arrivait! Qu'est-ce que vous pourriez penser au sujet de votre amitié avec Luc?

Questions pour m'aider à animer

Poser des questions et donner des réponses si les jeunes ne me répondent pas.

Angle Jérôme :

Est-ce qu'on se vole entre amis?

C'est-tu un vol ou un emprunt?

Est-ce qu'on peut emprunter sans demander? Si oui, à qui ? Est-ce que ça fait une différence si c'est un ami ou une connaissance?

Est-ce que ça fait une différence si c'est la première fois?

C'est quoi un vrai ami ?

C'est quoi la différence entre un vrai ami et une connaissance?

Un ami peut-il nous faire ça?

Qu'est-ce que vous pensez qui va arriver dans leur relation d'amitié?

D'après vous, comment se sent Jérôme?

Angle Luc :

Est-ce que Luc a fait un vol?

Est-ce qu'on peut emprunter sans demander? Si oui, à qui ? Est-ce que ça fait une différence si c'est un ami ou une connaissance?

Est-ce que Luc a le droit de faire ça?

Est-ce que Luc met sa relation d'amitié en jeu?

Pensez-vous qu'un ami a des responsabilités envers son meilleur ami, un ami, une connaissance?

Wow, vous êtes des pros! Vous avez fait exactement ce qu'il fallait.

Wrap-up

Maintenant, vous devez penser à différentes solutions que pourrait prendre Jérôme pour résoudre son problème.

Donc....

C. Identifier les solutions

Prenez la page 5 de votre cahier pour écrire toutes les idées que vous allez me donner!

Qu'est-ce que Jérôme pourrait faire pour résoudre son problème? Les différentes solutions qu'il pourrait prendre? Je veux qu'on ait une liste de plusieurs idées parce qu'il en existe plusieurs.

Piste de solutions possibles :

Jérôme :

Couper la relation.

Pardonner.

Donner une seconde chance.

Luc :

S'excuser

Ramener le iPod

Ok c'est bien! Vous avez fait une bonne liste, Bravo les filles!

Wrap-up

Là, avant de faire l'étape 3, vous devez penser aux avantages et désavantages pour chacune des solutions que vous avez trouvées. Pour chaque solution, je veux que vous trouviez ce qu'elle peut apporter de bien et de moins bien.

Donc...

D. Éventuelles avantages/inconvénients

- **Quels sont les avantages et les désavantages de chacune des solutions?**

Wrap-up

Wow, vous avez bien fait ça! Maintenant, allez à la page 6 .

Nous sommes maintenant rendues à l'étape 3, ici vous devez identifier LA bonne solution parmi toutes celles que vous m'avez proposées. C'est quoi une BONNE solution? C'est quand les DEUX personnes se sentent bien avec ce qui s'est passé. Donc... « Dites-moi... » « trouvez », (donne des ordres!) Je veux que vous me disiez laquelle est la meilleure, selon vous.

Étape 3 : Quelle serait la meilleure solution?

- Comment se sentirait-il s'il prenait cette solution?
- Comment se sentirait l'autre personnage si X prenait cette solution?

Ok, parfait!

Wrap-up

Étape 4 : S'assurer que la solution est juste et équitable

« Maintenant que vous avez identifié ce que vous pensez être la bonne solution, vous devez vous assurer qu'elle est juste et équitable pour les deux personnes. La bonne façon de le faire, c'est de prévoir les conséquences pour les deux personnes.

Dites-moi : est-ce que cela convient aux deux amis? Expliquer Pourquoi?
Comment on le sait? (Prévoir les conséquences)

- Qu'est-ce que tu penses qui se passerait si X prenait cette solution?
- Si tu étais à la place de Y, comment te sentirais-tu face à cette solution?
- Est-ce que cette solution est bonne pour les deux personnes impliquées dans cette situation?

Wrap-up : résumé... Je pense que votre solution est bonne! On dirait qu'il y a un problème avec votre solution, vous devez donc reprendre les étapes! Vous devez avoir oublié quelque chose! Si pas le temps..., on a pas le temps de le faire mais vous devez comprendre que quand ça arrive, vous devez reprendre les étapes pour trouver une bonne solution.

Feedback positif : « Bravo! Vous êtes bonnes! Je suis fière de vous.

Vous avez terminé la première partie de l'activité. Maintenant, vous devriez être capables de faire le prochain dilemme seules. »

Dilemme en individuel

Je vais le lire avec vous et je vais m'assurer que vous comprenez bien l'histoire. **Par la suite, vous devrez poursuivre** les étapes pour résoudre le dilemme de la même façon que vous l'avez appris, seules et en silence, dans votre cahier réponses. Ce n'est pas un travail de mémorisation et vous avez toute l'information dans votre cahier et au tableau pour le refaire de la bonne façon!

Allez à la page 7 pour le dilemme que vous devrez faire seules.

Est-ce que quelqu'un nous lirait le dilemme? Non? Ok, je vais le lire...

Mia revient d'une fin de semaine de congé passée dans sa famille. Elle a été très difficile car il y a eu plusieurs chicanes avec ses parents. Aujourd'hui, à l'école, ça ne va pas bien non plus. Elle ne parvient pas à faire son travail scolaire et les autres jeunes ne cessent pas de l'agacer.

Elle en vient même à sacrer et à envoyer promener un professeur qu'elle aime bien. Le professeur veut qu'elle reste après l'école mais Mia a une partie de soccer et l'équipe compte sur elle.

- ✓ S'assurer que toutes ont bien compris l'histoire / si besoin relire.
- ✓ « **Maintenant, il faut que quelqu'un nous résume l'histoire.** »

Si personne ne résume, demander : « est-ce que vous auriez besoin qu'on le relise? » sinon

Attendre 30 secondes que quelqu'un se décide...

Nommer quelqu'un.

Après les points, nommer : oui très bon point! Bravo!

Ou, ok, je vais vous dire les points principaux...

Bravo « ... » !

Ok, maintenant à vous de jouer, poursuivez avec les étapes dans votre cahier à la page 8! Je vous donne 10 minutes! Vous devriez être capables de faire ça en 10 minutes (un petit contrôle).

Pendant l'activité, je vais faire le tour pour voir comment ça se passe.

[Laisser environ 10 minutes, faire le tour et donner un feedback évaluatif.]

[Répondre aux questions individuelles sur les étapes comme dans le dilemme de groupe.]

Terminé? Parfait, bravo! Venez déposer votre cahier ici. Merci beaucoup d'avoir participé! D'ici la semaine prochaine, je vais regarder vos dilemmes et quand je reviendrai pour les rencontres individuelles, on en discutera ensemble dans le but de vous aider à vous améliorer.

Consignes Free-Choice

Maintenant, avant que (nom) vienne pour le questionnaire, je vais vous remettre un cahier de dilemmes supplémentaires. Comme je vais revenir dans une semaine pour vous rencontrer individuellement, j'ai pensé que certaines aimeraient peut-être pratiquer leurs nouvelles habiletés de résolution de problèmes entre-temps. J'ai donc préparé un petit cahier à votre nom, avec tout le matériel appris aujourd'hui, ainsi que cinq dilemmes supplémentaires que vous pouvez regarder et essayer de résoudre pendant la semaine. Celles qui auront choisi de faire les dilemmes et qui voudront en discuter pourront le faire pendant notre rencontre la semaine prochaine. S.V.P., comme on va se servir du cahier pour le retour avec vous, même si vous ne faites aucun dilemme, j'aimerais que vous me rapportiez votre cahier la semaine prochaine. Est-ce qu'il y a des questions? Hé bien; encore merci à toutes! X va venir vous voir!:))

Questionnaire

Bonjour!

Alors comme Julie vous l'a dit au début de l'activité, moi je m'appelle (nom) et je suis là pour vous remettre les questionnaires qui vont nous permettre de savoir comment vous avez trouvé l'activité d'aujourd'hui. Comme vous allez revoir Julie et Audrey la semaine prochaine, je tiens à vous assurer que ce sera moi qui conserverai les questionnaires jusqu'à ce moment-là et que ni Julie ni Audrey n'y aura accès. Vous n'avez donc pas à vous inquiéter, vous pouvez répondre aux questions librement et le plus honnêtement possible.

Avez-vous des questions?

Alors voici le questionnaire, je vais le lire avec vous et si vous avez des questions ou que je vais trop vite, n'hésitez pas à me le dire.

Allons-y!

[Lecture des questions]

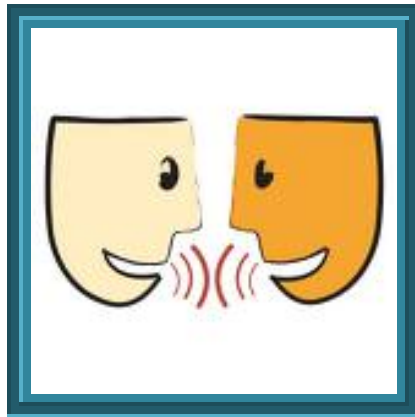
Voilà nous avons terminé! Merci!

ANNEXE G

Questionnaire du participant étude 2

Code:

*« Une activité clinique
en Centre jeunesse :
Mon expérience! »*



*Questionnaire initial
de la participante*

Tes sentiments pendant les activités cliniques

Les énoncés suivants correspondent à des impressions et des sentiments que tu ressens peut-être lorsque tu participes à tes activités cliniques. En utilisant l'échelle ci-dessous, indique à quel point tu es en accord avec chacun de ces énoncés en encerclant le chiffre approprié.

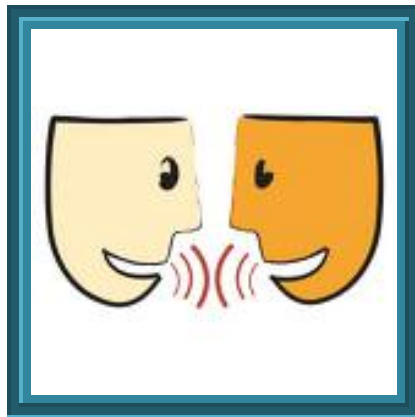
Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Très fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

En général, durant mes activités cliniques...

1. j'ai le droit de modifier le cours des choses afin d'être plus efficace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. j'éprouve des difficultés à bien faire les activités.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. je me sens libre d'être moi-même.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. je me sens comme dans une prison.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. je me sens compris par l'animatrice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. je me sens bonne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. je m'entends bien avec l'animatrice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. je crois que je suis bonne dans mes activités.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. je me sens libre d'exprimer mes idées et mes opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. je me sens inadéquate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. je me sens appréciée.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. je me sens étouffée.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. je me sens incompetente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. je me sens obligée de faire ce qu'on me dit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. je réussis bien ce que je fais durant l'activité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. je me sens libre d'exécuter les tâches à mon rythme et selon mes valeurs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. j'apprécie l'animatrice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. je ressens de la pression.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. je me sens efficace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. je me sens respectée.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. je sens qu'il y a de la place pour mes idées.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Code:

*« Une activité clinique
en Centre jeunesse :
Mon expérience! »*



*Questionnaire
de la participante*

Section 1 : Tes commentaires

1. En utilisant l'échelle ci-dessous, encercle le chiffre qui correspond le mieux à la raison pour laquelle tu as fait l'activité clinique de résolution de problèmes.

Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Très fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Pourquoi as-tu fait cette activité aujourd'hui...

1. parce que cette activité est vraiment plaisante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. parce que j'ai choisi de la faire pour mon bien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. parce que je sentais qu'il fallait que je la fasse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. je ne sais pas; je ne vois pas ce que cela me procure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. parce que je me sentais bien en faisant l'activité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. parce que je crois que cette activité est importante pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. parce que je suis supposée la faire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. j'ai fait l'activité mais je ne suis pas sûre si cela en valait la peine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. parce que je trouve cette activité intéressante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. par décision personnelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. parce que c'est quelque chose que je devais faire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. j'ai fait l'activité mais en me demandant si je devais la poursuivre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. parce que je trouve cette activité agréable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. parce que je trouve que cette activité est bonne pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. parce que je n'avais pas d'autres choix que de la faire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. il y a peut-être de bonnes raisons pour faire cette activité mais personnellement je n'en vois pas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Les énoncés suivants correspondent à des impressions et des sentiments que tu as peut-être ressentis durant l'activité que tu viens tout juste de faire. En utilisant l'échelle ci-dessous, indique à quel point tu es en accord avec chacun de ces énoncés en encerclant le chiffre approprié.

Pas du tout en accord	Très peu en accord	Un peu en accord	Moyennement en accord	Assez en accord	Fortement en accord	Très fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Pendant l'activité...

1. j'avais le droit de modifier le cours des choses afin d'être plus efficace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. j'ai éprouvé des difficultés à bien faire les activités.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. je me sentais libre d'être moi-même.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. je me sentais comme dans une prison.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. je me sentais comprise par l'animatrice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. je me sentais bonne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. je m'entendais bien avec l'animatrice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. je crois que j'étais bonne dans l'activité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. je me sentais libre d'exprimer mes idées et mes opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. je me sentais inadéquate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. je me sentais appréciée.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. je me sentais étouffée.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. je me sentais incompétente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. je me sentais obligée de faire ce qu'on me disait.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. j'ai bien réussi ce que je faisais durant l'activité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. je me sentais libre d'exécuter les tâches à mon rythme et selon mes valeurs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. j'ai apprécié l'animatrice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. je ressentais de la pression.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. je me sentais efficace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. je me sentais respectée.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. je sentais qu'il y avait de la place pour mes idées.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. je me sentais acceptée par l'animatrice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. je sentais que j'avais des choix sur comment appliquer les habiletés apprises pour faire le dilemme.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Les prochains items portent sur différents sentiments et émotions que tu peux ressentir dans ta vie en général. Indique à quel point tu as ressenti chacune de ces émotions au cours de l'activité.

Pas du tout 1	Très peu 2	Un peu 3	Moyennement 4	Assez 5	Fortement 6	Très fortement 7
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1. Fâchée	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	11. Éveillée	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Heureuse	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	12. Anxieuse	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. De bonne humeur	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	13. Inquiète	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Impatiente	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	14. Intéressée	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Nerveuse	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	15. Joyeuse	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	16. Stressée	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Enthousiaste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	17. Contente	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Frustrée	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	18. Déçue	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. En forme	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	19. Déprimée	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Triste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	20. Énergique	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Inscris le numéro de l'émotion ou des émotions qui exprime(nt) le mieux comment tu te sentais avant de venir à l'activité : _____

4. Les énoncés suivants correspondent à des impressions et des sentiments que tu as peut-être ressentis durant l'activité que tu viens tout juste de faire. Indique à quel point tu es en accord avec chacun de ces énoncés suivants.

1. J'ai apprécié résoudre les dilemmes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Je considère que l'animatrice était efficace pour m'apprendre à résoudre des dilemmes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Je considère que les trucs et les stratégies de l'animatrice étaient utiles pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Je considère que faire cette activité ne m'a servi à rien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. J'ai trouvé l'activité intéressante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. J'ai trouvé les dilemmes intéressants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Le sujet de l'activité voulait dire quelque chose pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. C'était important pour moi de bien comprendre le matériel couvert par l'activité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. J'ai vu que le contenu de l'activité peut							

être utile dans la vraie vie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. J'ai fait cette activité parce que c'était le fun pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Cette activité était personnellement importante pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 2 : Renseignements Socio-Démographiques

* *Coches la case appropriée et/ou inscris l'information sur la ligne*

1. Où es-tu née?

- Province de Québec
- Autre province canadienne
- Autre pays (précisez) _____

2. Où (pays) sont nés tes parents?

- Mère : Province de Québec
- Autre province canadienne
 - Autre pays (précisez) _____
 - Je ne sais pas

- Père : Province de Québec
- Autre province canadienne
 - Autre pays (précisez) _____
 - Je ne sais pas

3. Depuis combien de temps obtiens-tu des services du Centre jeunesse de Montréal?

_____ mois _____ ans

4. En quelle année scolaire es-tu?

En Mathématiques

- Secondaire 1
- Secondaire 2
- Secondaire 3
- Secondaire 4
- Secondaire 5

Autre, précisez : _____

En Français

- Secondaire 1
- Secondaire 2
- Secondaire 3
- Secondaire 4
- Secondaire 5

Autre, précisez : _____

5. Comment décrirais-tu ta performance depuis le début de l'année scolaire?

En Mathématiques

- Très mauvaise
- Mauvaise
- Moyenne
- Bonne
- Très bonne

En Français

- Très mauvaise
- Mauvaise
- Moyenne
- Bonne
- Très bonne

6. Y a-t-il au moins une personne dans ton groupe d'activité d'aujourd'hui que tu considères comme une vraie amie?

- Oui
- Non

7. À combien d'activités cliniques as-tu déjà participé depuis que tu reçois des services au Centre jeunesse?

- 0-2
- 3-5
- 6-8
- Plus de 9

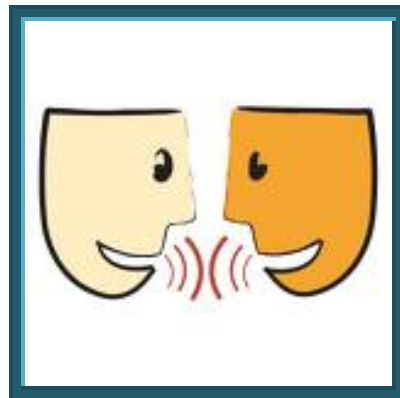
8. As-tu déjà fait une activité clinique de résolution de problèmes interpersonnels?

- Oui
- Non

ANNEXE H

Questionnaire de l'éducateur étude 2

« Une activité clinique en Centre jeunesse : Mon expérience! »



Questionnaire éducateur(trice)

Questionnaire aux éducateurs (trices)

Prénom de la jeune : _____	Date de naissance :
____/____/____ jour mois année	
Motif(s) de placement* : _____	
Si cette jeune a déjà fait une ou des activités de résolution de problèmes (CJM), indiquez le nombre d'heures approximatives : _____	
Date d'aujourd'hui : ____/____/____ jour mois année	

Instructions : Vous trouverez ci-bas un certain nombre de problèmes communs que peuvent avoir les jeunes dans leur unité de vie. Veuillez évaluer chacun des items selon l'importance que ce problème représente dans le dernier mois. À chaque item, demandez-vous : « À quel point cela a-t-il été un problème dans le dernier mois » et encerclez la meilleure réponse pour chacun des énoncés. Pour « jamais ou très rarement », encerclez 0. Si cela se produit « très souvent ou très fréquemment », encerclez 3. Choisissez la cote 1 ou 2 pour ceux qui se classent entre le 0 et le 3. Prière de coter tous les énoncés.

AUCUNEMENT VRAI (jamais, rarement)	UN PEU VRAI (à l'occasion)	PLUTÔT VRAI (souvent, assez souvent)	TRÈS VRAI (très souvent, fréquemment)	JE NE SAIS PAS
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1. Défiante.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Oublie des choses qu'elle a déjà apprises.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Ne semble pas être acceptée par le groupe.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Sentiments facilement blessés.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Explosive, crise de colère, comportement imprévisible	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Effrontée.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Évite, exprime une réticence à, ou a de la difficulté à s'engager dans des tâches qui demandent un effort mental soutenu et constant (tels que les activités cliniques ou les périodes en individuel).....					
8. Est l'une des dernières à être choisie pour des jeux ou des équipes ...	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Est une enfant émotionnelle.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. N'arrive pas à finir les choses qu'elle débute	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Défie activement ou refuse de se plier aux demandes des adultes.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Faible en orthographe.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. N'a pas d'amis.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Timide, facilement effrayée.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Pleure souvent et facilement.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Habileté de lecture inférieure à ses pairs.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Ne sait pas comment se faire des amis.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Sensible aux critiques.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. S'obstine avec les adultes.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Manque d'intérêt dans les activités.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. A peu d'habiletés sociales.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Ses demandes doivent être immédiatement répondues, facilement frustrée.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Rancunière ou vindicative.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Perd des choses nécessaires pour ses tâches ou activités (ex : devoirs scolaires, crayons, livres, outils ou effets personnels)	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Gênée, retirée.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Humeur change rapidement et de façon drastique....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Faible en arithmétique.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Agressive avec les autres, se bat.....	0	1	2	3	<input type="checkbox"/>

