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“I can’t be arsed”: A small-scale exploration of students’ self-reported motivation on entering a course of study and eventual ‘success’.

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to explore the university course trajectories of students from entry to a 3-year full-time undergraduate programme, to graduation with an honours degree, in the light of their self-reported motivations to study. This small-scale investigation took place at a UK Higher Education Institution (HEI).

Design/methodology/approach – A small-scale survey using the Academic Motivation (to study) Scale was administered to 102 students on entry to a full time undergraduate degree course in an interdisciplinary information-based department in a UK HEI. The students’ motivation profiles were assessed in relation to their trajectory through the degree course and selected students were interviewed just prior to graduation.

Findings – The report focuses on the pattern of student motivations – in general, students who achieved ‘good’ degrees were likely to have lower motivation and students achieving ‘not so good’ degrees were likely to self-report higher levels of both autonomous and controlled motivations. Whilst the small sample size and individual variation may partly explain these results, interviews with a small number of participants allowed some further explication of these patterns.

Research limitations/implications – Because of the complexity of variables potentially involved in studies relating to motivation, the focus of this study was practitioner reflection. Thus, it examines self-reported motivations measured on a established scale and ‘success’ in terms of progression and attainment. The research findings were from a small cohort study in a convenience sample of 102 students in a particular context, so there are necessarily limits on the generalisability of the study.

Practical implications – Elements around student achievement and progression related to their motivation are identified, and may contribute to effective design of learning experiences that students ‘can be arsed’ to engage in.

Originality/value – New empirical data are reported which provide an insight into student attitudes to study and the applicability of teacher responses, which are briefly discussed in relation to socio-cognitive and socio-cultural perspectives.

Introduction

Motivation to learn has been investigated and measured over the years with efforts to enhance it, capture it, and nurture it, widespread in many different domains. More specifically, research into academic motivation is a well-developed field and has been investigated in depth in various contexts and settings (for example Deci & Ryan, 1985; Vallerand et al, 1992; Ratelle et al, 2007; Dahl and Smimou, 2011; Smith et al, 2012). Recently, there has been a shift away from purely measuring motivation to looking at other related concepts such as ‘passion’ and effects on well-being (Stoeber et al, 2011). Despite this activity, in the educational domain at least, learners often still struggle to find motivation, sustain it, and use it effectively to persist and eventually graduate. For students, this persistence and eventual success in obtaining a degree qualification are more vital than ever in UK Higher Education Institutions as they face increased fee contribution and increasingly competitive recruitment procedures. For academic staff, the relationship between student
satisfaction and student motivation in learning has always been of interest. However, the increasing emphasis on student satisfaction scores (for example via the National Student Survey) has prompted Stefan Collini to describe it thus:

“The paradox of real learning is that you don’t get what you ‘want’ – and you certainly can’t buy it. The really vital aspects of the experience of studying something (a condition very different from ‘the student experience’) are bafflement and effort. Hacking your way through the jungle of unintelligibility to a few small clearings of partial intelligibility is a demanding and not always enjoyable process.” Collini (2011 p.12)

Faced with this ‘jungle of unintelligibility’, how do students approach the potentially daunting task of engaging with, and achieving success (in terms of degree class) in a course of study at university level?’

Rationale for present study
As lecturers to a group of first year undergraduates, we were faced with two students who stated that they ‘couldn’t be arsed’ in response to an in-class exercise in the second week of their first term at university. We wondered, if a student ‘can’t be arsed’ at the outset, then what is their future: will they persist and will they ‘succeed’? Is there a particular pattern to the motivations of students on entry that will determine whether they will persist and succeed? Alternatively, do their motivations not really ‘matter’- will they persist and succeed because of other elements - such as degree of self-awareness, self-efficacy beliefs or levels of self-esteem? Moreover, do we as teachers need to be concerned if they tell us that they ‘can’t be arsed’? We decided that an exploration of our students’ academic motivation to study might begin to illuminate these questions for us.

Background and context
Deci & Ryan’s (1985;1991) Self Determination Theory (SDT) has provided the basis for a considerable body of research that has looked at the relationship of various motivational, situational and behavioural elements to the ability of students to engage with academic study and explorations of how these measures relate to subsequent ‘success’ (E.g. Vallerand et al, (1992); Vallerand,(1997); Baker, (2004) Ratelle et al, (2007)).

In trying to predict outcomes from measures of motivation, some authors have found that high levels of intrinsic (autonomous) motivations are predictive of academic achievement while amotivation may be indicative of drop out (e.g. Ratelle et al, 2007). Others have found that motivation on entry is less useful in predicting eventual academic performance than other factors such as achievement levels prior to university, personality, or gender (e.g. Farsides and Woodfield, 2003; Baker, 2004). There are also studies that have investigated combinations of motivation types (profiles) to see if the combination of say, low autonomous motivations together with higher controlled (extrinsic) motivations are predictive of subsequent outcomes (Ratelle et al, 2007). Use of a socio-cognitive model of motivation giving a more nuanced approach has also been reported (E.g. Maclellan, 2005) and linked to
behaviours that can be used by educators to alter the context, and thereby the motivations, of students. Researchers have also explored motivation to study and its relationship to ‘academic engagement’ in university students, where ‘engagement’ is seen as a product of a student’s intentions in combination with the degree of social and academic integration (sensu Tinto, 1975) that is experienced and also in the degree of future orientation that the student possesses (e.g. Hormanshoft and Zimitat, 2007; Beachboard et al, 2011).

There is also a growing body of literature that examines student motivation through the lens of socio-cultural ideas such as generational theory (Strauss and Howe, 1991; Howe and Strauss, 2000). The theory states that each generation has its own ‘peer personality’ : a set of characteristics shaped by socio-cultural factors that have influenced the nature of the peer personality. Whilst the exact date ranges and labels given to the generations vary, the generation of students involved in the present study can be broadly identified as ‘millenials’ or ‘Generation Y’. Generational theory has been used to make broad generalisations about the kinds of learning behaviours that characterise students within the generational categories that the theory defines.

However, the use of this theory within university educational settings is not without its critics (E.g Sternberg, 2012; Bennett et al, 2008), who suggest that some of the discourse created in response to generational theory has elements of ‘moral panic’ (Bennett et al, 2008, p.775).

Whilst it is clear that motivation studies do not always provide definitive answers to the kinds of questions we pose, and that self-report methods of measurement have their limitations (see Fulmer and Frijters, 2009), this study used the Academic Motivation Scale devised by Vallerand et al (1992) - an instrument widely used in studies of academic motivation in university students - to explore our students’ approach to study. In this instrument, seven ‘subscales’ of motivation are compiled from answers to 28 statements (four items each). Participants indicate their agreement with the 28 statements on a seven-point scale from ‘corresponds exactly’ to ‘does not correspond at all’ (Table 1 provides an example). These statements are ordered throughout the questionnaire to increase the reliability of response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 Subscale IMKNOW and corresponding statements</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corresponding statements</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMKNOW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things never seen before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the pleasure that I experience in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me
Because my studies allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me

The seven motivation ‘subscales’ are:

IMKNOW : intrinsic motivation to know – studying for interest, enjoyment or inherent satisfaction of finding out new things;

IMACCOM : intrinsic motivation to accomplishment – studying as a means to feelings of achievement;

IMSTIM : intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation – classic ‘love of learning’ – being absorbed by the excitement of learning;

EMID : identified regulation – studying for the value that others ascribe to you as a result, goal oriented and ‘strategic’;

EMINTRO : introjected regulation – studying in order to relieve external or internal pressures, guilt, own or others’ expectations; tied up with self-esteem;

EMREG : external regulation – studying in order to receive external rewards or avoid external (real or perceived) punishments;

A : amotivation – studying but with self-identified disconnection, disinterest or disengagement.

Ryan and Deci (2000) in a review of the classic definitions of motivation, have argued that Self Determination Theory suggests that the extrinsic motivations exist on a continuum from unwillingness (EMREG) to active commitment (EMID) such that the person with high scores for EMID has identified with the importance of a behaviour for the achievement of some goal and thus internalises the behaviour as their ‘own’.

Therefore, it may be expected that high levels of intrinsic motivation and EMID provides the basis for progression and achievement, while highly controlled (extrinsic) motivations might predict lower achievement or even drop out.

In the light of this complex and evolving picture, we are conscious that we are practitioners seeking to understand our students’ motivation to study rather than educational psychologists. As such, we decided to investigate what relationship, if any, our students’ self-reported motivation on entry had on their eventual ‘success’ at university in the hope that this knowledge may more effectively inform our design of learning experiences that students ‘can be arsed’ to engage in.
**Research Question:** What are the motivation profiles for a group of students on entry to their course of study in relation to their eventual ‘progression’ and ‘achievement’?

**Methods**

The overall research design is a case study of 102 students from an undergraduate programme at a university in the North West of England. Two cohorts of students in successive intakes were included. They completed the Academic Motivation (to study) Scale questionnaire (AMS) during the third week of the Autumn term in 2008 and 2009. One of the researchers was from outside of the students’ home department and talked through the aims and ethics of the research before students were invited to take part. When completed questionnaires were processed, data were added from the university’s student records system to provide details of progression and achievement.

Data were analysed using SPSS 19 and Microsoft Excel. Groups within the data were identified according to categories of progression and achievement so that students were grouped according to three progression trajectories:

- ‘expected progression’ (a three year full-time continuous journey) resulting in an award;
- ‘alternative progression’ (repeated year or period of suspended study);
  or ‘left unawarded’ (non-completion including transfer);

and into three achievement categories:

- ‘good degree’ (60% or above in their final degree result);
- ‘not so good degree’ (below 60% in their final degree result);
  or ‘left unawarded’.

As Ratelle et al (2007) have noted, a person-oriented approach allows for identification of individual profiles as the combination of motivation types may be important. An initial attempt to categorise according to the appearance of the students’ individual profiles resulted in a categorisation into nearly 20 different groups (with an average of about 5 students per group). With a sample size of only 102 this was felt to be fracturing the data too far, so instead, categories of progression and achievement (as defined above) were examined to try to characterise the mean motivation profile for each category (a technique also used by Ratelle et al, 2007).

Towards the end of the period of study for one cohort of these students, an invitation to a telephone interview was made. This was scheduled to occur after final degree
Results and Discussion

The Academic Motivation Scale has been demonstrated to be both reliable and valid (Vallerand et al, 1992; Dahl and Smimou, 2011). In the present study, Cronbach’s Alphas were all above 0.7 (Pallant, 2005). The use of the AMS scale resulted in a profile of motivation for each student. At the end of the four years of this study, there were two full cohorts who had had an opportunity to achieve a degree result (if they had followed an expected progression trajectory). Ten students still awaiting results were discounted, resulting in 102 students with full data (Table 2). Of this sample, 40% were female and 60% male.

Table 2. Student numbers according to their progression and achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Good degree</th>
<th>Not so good degree</th>
<th>Left</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expected progression</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative Progression</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean score for each motivation type was calculated for categories of progression and achievement (e.g. ‘good degree, expected progression’) and the results are shown in Table 3. Deriving from these data are the mean profiles for each category shown in Figure 1.

Table 3 Mean scores for the motivation types from the Academic Motivation scale in 101 students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 1: Good degree expected progression (N = 36)</th>
<th>IMKNOW</th>
<th>IMACCOM</th>
<th>IMSTIM</th>
<th>EMID</th>
<th>EMINTRO</th>
<th>EMREG</th>
<th>A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2: Not so good degree expected progression (N = 36)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>5.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3: Not so good degree alternative progression (N = 4)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>6.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 4: Left unawarded (N = 25)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>5.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**N.B.** Only one student achieved a good degree with an alternative progression route. This has been omitted from Table 2 for clarity, but is discussed below.
The results clearly show that for the group of students progressing as expected and achieving a good degree (Group 1 n = 36), all motivation scores (except for EMID) were lower than for students in the other categories. This group of students also score highest on the amotivation type. This group scored EMID (identified regulation) more highly on average than any of the other motivation types. Identified regulation tends to indicate an acknowledgement by an individual that engaging in the activity (studying in this case) is good for their personal growth. The relatively high score for identified regulation then for Group 1 may indicate that there is a realisation amongst these students that they need to ‘eat their greens’ and they therefore knuckle down to study despite relatively high levels of amotivation, and relatively low levels of other intrinsic motivations. Together with the low scores for IMSTIM, these students seem to be saying…”I am not going to enjoy this experience, but I know it’s good for me so I’d better just get on with it”.

These results contrast with the findings of others who have used a person-oriented approach. For example, the findings of Ratelle et al (2007) indicated that having a profile that combines high levels of autonomous and controlled motivations (the intrinsic motivations and extrinsic motivations of this study) and low amotivation was a predictor of persistence. Their study found that the most effective predictor of school dropout was low motivation across the board, together with high scores of amotivation. This would seem be the expected situation, so the results of the present study look anomalous. However, the much smaller sample size and higher proportion of males in our group could certainly have affected results: Ratelle et al (2007) found that females were much more likely to exhibit the most successful, highly motivated profile. The students who left unawarded in the present study were the students who reported medium levels of all motivation types - on average, these are higher motivation levels than the most ‘successful’ group (Group 1). However, whilst it must be stressed that data on the destinations of all these students were not available, the researchers are aware that at least a proportion of these continued studying on other courses at the same institution. One feature of this profile (Group 4) was the tendency for students to report relatively high levels of EMINTRO, which might suggest an internalised pressure to complete, or alternatively indicate perhaps, a lack of confidence.

This unexpected pattern was also evident in the lower achieving students, who reported, on average, higher levels of all motivation types. The largest differential with the more successful students was in the EMREG category (motivation by reward or threat), the least autonomous measure of motivation. This group of students also tended to score lowest on average on the amotivation scale.

A hierarchical cluster analysis grouped students together according to the level of similarity of their motivational profiles. This too provided groupings of students confirming a pattern of the higher achieving students having broadly similar motivation profiles – i.e. low scores across all motivation types.
One of the students interviewed was amongst this group and commented:

“"I suppose I wanted to be the smartest in my group of friends. Other people didn’t though… I didn’t want to be one of those people – a lot of the class weren’t really bothered. They weren’t there because they wanted to be, it was just that you left college and that’s what you were expected to do next, they didn’t really want to be doing it. I got more motivated towards the end, because at the end of my second year I got 57 and if I had finished with less than a 2i I would have been devastated - I’ve got a bit of an ego – I didn’t want to be a ‘failure’. I’ve always been the highest in my group of friends without even trying and I thought actually, I need to do a bit of work….I’m quite motivated by competing with my close friends.”

This student acknowledges that their motivation has altered over time and exhibits an increasing degree of controlled motivation principally fuelled by ego-involvement - a type of introjected regulation as described by Ryan and Deci (2000). This motivation seemed particularly exacerbated for the student as final assessments approached. Interestingly, the cluster analysis showed that this student shared a similar motivation profile with two students who did not complete their studies on this course: exhibiting relatively low motivation across the board (autonomous and controlled) on entry, but scoring the same relatively higher scores for the controlled motivations.

The degree to which persistence and achievement may be determined by external motivators together with a students’ expectation that they are not going to enjoy the experience, is borne out to a degree by the interviews; another student, who achieved an upper second class degree (>60% final mark) with an expected progression trajectory, commented:

“"I wanted to get a teaching qualification and my parents wanted me to do it.”

This student’s individual profile of motivations showed very low levels of intrinsic motivation (means of between 2 and 2.5), very high levels of EMREG (which can indicate parental pressure) and a relatively high EMID (awareness that this will be worth it in the end). The student went on to say:

“"Yes, I was interested [in the course] but some modules were a bit pointless – and I realised this pretty much straight away. I thought it would be more IT based and I don’t like the kind of [topic] bits so these units were ones you just had to do – they were compulsory but you are just doing it because you have to. Other bits of the course I really enjoyed…But I just felt that I had to keep going ‘cause I needed a degree and that’s what kept me going. I’m starting a teacher training course in September at [institution name].”

Feelings of enjoyment are said to be a consequence of intrinsically motivated behaviours (E.g. Deci and Ryan, 1985). The low reported scores for intrinsic
motivation suggest that students such as the one quoted above, while they may complete their degrees as expected and achieve well, are not expecting to experience feelings of enjoyment as they face the beginning of their studies.

The figures that are most different for the ‘successful’ students are in IMSTIM and EMINTRO motivation types although all the students in the sample showed low scores for IMSTIM. As others have observed, for example Vlachopoulos and Karageorg, 2005: “external and introjected regulations represent non-self-determined types of extrinsic motivation” (Vlachopoulos and Karageorg, 2005 p.116) and may therefore be expected to form part of the profile of the learners who do not complete their studies.

Of course, it is expected that both progression and achievement will be affected by personality, aptitude and other individual attributes, but it is interesting nonetheless that the measured motivations are so relatively low for students as they embark on their studies. These results are also reflected to some extent in the ‘continuum of disengagement’ posited by Hunter-Jones (2012), who examined learner disengagement with experiential learning episodes. She suggested the continuum for disengagement might range from Academically Challenged learner, through Ambivalent Learner, to Formulaic learner. It is possible that the group who left unawarded (Group 4 on Figure 1) were ‘academically challenged’ and lacking in confidence (evidenced by their high emINTRO scores) even though they were relatively motivated. These ‘Academically Challenged’ learners disengage when they feel unable to cope. In contrast, the group who succeeded in gaining a ‘good’ degree with expected progression (Group 1 on Figure 1) were perhaps more ‘formulaic learners’ exhibiting higher confidence (evidenced by lower scores on average, for emINTRO). The formulaic learner “chooses to disengage” (according to Hunter-Jones,2012, p.24) so this learner may be more likely to declare ‘I can’t be arsed’ as they question the basis of what and how they are required to learn, discriminating between tasks that they must do and those they find uninteresting.
Figure 1. Academic motivational profiles for the five categories of students based on progression and achievement. For explanation of motivation types, see text.
Low autonomous motivations to study might also be expected from generational theory which by its nature, assimilates notions of the prevailing social and cultural milieu. The characterisation of Generation Y students as achievement-oriented may help explain an approach to education that sees students who are focussed on the prize rather than the journey. However, because of the nature of this study as small-scale practitioner research (in an attempt to understand the needs of our own students), it is interesting to look at these results in the light of generational theory, though perhaps not ultimately, illuminating. For example, the authors continue, as reflective practitioners, to attempt to understand and respond to student needs by adapting learning and teaching styles to incorporate more group work, technology as appropriate and allow for goal-oriented behaviours: all strategies that should appeal to Generation Y learners. Group work requires expert facilitation; technology needs to be mediated and it is (perhaps) self-evident that just providing educational resources electronically does not guarantee student engagement with them.

There is also of course, the socio-cultural trends surrounding education, notions of success in the wider world and the cost benefit analysis that many students may increasingly engage in as they examine the ‘purchasing’ decision relating to a university education. As the new fee regime in UK HEIs arrives, the student who is only at university because that is what is expected may begin to re-evaluate their options and re-examine their motivations.

Conclusions
A small-scale study measuring the motivation of university students at the start of a course of study was carried out via self-reported motivational scales. These produced some slightly surprising results showing that patterns of high motivation can be found in students who ultimately persist but do not achieve top grades, whereas the most successful students demonstrated relatively low levels of motivations, both autonomous and controlled, lower even than the students who dropped out. However, the identified regulation levels for the most successful students may explain their eventual success. It is their ability to know themselves, to be realistic and to focus on the fact that although they may find learning painful, it is good for them in the long run.

So do we as teachers need to be concerned when students ‘can’t be arsed’ as they begin their degree study? Of course student motivation is always going to be something that teachers seek to enhance and nurture, but this study shows that some students may possess a degree of understanding that learning is a “demanding and not always enjoyable process” (Collini, 2011, p.12) and thus have a realistic appreciation of the undertaking that they are embarking upon. This may also mean that we, as educators, must be aware of the more ‘useful’ types of controlled motivations in our endeavour to provide learning experiences for students that accord with their motivations, whilst also juggling the demands of student ‘success’ and satisfaction.
As Ryan and Deci (2000) state in their review of classic definitions and new directions for studying intrinsic and extrinsic motivations:

“because many of the tasks that educators want their students to perform are not inherently interesting or enjoyable, knowing how to promote more active and volitional (versus passive and controlling) forms of extrinsic motivation becomes an essential strategy for successful teaching” (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p.55)

The use of scales to measure whether a student is motivated or not, and whether by autonomous or controlled factors is perhaps to miss a more subtle point. There are signs that the approaches such as Maclellan (2005) working within a socio-cognitive perspective may provide academic staff with more workable strategies for engagement in the classroom. Instead of assuming that some students are ‘motivated’ whilst others are not, these kinds of approaches assume that motivation is multi-faceted and is therefore “dynamic, context-sensitive and changeable” (Maclellan, 2005 p. 194).

She explored the use of just one way of promoting academic achievement in the form of ‘praise’ finding that

“in motivating students, the tutor is not well served by relying on simplistic and common sense understandings of the construct of praise and that effective applications of praise are mediated by students’ goal orientations, which of themselves may be either additive or interactive composites of different objectives and different contexts.” (Maclellan, 2005, p. 194)

These kinds of studies will continue to provide teaching staff with ways of connecting with students as they embark on programmes of study and their motivations to do so will always be of the utmost importance to both the students and the staff who teach them. We cannot assume that a student who says ‘I can’t be arsed’ will or will not find motivations that are sustaining for them through the ‘jungle of intelligibility’ or that there will be a magic bullet that teaching staff can use to trigger these.

References


