
https://theses.gla.ac.uk/72474/

Copyright and moral rights for this work are retained by the author

A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge

This work cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the author

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the author

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given
'I really like teaching, but…’
A mixed methods study exploring pre-service teachers’ motivations for choosing teaching as a career

By Wenting Wang

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Education
College of Social Sciences
University of Glasgow

September 2018
Abstract

In the context of ongoing concerns and current needs to further strengthen teacher quality and encourage highly motivated and committed teachers into teaching in Scotland (Donaldson 2010; Scottish Government, 2016, 2018), this study explores motivational factors influencing Scottish student teachers choosing teaching as a career choice. In doing so, this research also seeks to compare the career motivation of those choosing teaching as a first career and those who change career path to enter teaching. Watt and Richardson’s FIT-Choice model (2007), underpinned by expectancy-value theory, is chosen as the theoretical foundation to guide the investigation of the study.

Following an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach, this study employs two research instruments: an online questionnaire based upon a standardised inventory called ‘FIT-Choice scale’ (Watt and Richardson, 2007) completed by 92 students who were in first year MEduc and PGDE programmes at the University of Glasgow in Scotland; and, followed-up with face-to-face semi-structured interviews with a subset of the sample (n = 11). The questionnaire and interview data were analysed using SPSS and NVivo software respectively. Questionnaire results show the trends and general motivation patterns of Scottish student teachers’ motivations to teach; and, interview results not only offer supplementary explanations and clarification in understanding questionnaire results, but also reveal personal stories about their decision to teach. Interpretations and conclusions were drawn from both the questionnaire and interview results.

This study found that pre-service teachers’ motivations for pursuing a teaching career are often multi-dimensional, contextualised and individualised. Participants exhibited a complex combination of different forms of motivational factors; these motivations interacted with participants’ perceptions, expectations, and attitude towards teaching as a career. There were subtle differences in motivations for becoming teachers between those choosing teaching as a first or, subsequent career. Many participants’ decision to teach was made in the context of being aware of both positive and challenging aspects of the profession. Interestingly, in light of interview data, respondents tend to rely on perceived intrinsic rewards of teaching (e.g. feelings of enjoyment and fulfilment) to resist any negative thoughts or remarks about teaching as a career. Therefore, conclusions drawn from the analysis suggests that participants’ seemingly high motivation for teaching is likely to involve the feature of weighing or balancing the perceived positive and negative images of teaching.

Overall, this mixed methods study contributes to knowledge by offering insights into 1) student teachers’ generic motivations patterns for teaching in the Scottish context; 2) an under-explored group comparison of career motivations of those who choose teaching as an initial or subsequent career; and, 3) how these motives link to student teachers’ perceptions, values, expectations, and attitudes towards teaching as a career; and, contribute to the development of their identity as a teacher. Arguably, understanding these issues have
important practical implications for recruiting and retaining teachers; and, for helping future teachers fulfil their articulated professional goals and sustain their morale and enthusiasm for teaching.
Table of Contents

Abstract ................................................................................................................................. 2

List of tables ......................................................................................................................... 9

List of figures ......................................................................................................................... 10

Acknowledgement ............................................................................................................... 11

Author’s declaration ............................................................................................................. 12

Chapter One: Introduction ................................................................................................. 13

1.1 Research context and rationale .................................................................................... 14

1.2 Research questions and aims ....................................................................................... 17

1.3 Theoretical framework ................................................................................................. 18

1.4 Methodological choice ................................................................................................. 19

1.5 The structure of the thesis ............................................................................................ 21

Chapter Two: Literature Review ......................................................................................... 23

2.1 Introduction .................................................................................................................... 23

2.2 Defining the key research terms .................................................................................. 23

2.2.1 Motivation ................................................................................................................. 23

2.2.2 Career ........................................................................................................................ 24

2.3 An overview of motivation for pursuing a teaching career ........................................ 25

2.4 Intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic reasons for choosing a teaching career .................. 30

2.4.1 Working with young people ...................................................................................... 33

2.4.2 Continuing to engage with existing degree subject .................................................. 35

2.4.3 Enjoying the activity of teaching .............................................................................. 37

2.4.4 Making a social contribution .................................................................................... 38

2.4.5 Extrinsic reasons for choosing a teaching career ...................................................... 39

2.5 Different routes into teaching ..................................................................................... 42

2.5.1 Research on choosing teaching as a first career choice ............................................ 42

2.5.2 Research on changing career to teaching ................................................................. 44

2.6 Theoretical framework: Factors influencing teaching (FIT) as a career: FIT-Choice model .................................................................................................................. 48

2.6.1 Background and rationale for choosing the FIT-Choice model ................................ 48

2.6.2 Theoretical underpinnings of the FIT-Choice model: expectancy-value theory ........ 50

2.6.3 The Structure of the FIT-Choice model .................................................................... 52
2.6.4 Understanding motivation to teach from the FIT-Choice model perspective ........................................ 54
2.7 Reflection and summary ......................................................................................................................... 56

Chapter Three: Methodology ......................................................................................................................... 59
3.1 Introduction .................................................................................................................................................. 59
3.2 Philosophical foundations .......................................................................................................................... 59
3.3 The mixed methods design ........................................................................................................................ 61
  3.3.1 The rationale for the selection of explanatory sequential mixed methods design .................. 63
3.4 Research instruments ................................................................................................................................. 64
  3.4.1 Rationale for the use of questionnaire ....................................................................................... 65
  3.4.2 The design of the questionnaire ..................................................................................................... 65
  3.4.3 Rationale for the use of semi-structured interview ................................................................. 67
  3.4.4 The construction of interview schedule ....................................................................................... 68
3.5 The participants........................................................................................................................................... 70
3.6 Data collection procedure ......................................................................................................................... 73
  3.6.1 Questionnaire piloting .................................................................................................................. 73
  3.6.2 Interview piloting ........................................................................................................................... 74
  3.6.3 Distributing questionnaires ........................................................................................................... 74
  3.6.4 Conducting follow-up interviews ................................................................................................. 75
3.7 Ethical considerations ................................................................................................................................. 75
3.8 Validity and reliability ............................................................................................................................... 76
3.9 Data analysis ............................................................................................................................................... 77
  3.9.1 Quantitative data analysis ............................................................................................................ 78
  3.9.2 Qualitative data analysis .............................................................................................................. 80
  3.9.3 Synthesising quantitative and qualitative findings ....................................................................... 83
3.10 Summary ................................................................................................................................................... 83

Chapter Four: Findings (A): Motivational factors influencing teaching as a career choice
.................................................................................................................................................................. 85
4.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................................................... 85
4.2 Section One: Questionnaire findings .................................................................................................. 85
  4.2.1 The reliability of the FIT-Choice questionnaire ........................................................................ 85
  4.2.2 Principal Components Analysis of the FIT-Choice questionnaire ........................................... 88
  4.2.3 Questionnaire responses to open-ended questions regarding the reasons for becoming
  a teacher ................................................................................................................................................. 96
  4.2.4 Summary of questionnaire findings ............................................................................................. 99
4.3 Section Two: Linking questionnaire findings to interview findings ................................................. 99
  4.3.1 General features of teaching as a career choice ....................................................................... 100
4.3.2 Altruistic influences ................................................................. 110
4.3.3 Intrinsic Influences ............................................................... 112
4.3.4 Family and Social influences .................................................. 117
4.4 Section three: Additional qualitative themes emerging from interviews .... 120
  4.4.1 Previous teaching experience ............................................. 121
  4.4.2 Educational experience in school(s) .................................... 122
  4.4.3 Job security ......................................................................... 124
  4.4.4 Travelling ............................................................................. 124
4.5 Reflection on the linkage between interview themes and PCA four factor structure ...... 125
4.6 Summary ................................................................................. 127

Chapter Five: Findings (B): Comparing motivations for choosing teaching as a career 129
5.1 Introduction ............................................................................. 129
5.2 Demographic variables on motivational factors for pursuing a teaching career ........ 129
5.3 Comparison of motivations for choosing teaching as a first career choice and changing career to teaching ............................................................................. 132
  5.3.1 Questionnaire results on motivations for choosing teaching as a first career choice and for changing career to teaching .................................................. 132
  5.3.2 Interview results on motivations for choosing teaching as a first career choice .... 136
  5.3.3 Interview results on motivations for changing career to teaching ............... 138
5.4 Summary ................................................................................. 143

Chapter Six: Discussion .................................................................. 144
6.1 Introduction ............................................................................. 144
6.2 The suitability of the FIT-Choice scale .................................... 144
6.3 Research Question 1: What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to choose a career in teaching? ............................................................................. 146
  6.3.1 Intrinsic factors .................................................................... 147
  6.3.2 Altruistic factors ................................................................. 149
  6.3.3 Extrinsic factors ................................................................. 150
  6.3.4 Previous teaching experience ............................................. 157
  6.3.5 Previous educational experience ....................................... 158
  6.3.6 Perceived teaching abilities .............................................. 160
  6.3.7 The Influence of other people .......................................... 161
  6.3.8 Doubts about teaching as a career choice ............................. 162
  6.3.9 Perceptions about teaching .................................................. 166
  6.3.10 Section summary and reflections on the motivation for choosing a teaching career 167
6.4 Research question 2: What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to choose teaching as their first career choice? ........................................................................................................ 169
6.5 Research question 3: What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to leave their previous work to enter the teaching profession? .................................................................................. 171
6.6 Research question 4: What are the similarities and differences in Scottish pre-service teachers’ motivations for entering the teaching profession between those who choose teaching as their first career choice and those who change their career to teaching? .......... 172
6.7 Applying Expectancy-Value theory to understanding the findings ........................................ 176
   6.7.1 Expectancy/ability beliefs ........................................................................................................ 176
   6.7.2 Subjective task values ............................................................................................................... 178
   6.7.3 Perceived task difficulty ......................................................................................................... 183
   6.7.4 Reflection on the use of expectancy-value theory to understand research findings .......... 184
   6.7.5 Section summary .................................................................................................................. 188
6.8 A graphical representation of contributing factors influencing teaching as a career choice ................................................................................................................................. 189
6.9 Summary .................................................................................................................................. 190

Chapter Seven: Conclusion ........................................................................................................ 192
7.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................................... 192
7.2 Research summary .................................................................................................................... 192
7.3 Theoretical contribution ........................................................................................................... 196
7.4 Practical implications for teacher recruitment and retention .................................................. 199
7.5 Limitations ................................................................................................................................ 201
7.6 Areas for future research .......................................................................................................... 202
7.7 Final thoughts and reflections .................................................................................................. 203

References .................................................................................................................................. 205

Appendices ................................................................................................................................ 220
Appendix 1: The original FIT-Choice scale ................................................................................... 220
Appendix 2: Interview schedule ...................................................................................................... 222
Appendix 3: Plain Language Statement .......................................................................................... 225
Appendix 4: Consent Form .............................................................................................................. 227
Appendix 5: The procedures in measuring Cronbach’s alpha for testing the internal consistency of the FIT-Choice scale ................................................................................................. 228
Appendix 6: The main steps for producing the four-factor structure ............................................ 232
Appendix 7: Emerging themes across the interview data ................................................................. 233
Appendix 8: Hierarchy for emergent themes across the interview ................................................ 235
Appendix 9: Correlation Matrix ........................................................................................................236

Appendix 10: Figures of mean scores of influential factors across three age groups ..........237
List of tables

Table 1: Figures for recruitment into initial teacher education (ITE) in 2016 to 2018...... 17  
Table 2: Demographics for the respondents who participate in the survey and interview . 72  
Table 3: Cronbach’s alpha for the constructs and subscales within the FIT-Choice scale . 87  
Table 4: The Rotated Component Matrix ................................................................................. 90  
Table 5: Means and Standard Deviations (SD) of all constructs in the FIT-Choice scale.. 92  
Table 6: Emerging patterns of main reasons for becoming a teacher from the open question in the questionnaire .................................................................................................................. 97  
Table 7: Interview respondents’ profiles.................................................................................. 100  
Table 8: The highest mean ratings for school leavers (or fresh graduates) and career changers ........................................................................................................................................ 133  
Table 9: Working background of participants who chose teaching as a first career choice ........................................................................................................................................... 136  
Table 10: Working background for participants who changed their career to become a teacher ......................................................................................................................................... 139  
Table 11: Interview respondents’ doubts about teaching as a career choice ...................... 163
List of figures

Figure 1: FIT-Choice empirically validated theoretical model ........................................ 52
Figure 2: The explanatory sequential mixed methods design ..................................... 64
Figure 3: The procedure of data collection ................................................................... 73
Figure 4: Flowchart of the procedures in implementing the explanatory design .......... 84
Figure 5: Scree plot produced from the PCA ............................................................... 89
Figure 6: Mean ratings of motivational factors influencing teaching as career choice for school leavers (or fresh graduates) and career changers ........................................ 133
Figure 7: Mean ratings of perception about teaching and satisfaction with the choice for school leavers (or fresh graduates) and career changers ........................................ 135
Figure 8: A graphical representation of motivational factors influencing teaching as a career choice ............................................................................................................................................................... 190
Acknowledgement

This thesis would not have been possible without the help and support from numerous parties. It is my pleasure to thank those who have helped to make this work possible.

I would like to express my sincere and profound gratitude to my supervisors, Dr Dely Elliot and Dr Muir Houston, for their valuable suggestions, continuous guidance, support, patience, and encouragement throughout the journey of this study. Their mentorship in all academic and personal aspects has encouraged me to grow and made this journey an enjoyable and rewarding experience.

I owe my deepest gratitude to all the participants in this study and those who assisted with piloting of the questionnaire and interviews, who gave of their valuable time and perspectives that facilitated the two phases of my data collection. I am also very grateful to two lecturers of the University of Glasgow, Mrs Margaret Jago and Dr Maureen Farrell, who allowed me access to their classrooms to invite the students to take part in this study.

No words can adequately express my gratitude to my dear family, not only for their financial support of this study but also for their unwavering encouragement, understanding, and confidence in me, which allow me to follow my dreams without any hesitation.

Finally, I would like to give special thanks to my close friends, Ziyou and Grace, who always treat me like a family and offer me constant support and positivity that helped me get through the difficult times in my doctoral journey.
Author’s declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Printed Name: Wenting Wang

Signature: (Signature Image)
Chapter One: Introduction

This PhD research project originated in my personal interest in teacher motivation and teacher education that had grown from my experience of studying on a TESOL\textsuperscript{1} programme for a Master’s degree and the opportunity to teach English to Chinese students at Jimei University in China. These learning and teaching experiences made me much aware of the crucial role that teachers play in the quality and effectiveness of learning. Teachers do not merely deliver the curriculum in the classroom; they also develop, define, and reinterpret the curriculum. What teachers believe and what teachers do in teaching fundamentally shapes the learning that students experience (Hargreaves, 1994).

However, relative to robust literature covering the theory and research on student motivation, until recently there has been comparatively little attention given to aspiring teachers and their motivations (Richardson, Watt and Karabenrick, 2014). Against this background, I developed an interest in exploring the motivations and perceptions about the teaching profession and believed that it was important to understand this issue. I was interested to understand pre-service teachers'\textsuperscript{2} motivations for entering the profession, what perceptions and expectations they held towards teaching as a career choice, and how these perceptions facilitate or inhibit their decision making.

This chapter provides the background to the study including the research context, the rationale, and potential significance of the research. It then explains the issues to be investigated and outlines the research questions and aims, followed by a brief introduction of the theoretical framework and methodological consideration of the research. Finally, this chapter sets out the structure of the thesis.

\textsuperscript{1} TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

\textsuperscript{2} Pre-service teachers (or student teachers) means teacher candidates who are enrolled in a teacher preparation programme and working towards teacher qualifications. I will use the term pre-service teachers and student teachers interchangeably throughout this thesis.
1.1 Research context and rationale

Teachers are vital to inspire and develop young people. The issues of how to attract and retain high-quality teachers and achieve an appropriate balance between teacher demand and supply have become important concerns over the years throughout the world (Watt and Richardson, 2012). Yet, giving attention to these issues may not necessarily mean that the problem has been successfully addressed. The OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) reports (OECD 2005, 2014) revealed that many OECD countries including the United Kingdom, United States, Australia, New Zealand, Netherlands, and Turkey are currently experiencing a shortage of trained and qualified teachers, an aging teaching workforce; and, high levels of early career burnout and attrition. Quantitative teacher shortage has potential impacts on teacher quality. When schools or education systems face teacher shortages, they may lower the entry requirements for recruitment or raise the teaching load for existing teachers by increasing class size; and, unlikely to be positive in maintaining and/or enhancing the quality of teaching (OECD, 2012).

In 2010, the Scottish Government published the report of a Review of Teacher Education in Scotland, led by Graham Donaldson (2010) and noted difficulties in attracting and retaining qualified teachers across the UK over several years, particularly in encouraging science and mathematics graduates into the teaching profession. Although Scotland is not facing an acute teacher shortage over recent years compared to England and Wales where there have been significant problems with teacher supply, there are still vacancies to fill and a need to increase teacher education numbers and encourage talented people to consider teaching as a profession; and, more importantly, to select the most able and high-quality applicants into teaching. Scotland has been working through a period of curriculum reform that started in 2004 with a Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004). Curriculum for Excellence seeks to position the teacher as interpreters and co-creators of the curriculum rather than just a deliverer, and teachers thus would be given more autonomy and flexibility to decide what/how to teach for a good education (Priestley, 2010, 2013). On the other hand, it is quite demanding on teachers and teachers may require a higher level of professional development and judgement in implementing Curriculum for Excellence in practice (ibid). Within this context, it is important to note that pre-service teachers need to gain sufficient training and develop their teaching competence and leadership quality throughout teacher education. The concerns of ensuring a professional teaching work-force and effective teacher education are also reflected in Donaldson’s report (2010) that emphasises the need for
‘getting the right people in the right numbers’ for the teaching profession and suggests that education policy should ‘give the highest priority to further strengthening the quality of its teachers and of its educational leadership’ (pp. 19-20).

As such, the subsequent report of a review of teacher employment in Scotland led by McCormac (2011) also stressed the importance of attracting and retaining individuals who have been well-trained as teachers and of making teaching as an attractive career choice for qualified teacher candidates. In the McCormac Report, on the other hand, it was recognised that teachers’ low morale, low salary, and long working hours could give rise to industrial unrest and created a feeling that the teaching profession is not valued by society. As Gatherer (2013) notes teaching in Scotland: ‘has always been regarded as a worthy occupation, albeit not endowed with much social prestige’ (p. 974). These issues and perceptions could provide challenges in teacher recruitment and concerns over retaining teachers in the profession.

To improve teacher recruitment and retention, in 2016, Scottish government announced the intention to fund over £1 million to develop teachers, enhance teacher education and teacher professionalism, as well as to tackle teacher shortage in an attempt to minimise the imbalance between the supply of and demand for qualified teachers in Scotland, especially in STEM subjects (i.e. science, technology, engineer, math) (Scottish Government, 2016).

In this respect, if policy makers or schools would like to encourage qualified graduates into teaching or to keep the well-trained force stay in the profession, it is arguably important and helpful to understand what attracted or inspired these teacher candidates to join the teaching profession in the first place. To date, less attention has been focused on addressing these issues in a comprehensive manner, particularly in the Scottish context. It is in this context that this research aims to contribute towards an understanding of what underpins Scottish pre-service teachers who have embarked on teacher education programme to pursue a teaching career.

To become a teacher in a state school in Scotland, a degree and a teaching qualification by following a programme of Initial Teacher Education (ITE) are required. All teacher education programmes in Scotland are university-led. There are two routes available to become school teachers in Scotland,

1) a four-year undergraduate BEd programme, or a combined degree courses at a Scottish university (e.g. MEduc programme);
2) a one-year PGDE (Professional Graduate Diploma in Education) programme.
The MEduc (Master in Education) programmes provide the opportunity to gain teaching qualification after four years of study, and the fifth year is a research-based study in relation to teaching and learning. This study is concerned with the entry teaching motivations of those who have embarked on first-year MEduc and PGDE (both Primary and Secondary education) programmes. It could be argued that student teachers’ initial motivation for pursuing a teaching career is crucial in determining their entry into the teaching profession (Rots and Aelterman, 2009). Further, student teachers’ beliefs, preconceptions, and reasons for entering the teaching profession may also influence the trajectory of their career development, professional engagement and commitment to teaching as a career (Watt and Richardson, 2007).

The universities in Scotland are facing challenges in recruiting the right number of student for teacher education programme (Scottish Parliament Information Centre, 2017). In 2017/18, in Scotland, as shown in Table 1, the total target of 4,058 places for initial teacher education was under-recruited by 197 students (4.8%). For example, under-recruitment to PGDE Secondary was 30% (1,750 places, 1,226 students recruited), and was particularly noticeable in English, home economics, maths, modern languages and technological education; while in comparison, PGDE secondary courses in history, PE, and modern studies over recruited slightly (Scottish Government, 2017). For PGDE primary and undergraduate primary courses, there was a slight over-recruitment with 12 students and 64 students above target respectively (ibid). Although the target intake into teacher education courses does not exactly match teacher demand, this is changing and the recruitment of student teachers appears to be improving with an increase of over 500 student teachers (McIvor, 2018). However, at the national level, it is worth noting that there is a decline in the number of graduates deciding to enter the teaching profession largely because of the perceived low salary for teaching (Scottish Parliament Information Centre, 2017). Even for those who chose teaching as their career path, teachers’ pay remains an important factor influencing their commitment level to the teaching profession. The results from the NASUWT’s survey (2016) of over 400 Scottish teachers showed that 88% of teachers believe that teachers’ pay was not competitive in comparison with other professions; and, 75% of teachers believe that people are put off by a career in teaching due to the financial rewards. Again, these facts and perceptions about the teaching profession are likely to have significantly negative impacts on the recruitment and retention of teachers.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate Primary</td>
<td>710</td>
<td>756</td>
<td>710</td>
<td>774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) Primary</td>
<td>1,230</td>
<td>1,248</td>
<td>1,186</td>
<td>1,259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate secondary</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) Secondary</td>
<td>1,350</td>
<td>1,198</td>
<td>1,750</td>
<td>1,226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate combined degree</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,687</td>
<td>3,591</td>
<td>4,058</td>
<td>3,657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Routes (provisional intake)*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3,861</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Figures for recruitment into initial teacher education (ITE) in 2016 to 2018 (Scottish Government, 2017)

In addition, there seems a growing number of older or mature teacher trainees who have already had alternative career histories entering the teaching profession across the world including the UK (Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Williams and Forgasz, 2009; Anthony and Ord, 2008; Wilkins 2017; Williams, 2013; Laming and Horne, 2013). The group of career changers plays an important part in changing the profile of entrants to the profession (usually presumed to consist of fresh graduates), bringing maturity and life experience into schools, and signalling that teaching as a profession is still appealing (Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Williams, 2013). Yet, the underlying decision-making processes related to choosing teaching as an initial and subsequent career choice at different stage in one’s career and life trajectory have received relatively little attention and hence not well understood. This prompted me to explore the reasons behind this career change to teaching as well as to conduct a hitherto underexplored group comparison of motivations for teaching as a career between mature career changers and fresh graduates.

1.2 Research questions and aims

This research was undertaken at an opportune time with an ongoing need to further strengthen teacher quality and increase teacher numbers to match supply with demand.
(Scottish Government, 2016, 2018). Taking into account the significance and context of the research, the prime purpose of this research is to shed light on motivational factors influencing teaching as a career choice and take lessons from it to inform the practice surrounding teacher recruitment and retention. This research is especially concerned with career motivations of Scottish student populations commencing on teacher education courses to pursue a teaching career. As noted previously in Section 1.1, given the growing number of career changers undertaking teacher education and becoming teachers, the study also considers whether the intention to teach relates to their previous working histories; if not, what draw them to teaching, and whether there is any difference between choosing teaching as an initial or subsequent career. Taken together, this study seeks to understand the motivation to teach by addressing the following four research questions,

1. What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to choose a career in teaching?
2. What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to choose teaching as their first career choice?
3. What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to leave their previous work to enter the teaching profession?
4. What are the similarities and differences in Scottish pre-service teachers’ motivations for entering the teaching profession between those who choose teaching as their first career choice and those who change their career to teaching?

### 1.3 Theoretical framework

This research is mainly located within the Factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice) Framework, developed by Watt and Richardson (2007). The FIT-Choice framework aligns with the purposes of this study in understanding and comparing initial motivations for choosing a teaching career. The FIT-Choice framework is strongly rooted in the work of Eccles and Wigfield’s expectancy-value theory that has proven to be valuable in theorising and developing a measure of motivation patterns for career choice (Eccles 2005, 2009; Eccles and Wigfield, 1995). Expectancy-value theory suggests that individuals’ occupational and educational choice(s) are influenced by their beliefs in how well they can/will do the task and the extent to which they value the task (Wigfield and Eccles, 2000; Eccles, 2009). Expectancy-value theory provides an important basis for the development of the factors or constructs of the FIT-Choice model.

In general, the FIT-Choice model captures the factors influencing teaching as a career choice via three dimensions, that is, 1) motivations for teaching; 2) perceptions and beliefs about
teaching; and, 3) the level of satisfaction about teaching as a career choice. Chapter Two will discuss these three dimensions and its comprising constructs in greater details. Further, the FIT-Choice model has been empirically validated across various sociocultural contexts including Australia, Ireland, Turkey, Germany, Norway, the USA and China with sound evidence of reliability and construct validity (Eren and Tezel, 2010; Watt et al., 2012). In this respect, the FIT-Choice framework can arguably provide a theoretically robust and empirically reliable approach to understand why people decide to pursue a teaching career.

Although much research indicated that motivations or reasons for choosing a teaching career fell into the categories of intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic reasons (De Cooman et al., 2007; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Moran et al., 2001; Sinclair, 2008; Yong, 1995), Watt and Richardson (2007, 2012) argue that these traditional categorisations have been variously interpreted and applied, resulting in an absence of conceptual agreement and inconsistencies across empirical research, making it problematic when attempting to comparing results across existing studies. In addition, other potential influential factors such as the influences of other people (e.g. previous teachers, mentors, family members, friends) and one’s prior teaching and learning experiences are identified in the literature as important in the decision to teach (Richardson and Watt, 2006; Watt and Richardson, 2007; O’Sullivan et al., 2009; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Hennessy and Lynch, 2017); however, they are difficult to map within intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivational constructs. Hence, the typology of intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic motivations is unlikely to provide a unified and integrative approach to understand motivations for entering the teaching profession. The design of the FIT-Choice framework is in response to a lack of a systematic and holistic framework to address the issue of why teaching is chosen as a career choice (Richardson and Watt, 2014; Watt and Richardson, 2007). Overall, given that the FIT-Choice model provides a theoretically and empirically rigorous measurement platform to assist researchers in understanding motivations for pursuing a teaching career, this study thus employs the FIT-Choice model as a theoretical framework to guide the inquiry into why student teachers choose teaching as a career.

1.4 Methodological choice

The research is undertaken using mixed methods with pragmatic beliefs or assumptions. Taking a pragmatic perspective implies no commitment to any one system of philosophy and reality and following the credo of ‘what works’ and being practical as a philosophy (Creswell, 2014). This applies to mixed methods research in the sense that the researcher is
free to have both quantitative and qualitative assumptions in the research and to choose all possible techniques and procedures that best meet the research needs and purposes (Bryman, 2012; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Although mixed methods approach may raise issues pertaining to the ‘paradigm wars’ and the compatibility of mixing the approaches, the paradigm war seems over in recent years and mixed methods research has been increasingly accepted as a separate methodology or approach to guide the research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Bryman, 2012; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, 2010). Having identified the strengths and challenges of mixed methods research, a combination of quantitative and qualitative research within a mixed methods framework could best work for approaching the research questions; each perspective of research can contribute to a meaningful layer in addressing the research inquiries concerning motivation to teach.

Considering extant literature on the career motivations for entering the teaching profession, from one perspective, the reasons for choosing a teaching career can be seen as an objective ‘truth’ to be directly measured and quantified, i.e. quantitative; from another, teaching as a career can be a personal choice that is related to a participant’s subjective perspectives and interpretations, i.e. qualitative. In this connection, using either quantitative or qualitative approach alone may be inadequate to gain a holistic understanding of the research questions concerning the motivation to teach. The choice of conducting mixed methods research provide strengths that compensate the potential shortcomings of employing either quantitative or qualitative research alone and is of help to achieve a holistic perspective in understanding the motivation for choosing a teaching career (Creswell, 2015), and these contribute to the rationale for choosing a mixed methods approach.

More specifically, this study chooses an explanatory sequential mixed methods design with initial quantitative data informing the subsequent qualitative phase (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The instruments employed for this research are questionnaires in the quantitative stage followed by semi-structured individual interviews in the subsequent qualitative stage. Starting with collecting questionnaire data augments the research in three ways: 1) to capture trends and general motivation patterns to gain an overall picture of motivations for teaching; 2) to compare motivational factors for those that chose teaching as an initial or as a subsequent career; and, 3) to identify important issues that need further exploration in subsequent interviews. The interview data provides complementary data for additional explanations of questionnaire results and collecting more detailed and in-depth perspectives or personal stories about the decision to become a teacher. Although there might be other research design or approach to address the research questions, given an explanatory
sequential mixed methods design is well suited for the research problems and allows multiple ways of viewing problems, it is considered as the most appropriate way to gain a comprehensive insight into the research inquiries.

1.5 The structure of the thesis

The thesis consists of seven chapters. The following presents a concentrated structural summary for each chapter.

The present chapter, Chapter One is the introduction, setting out the impetus, context, and rationale for conducting the research. It also outlines the purposes of this study and the research questions; and, briefly explains the theoretical foundation and methodological choice that guide the practice of the research. A thesis outline is provided at the end of this chapter.

Chapter Two provides a review of literature related to the factors influencing teaching as a career choice and the reasons for choosing teaching as an initial and subsequent career. This chapter provides an in-depth discussion on the two influential conceptual frameworks related to motivation for teaching: 1) the traditional categories of altruistic, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; and, 2) the most recent the FIT-Choice model developed by Watt and Richardson (2007), underpinned by expectancy-value theory. Given the FIT-Choice model was developed to provide a coherent and integrated way to address the issues of motivations to teach (Richardson and Watt, 2014), this study thus employs the FIT-Choice model as the theoretical framework to guide the investigation into what motivates pre-service teachers to choose a teaching career.

Chapter Three presents the ontological and epistemological considerations that inform the selection of methodology and research methods employed in the study. This chapter provides descriptions and justifications of the selected approach, research design, participant recruitment, research instruments and their designs, data collection process, and data analysis methods for each stage of the research. Additionally, the ethical consideration and a discussion of the validity and reliability of data are presented in this chapter.

Chapters Four and Five present both quantitative and qualitative results on participants’ responses to reasons for choosing a career in teaching. As many ‘mixed methods’ researchers encourage the integration of the presentation of the findings (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2015),
the results of both the quantitative and qualitative elements of the study are presented jointly in Chapter Four and Five. Chapter Four presents the findings pertaining to the factors influencing the pursuit of a teaching career from the whole groups of participants’ perspective including their motivations, beliefs, aspirations, and attitude towards teaching as a career choice. Chapter Five presents the results related to similarities and differences in motivations and perceptions about teaching across different sub-groups (e.g. gender, age, working experience and non-working experience, primary teaching and secondary teaching). Additionally, there is a particular focus on two groups of participants: 1) those who chose teaching as their first career choice; and, 2) those who changed their occupational path and then decided to become teachers; and, a comparison of reasons for teaching between these two groups are also presented in Chapter Five.

Chapter Six provides an in-depth discussion of the findings to address the purposes of the study and the research questions, in relation to extant research. Given the FIT-Choice model, underpinned by expectancy-value theory as a theoretical framework that guides the research practice, this chapter discusses the utility of the FIT-Choice scale in the Scottish context and evaluates the findings in relation to its underpinning theory – expectancy-value model.

Chapter Seven offers some concluding thoughts for the research. It presents a summary of conducting the research project, an identification of the research limitations, and the theoretical contributions. It also provides suggestions for further research and how aspects of this study could be used to inform issues of teacher recruitment and retention. Finally, a reflection on this research journey of exploring teacher motivation is presented.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This Chapter discusses the literature that addresses the research questions – motivations for choosing teaching as a career choice and the attractions of teaching from the perspectives of those who choose teaching as their career choice and of those who change their career to teaching. The purposes of this literature review are to assist in understanding the general research landscape and specific theoretical concepts concerning motivation to teach, in narrowing down the focus of this research, and in identifying the gaps in the field to demonstrate why this research is worth pursuing.

2.2. Defining the key research terms

The review will begin by defining the terms – ‘motivation’ and ‘career’ as they are generally understood in the literature to clarify the key foci for this research.

2.2.1 Motivation

There have been a variety of definitions of motivation presented in the literature and defined in dictionaries. The Oxford English Dictionary defines the word in relation to Psychology as:

The (conscious or unconscious) stimulus for action towards a desired goal, esp. as resulting from psychological or social factors; the factors giving purpose or direction to human or animal behaviour. Now also more generally (as a count noun): the reason a person has for acting in a particular way, a motive. (OED, 2018)

In a general sense, Geen (1995) defines motivation as ‘process involved in the initiation, direction, and energization of individual behaviour’ (p. 38). In the field of educational psychology, Schunk, Meece and Pintrich (2014) describe motivation as ‘something that gets us going, keeps us working, and helps us complete tasks’, and they define motivation as ‘the process whereby goal-directed activities are instigated and sustained’ (p. 4). In their definition, motivation is viewed as the process that is concerned with individuals’ direction and persistence of effort to engage in certain activities to attain their goals. On the other hand,
Deckers (2010) notes that the motivation has also been viewed as a result of many aspects including inner force, perseverance, perceptions, rewards, and external incentives.

In relation to teaching and teacher education, according to Sinclair (2008),

‘motivation is what moves us to do something, including beginning a new career or initial teacher education course. It involves energy and drive to learn, work effectively and achieve potential’ (p. 80).

It is arguably the same energy and drive that leads to the choice of a teaching career, which is the central focus of this study. Further, research has suggested that motivations can influence what, when and how we engage in activities, for example, 1) what activities people do or do not engage in; 2) how long they engage in these activities; and, 3) the depth to which they engage in these activities (Pop and Turner, 2009; Sinclair, 2008). Accordingly, motivations for teaching are likely to influence what attracts individuals to the profession (or teacher education courses), how long they intend to sustain in the teaching profession, and the extent to which they engage with teacher education courses and make a commitment to the teaching profession. As presented in Chapter One, the aim of this study is to investigate student teachers’ initial or entry motivation to become a teacher, which as Sinclair (2008) notes, is the exploration of the first step in becoming a teacher. Overall, for this study, exploring the motivation for choosing a teaching career means identifying the motivational factors, which initiate and direct pre-service teachers’ thoughts and decision to pursue a career in teaching.

2.2.2 Career

The meaning of career has been conceptualised differently by researchers in the field of career choice and career development over time. The meaning of career was traditionally described as a series of jobs with a hierarchy of progression and status, most commonly in professional occupations with an advancing trajectory. Indeed, the OED (2018) states that one definition is: A course of professional life or employment, which affords opportunity for progress or advancement in the world. Similarly, in the literature, Arthur, Hall and Lawrence (1989) defined a career as ‘the evolving sequence of a person’s work experiences over time’ (p. 8); while Super (1976) extended this by considering the role of one’s pre-occupational and post-occupational activities and how they played out across the life stage and situated it within a social context. Given this, Super (ibid) defined a career as

‘the sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his
pre-occupational, occupational and post-occupational life; includes work related roles such as those of student, employee, and pensioner, together with complementary vocational, familial and civil roles’ (p. 20).

More recent research, however, emphasises the role of individuals and their own development to construct the meaning of a career, viewing a career as a personal choice made by individuals. As Savickas (2002) notes, ‘career denotes a reflection on the course of one’s vocational behavior, rather than vocational behavior itself’ (p. 152). Patton and McMahon (1999) echo this view and explained that career choice are created by individuals themselves and influenced by their perceptions, attitudes towards a career and ‘the pattern of influences that coexist in an individual’s life over time’ (p. 170). Blustein (2006) proposes to understand a career choice from a more inclusive perspective, considering the issues of gender, social class, family background, cultural characteristics; and, political and economic impact on career choice and development. Further, Blustein’s (2011) relational theory of working elicits occupations or career as ‘an inherently relational act’ (p. 9), highlighting the interaction between work and the domains of life experience (e.g. interaction with people and with the broader social and cultural environment). As Patton and McMahon (2014) suggest, theories on career are a reflection of the time during which they were developed, which may require continuous refinement to reflect a constantly changing macro-environment. In connection with these views of career, for pre-service teachers in this study, a career in teaching means they have decided to engage with teaching over other available occupations at a certain period of their lifetime.

It is worth noting that the term career has been subject to criticism as it may present partiality to middle-class ideas and connote privilege and social identity, and thus seems inappropriate to be applied to less developed countries (or occupations) where people work only to subsist and may not have a sense of ‘career’ (Patton and Collin, 2009; Richardson, 2000). Richardson (ibid) suggests adopting the term work, which is a more inclusive word that can take unpaid, paid, volunteer, and caring forms into consideration. Given this research uses the word ‘career’ as the presentation of a type of work (i.e. teaching) that an individual chooses to undertake for a period of time, it is argued to be a neutral word and hence has no tendency to middle-class bias.

2.3 An overview of motivation for pursuing a teaching career

Research concerning what attracts individuals to teach, how they perceive teaching as a career choice and what aspirations they have in the early career development had begun to
receive increasing attention since the 1960s (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992; Malderez et al., 2007; Mori, 1965; Watt and Richardson, 2008). These studies approach the issue of why people choose a career in teaching either from a broadly sociological viewpoint or from the teacher education literature (Richardson and Watt, 2014). Brookhart and Freeman (1992), for example, conducted a review of 44 US studies on teacher motivation between 1960 to 1990 and suggested that ‘altruistic, service-oriented goals and other intrinsic motivations’ are primary reasons for teaching as a career choice (p. 46). Additionally, ‘the desire to work with young people’ (under the categorisation of ‘the interpersonal theme’) and the ‘opportunity for rendering important service’ (under ‘the service theme’) were identified as prominent attractions of teaching by Lortie (2002, pp. 27-28). These themes resonate with more recent studies conducted in the UK, New Zealand, Netherlands, Belgium, Croatia, China, Germany, Australia, Norway, Portugal and Sweden, confirming that the influence of intrinsic and altruistic factors are prominent in the decision to pursue a teaching career. (Jarvis and Woodrow, 2005; Kyriacou et al., 2003; Lovett, 2007; Low et al., 2011; Watt et al., 2012; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013; Jugović et al., 2012; Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012).

Over the last thirty years, researchers exploring the motivation for becoming a teacher conducted in many countries around the world agreed that the main motivations or reasons for choosing a career in teaching generally fell into intrinsic, altruistic, and extrinsic (Bastick, 2000; De Cooman et al., 2007; Kyriacou et al., 2003; Kyriacou, Hultgreen and Stephens, 1999; Moran et al., 2001; Saban, 2003; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013; Yong, 1995; Bruinsma and Jansen, 2010; Yüce et al., 2013). These three main categories of reasons provide a broad understanding of what motivates people to pursue a teaching career and they are explained as below:

1) Intrinsic reasons focus on individual’s internal factors such as passion, interest, personal aspiration and satisfaction that influence teaching as a career choice. It is often inherent to the job itself, for example, a desire to work with young people, the love of teaching activity or an interest in teaching subject(s) (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000, p. 117; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013, p. 1009).

2) Altruistic reasons deal with viewing teaching as a socially valuable and important job and are related to the notion of improving society, for example, a desire to make social contribution and to help young people reach their potential (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000, p. 117; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013, p. 1009).

3) Extrinsic reasons cover aspects of the job which are not inherent to the job itself, such as long holidays, level of pay, status and working
Although an extrinsic, intrinsic, altruistic typology has been identified as the common motives to enter the profession in much of the existing literature for decades, these broad categorisations were subjected to criticism by Richardson and Watt (2006), as they ‘lacked an integrative theoretical framework to guide the selection and organisation of influential factors’ (p. 31). Firstly, they argue that each categorisation is absent of a precise definition, resulting in an inconsistent conceptualisation of terms. For example, a wish to work with children is categorised by some researchers (e.g. Moran et al., 2001; Young, 1995) as an intrinsic factor whereas, in Yong’s study (1995), it is regarded as an altruistic indicator (further discussion about working with children will be presented in Section 2.4.1.). This implies that motivational factors influencing one’s choice of teaching are likely to be framed differently, resulting in emerging overlapping classifications and lacking rigorous conceptualisation. In this sense, this traditional typology is unable to provide a consistent and systematic conceptual framework to understand motivations for choosing a teaching career.

Secondly, these broad categorisations do not include all potential influential factors. There is an absence of motivation affected by social influences and prior teaching and learning experiences (Richardson and Watt, 2006; Watt and Richardson, 2007). Research conducted in many countries demonstrated that the positive influences of prior teaching and learning experiences (Akar, 2012; Watt and Richardson, 2007; Younger et al., 2004; Thornton, Bricheno and Reid, 2002; See, 2004; Eren and Tezel, 2010; Hennessy and Lynch, 2017), as well as social persuasion (or the encouragement of others) is important in contributing to the decision to become a teacher (Hammond, 2002; Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012; Younger et al., 2004; Richardson and Watt, 2016; Mangaoil et al., 2017). For example, as found in Manuel and Hughes’ study (2006), 73.4% (n = 79) of secondary student teachers were strongly influenced by an important teacher or mentor in their decision to enter a teaching profession; for these students, their previous teachers as a role model inspired them to enter the profession, or were being a persuasive force in the choice of a teaching career. It can be argued that these influential factors are difficult to be mapped neatly into intrinsic, altruistic or extrinsic typology. This three-category list of reasons, therefore, has not been presented in a comprehensive way to address the issue of what motivate people to enter the teaching profession.
In order to address these gaps regarding lack of a comprehensive and coherent framework concerning the motivation for the choice of teaching, Watt and Richardson (2007) developed a model, named ‘Factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice)’, underpinned by expectancy-value theory (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles, 2005). A detailed discussion of the FIT-Choice model and its theoretical underpinning – expectancy-value theory will be presented in later sections (see Section 2.6.2 and 2.6.3). Here, in brief, the FIT-Choice model takes into account social influences and prior teaching and learning experiences, together with the influences of self-perceptions, values, and fallback career and the experience of social dissuasion and career choice satisfaction. The FIT-Choice project has grown extensively over the last decade around the world. More specifically, the FIT-Choice scale was initially applied to a large-scale survey of 1653 pre-service teachers across three Australian universities in 2006, after verifying its utility and validity in the Australian sample, it was subsequently tested and used in other contexts such as the United States, Norway, Germany, Croatia, Turkey, China, Ireland, Netherlands, achieving good construct validity and reliability (Watt and Richardson, 2007; Lin et al., 2012; Watt et al., 2012; Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012; Kılınç, Watt and Richardson, 2012; Jugović et al., 2012). Richardson and Watt (2014) concluded that the FIT-Choice model was advanced to provide a both theoretically and empirically robust approach to understanding the motivation for becoming a teacher. However, it is worth noting that there may be divergence or differences in resulting factor structure or highly motivated factors across different contexts, reflecting the importance of specific context within which teaching as a career choice has been made. This will be discussed in details later in Section 2.6.4.

In addition, research has also suggested that gender roles also have an important impact the decision to choose a career in teaching (Raggl and Troman, 2008; Johnston, McKeown and McEwen, 1999, Lortie, 2002; Williams, 2013). Connell (1997) argues, gender identity and what is perceived as proper work for male and female were important considerations for a career choice. As such, teaching as a career choice may generally align with the gender role and sexual division of labour (Raggl and Troman, 2008). According to a recent report (OECD, 2014), on average, more than two-thirds of teachers in all levels of schooling are women across the OECD countries. The imbalance in the number of males and females in teaching has increased over the last 30 years (Richardson and Watt, 2016). Johnson and Birkeland (2003) argue that teaching is often seen as a more feminine career, and especially primary teaching, is somehow regarded as an extension of mothering or child care that may not necessarily require high level of intelligence. Teaching thus may not fit with the underlying gender stereotypes of men showing masculinity and intellectual ability in the
work, resulting in the fact that only a small proportion of men choose a teaching career. Johnston, McKeown and McEwen (1999) conducted a study explored how primary teaching is perceived by men in North Ireland. They found, in male’s view, ‘a job in which their maleness is necessary and of value’; ‘a job suited to females, but not exclusively a woman’s job’; ‘teaching is a career choice which might be seen by their peers as inappropriate for males’; ‘males may have to confront societal negativity about males working closely with young children’ (pp. 61-62). This evidence shows that men were very aware of the negative image and others’ reaction towards the choice of teaching in a primary school. The perceived sex stereotyping of primary teaching may forward the way towards explaining why men are difficult to be recruited into teaching. The potential downside of having fewer men in teaching is that children would be disadvantaged for a lack of male teaching role models.

On the other hand, research has also found that a male teacher’s role in school teaching might be solitary as working in an environment where most colleagues are women and the rare male company was likely to be the principal or be involved in an administrative/management-related role (Allen et al., 2014). In this regard, men seem to psychologically sacrifice more if they enter the teaching profession, compared to women who may not have the same potential constraints. In addition, males relative to women likely attach greater weight to financial rewards but place less stress on the importance of working with children (Johnston et al, 1999; Eccles, 2009). Lortie (2002) notes that there seems a traditionally prevailing argument that a large proportion of men have a higher standard on the income and prestige of an occupational choice than women. If men aim high in salary and status and perceived teaching without high income and respect, they might not be attracted into teaching. This may in part explain why men were difficult to recruit into teaching.

However, the picture is more complex if teaching subject is taken into account. For example, according to a recent report on the teaching workforce in Australia, men represent the major workforce in teaching Chemistry, Mathematics, Computing and Information Technology, Physics and Mathematics (Wheldon, 2015); when it comes to subjects such as English and Languages, males only contribute a small proportion of the work force (approximately 33% and 25% respectively). Thus, teaching has long attracted more women than men, resulting in women constituting the major teaching workforce.

In addition to gender-related issues, in the field of career choice and development, vocational and behavioural psychologists observed that the structure of the career motivations or
patterns is very likely shaped and influenced by the issues which are situated and contextual. The factors influencing a career choice were related to personal characteristics such as individual’s intelligence, values, experience, personality, family background, or attributes of age, gender, social class, ethnicity, or more broad context with respect to local labour market, cultural and socioeconomic context (Patton and McMahon, 2014; Super, 1976; Blustein, 2011). As such, the motivation to become a school teacher might be subject to these influences mentioned above as well, especially in relation to ‘social, economic, interpersonal, intellectual and ethical issues’ (Mori, 1965, p. 182). See (2004) echoed this view, suggesting that individuals’ choice of work was largely influenced by their socioeconomic and cultural background, and the aspects of biography and demographics are potential determinants in the decision to enter the teaching profession. In See’s study (2004) of student teachers in the UK, a decision to teach or not was found to be especially related to gender, ethnicity and parental educational background. For example, those whose mothers had an A-level, or equivalent qualification; were less likely to enter the teaching profession than those whose mother’s qualifications were unknown. See (ibid.) also noted that those with, or likely to achieve 2.2 degrees were more likely to enter the teaching profession than those with a 2.1 degree or higher. Of particular note, however, is that this is not necessarily the case in other countries such as Finland in which there are high entry requirements for teacher education (Uusiautti and Määttä, 2013). In this connection, the context characteristics and personal background are likely to require attention in understanding motivations for choosing a career in teaching.

Overall, the underlying reasons to choose a teaching career are multi-faceted and complex; and, some reasons or motivations may be more or less important, dependent upon situational and contextualising factors (Kyriacou et al., 2002; Lortie, 2002; Sinclair, 2008; Richardson and Watt, 2016). Over the recent decades, the traditional category of intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivation and the most recent FIT-Choice model has been widely used throughout the world to guide the inquiry of why people decide to pursue a teaching career. The following sections will provide a further discussion of these two influential conceptual frameworks.

2.4 Intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic reasons for choosing a teaching career

Intrinsic reasons have long been identified as central to the decision to teach (Edmonds, Sharp and Benefield, 2002; Kyriacou et al., 2003; Lovett, 2007; Low et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2012; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Manuel, 2003; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013; Pop
and Turner, 2009). Csikszentmihalyi (1997) proposed two elements as the sources of intrinsic reward of teaching: ‘the educational process’ (i.e. the actual teaching and interaction with students) and ‘the subject matter’ (i.e. interest in a subject-matter field and desire to continuously engage with the subject specialism) (cited in Dörnyei, 2013, p. 161). These two themes are evidenced and verified in many empirical studies exploring motivation for choosing teaching as a career, demonstrating the importance of intrinsic reasons in relation to interest in subject discipline and/or enjoy the activities of teaching, even though working with young people is likely to be linked to altruistic reasons (Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1999; Kyriacou et al., 2003; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Moran et al., 2001; Reid and Caudwell, 1997).

According to See (2004), the factors in shaping who would be, or would not be, or who is more likely to consider a career in teaching, are mainly based on individual preconceptions as to whether teaching would be an enjoyable and satisfying career choice. In essence, the concept of enjoyment can be tracked back to the theory of ‘hedonism’ proposed by British philosopher Hobbes in the seventeenth century, believing that ‘all behaviour is determined by the seeking of pleasure and the avoidance of pain, which are the real motives whatever we may believe’ (Gross, 2010, p. 132). As found in Kyriacou and Coulthard’s study (2000, p. 120) of undergraduate’s career choice in England, 95% of the students rated ‘a job that I will find enjoyable’ as the most important factor in choosing a career. As such, much recent international empirical research suggests that the enjoyment and interest are major factors in student teachers’ decision to enter the teaching profession (Watt et al., 2012; Heinz, 2013; Flores and Niklasson, 2014). In this connection, people choose a career in teaching largely rest on their love for a teaching job or a belief that teaching is inherently interesting or enjoyable. Of particular note, however is that intrinsic reasons may be more frequently cited as the in developed countries than in developing countries where extrinsic reasons are likely more prominent (Azman, 2013; Watt et al., 2012). This will be discussed in greater details later in this section.

In addition, it is worth noting that intrinsic factors may closely link to altruistic aspects, reflecting an inherent overlap between intrinsic motives and altruistic motives. As Lai et al. (2005) note, although altruistic and intrinsic reasons are conceptually distinct from a theoretical perspective, they are often blurred in the pre-service teachers’ perceptions about teaching as a career choice. Manuel and Hughes (2006) argue that ‘intrinsic reasons have social justice dimensions, tacit in statements made by participants such as making a difference to children’s lives and helping others; and these factors may well be implicit in
the predominant responses of personal fulfilment and working with young people’ (p. 11). Similarly, many empirical studies have suggested that people choose a teaching career because they feel they would gain a sense of fulfilment from making a difference in young people’s lives, benefiting disadvantaged children and making a worthwhile contribution to society (Richardson and Watt, 2006, Lortie, 2002; Kyriacou et al., 2003; Watt et al., 2012). In this respect, the decision to choose a teaching career could derive from one’s internal needs for personal achievement and satisfaction but also from an altruistic sense of helping young people and giving back to the society.

Further, altruistic and intrinsic reasons for becoming a teacher are connected to the concept of self-actualisation in the literature. Self-actualisation represents an individual’s needs for realisation of one’s potential and capacities, comprehension, and insight (Schunk, Meece, and Pintrich, 2014). In the area of humanistic psychology exploring human growth and development, self-actualisation lies at the peak of Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy of needs, meaning ‘realising one’s full potential’, and ‘becoming everything one is capable of becoming’ (cited in Gross, 2010, p. 131). For example, Malderez et al. (2007) conducted a large-scale longitudinal study in England and found that ‘becoming a teacher seemed to mean actualising an already identified potential’ (p. 230). Over half of the participants mentioned that their suitable personality and good communication skill with children and a desire to use the acquired subject knowledge can be realised and extended through teaching. Another example in Krečič and Grmek’s study (2005) conducted in Slovenia, comments such as ‘teaching is useful public work for the whole society and I can be a good example to children and young people’ were grouped under the theme of self-realisation (p. 270). Given those findings above, for prospective teachers, they are likely to see teaching as a way to fulfil themselves in the sense that teaching provides an opportunity to pursue their interests, reach their potential and provide a service to society.

In addition to intrinsic and altruistic reasons, extrinsic rewards of teaching such as salary, social status, job security, holidays and flexibility are another important source of motivation for choosing a teaching career. Further, the extent to which those extrinsic reasons are considered as important may vary, depending on different contexts. Evidence from many studies conducted in the United States, Australia, United Kingdom, Norway, and Belgium suggested that those who decide to enter the teaching profession are more likely motivated by the intrinsic and altruistic aspects of teaching than extrinsic rewards of teaching (e.g. Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Kyriacou et al., 2002; Sinclair, 2008; Lortie, 2002; Richardson and Watt, 2012; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013). However, in different
sociocultural contexts, such as Brunei (Yong, 1995), Malaysia (Azman, 2013), Jamaica, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Cameroon and the Caribbean region (Bastick, 2000), Tanzania (Moses et al., 2017), extrinsic factors, such as financial rewards, status of the profession, and job security, and the opportunities to enter another more desirable profession from teaching are prominent and even regarded as more important than intrinsic and altruistic aspects in the decision to teach. For example, nearly 90% of teacher trainees in Brunei Darussalam chose to become a teacher as a result of perceived the high status of teaching in society (Yong, 1995). Yong further argued that teaching was seen as a prestigious profession in Brunei Darussalam and the public held high respect for teachers; and, these views might have an important impact on the decision to pursue a teaching career.

However, this may not be the case in the United Kingdom, Australia and the United States where teachers may not receive a high level of respect and status in society (Richardson and Watt, 2016). In this connection, there might be a need to contextualize the extrinsic reasons for teaching and perceptions about teachers’ social status. Likewise, Klassen et al. (2011) note that motivations for pursuing teaching as a profession may differ based on cultural and social background and there thus seems no universal pattern of motivations for teaching as a career.

This section has broadly discussed intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic reasons or motivations for choosing a teaching career. What follows is further discussion on specific factors frequently cited within the literature under intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivations including working with young people, continuing engagement with existing degree subject, enjoyment of teaching activity, making a social contribution, salary, job security, status and holidays (Jarvis and Woodrow, 2005; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Kyriacou et al., 2003; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013; Younger et al., 2004; Reid and Caudwell, 1997). As some literature has highlighted below, there can also be an overlap between the type or form of motivation involved.

2.4.1 Working with young people

A desire to work with young people was identified by many researchers as the central to the decision to become a teacher (Sinclair, 2008, Watt and Richardson, 2008; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013; Reid and Caudwell, 1997; Richardson and Watt, 2016). Heafford and Jennison (1998, p. 153) argue that ‘enjoying working with
young people in the classroom is the *sine qua non* of teaching*. Similarly, Reid and Caudwell’s study (1997) exploring reasons for choosing teaching as a career in England found that the most two prominent reasons for becoming a teacher given by 96 percent of the 453 teacher trainees were ‘enjoying working with children’ and ‘feeling that teaching would bring high job satisfaction’ (p. 47). Of particular note is that the concept of enjoying working with children can be linked to both intrinsic and altruistic motivational constructs, reflecting the potential overlap between motivations as discussed in the previous section. For example, Moran *et al.*’s study (2001) exploring the motivations for the choice of teaching in North Ireland grouped working with children into the intrinsic reason for becoming a teacher. The authors found that the concept of working with children stemmed from respondents’ love for children and love of being around with children, and these respondents thus would experience great pleasure when working with children. In this respect, individuals’ decision to become a teacher are more intrinsically motivated by the enjoyment of working with children; teaching is portrayed as ‘a sense of calling’ in that one might find teaching and work with children naturally suits them, with respect to the personality, intelligence, and skills (Farkas, Johnson and Foleno, 2000; Moran *et al.*, 2001).

Working with children can often extend beyond solely having an innate love of the children, and connect with altruistic-type reasons for helping children and serving a useful role in society. As found in Manuel and Hughes’ study (2006) of motivation to teach in Australia, they noted ‘the opportunity to work with young people as part of the broader social project of education’ (p. 10). They found many pre-service teachers gave altruistic reasons for choosing a career in teaching, expressing the importance of helping children develop their knowledge and skills and feeling satisfied when seeing children learn and make progress. They also indicated working with children is socially worthwhile in the sense that it provides the opportunity to influence young people’s future life chances and give back to society. Further discussion on making a worthwhile contribution to society will present later in the Section 2.4.4. Taken together, it is likely that the feelings or the perceptions that working with young people would be pleasant and social meaning as the underlying factors shaping the decision to become a teacher.

However, there is an increasing recognition that working with children can also be challenging and psychologically demanding. When working with children, teachers are often expected to perform multiple roles such as being a mentor, friend, disciplinarian, advisor, academic guide and having responsibility for mandatory reporting. At the classroom level teachers are often trying to create an effective and supportive learning environment
while managing constant interruptions, poor student behaviours, failure to achieve teaching goals, and sometimes verbal or even physical assaults (Kyriacou and Kunc, 2007; Richardson and Watt, 2016). Other potential source of pressure is likely to be related to, for example, increasing workload, work intensification, insufficient salary, lack of resources, high expectations from school and parents (Klassen and Chiu, 2011). Considering these demands, it is perhaps not surprising that teaching is regarded as highly stressful occupation and has been found to experience high level of work-related stress and emotional exhaustion. These challenges and work-related stress may lead to low morale, reduced job satisfaction and commitment, even the consideration of leaving the profession (OECD, 2005; Cooper and Davey, 2011).

2.4.2 Continuing to engage with existing degree subject

A desire to maintain engagement with the degree subject is identified by researchers in many countries as an important attraction in the decision to pursue a teaching career (Roness and Smith, 2009; Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1999; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000, Reid and Caudwell, 1997; Younger et al., 2004; Moran et al., 2001; Flores and Niklasson, 2014). Heinz (2013) notes that an enthusiasm for a particular subject area has an important impact on the choice of undertaking teacher training course, and this may be particularly the case for those who decide to teach in a secondary school. Likewise, as found in Younger et al. (2004) study, 88 percent of their PGCE students in England considered the matter of their existing degree subject as the main reason for choosing to enroll on a PGCE course. However, Younger and colleagues further noted that this apparently homogeneous response carries with it different constructions of subject and of teaching. For example, some may be solely attracted to the subject itself and expect to continually pursue and advance that particular subject; some perhaps see the value of learning that subject and thus want to share their enthusiasm and knowledge for that discipline area. Hammond’s study (2002) shared similar findings showing that most secondary teacher trainees’ decision to teach information and communication technology (ICT) was bound up with the attraction of ICT, stemming from not only their personal interest in ICT and continuous development of ICT but also the belief that young learners would benefit from learning this subject.

In addition, the level of importance of the subject-matter as influential in the choice of teaching may vary from discipline to discipline. Reid and Caudwell (1997) suggested that arts graduates stressed more on maintaining engagement with the discipline than science and
mathematics graduates, with a percentage of 40 compared with 17 percent. The students who
intend to become a teacher of a foreign language are likely to value the importance of the
subject-matter most. In Kyriacou and Benmansour’s study (1999) exploring the motivation
for teaching foreign languages in the UK and Morocco, they found that 90% and 86% of
language student teachers in UK and Morocco respectively rate ‘I enjoy the subject I will
teach’ as very important reason for their decision to enter teaching profession (p. 71). It
could be argued that an interest in a certain subject led to the consideration of undertaking a
career with that subject specialism. However, when there seems no set career path or only a
limited job available in the market for some university degree subject (e.g. mathematics, a
foreign language), students are likely to consider becoming a teacher in that teaching
experiences provide the opportunity to continue working within the subject area and enable
to use their subject knowledge (Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1999). This trigger of the
decision to teach, from a less optimistic standpoint, is noted by researchers such as Lovett
(2007), Mtika and Gates (2011), is perhaps based on underlying perceptions that see teaching
as a fall-back (last resort) or a springboard to pursue another more preferred career.

On a more positive side, however, it is important to note that the love of the subject may
well become the source of job satisfaction. Insight into what contributes to job satisfaction
obtained from teaching can be found in an early relevant longitudinal research conducted in
England by Heafford and Jennison (1998) tracing the career choice and development of a
group of 165 students after completion of a PGCE degree at the University of Cambridge
for 16 years. They found that almost half of the participants remained working as a teacher
and almost all regarded the opportunity to work with young people and to use their subject
knowledge as the pleasure of the job. In this sense, the opportunity to continue working
within the subject area can bring the enjoyment of teaching and job satisfaction. Nevertheless,
it is noteworthy that interest in one subject may not signal the intention to or passion for
teaching that subject. This is particularly the case for STEM subjects (Science, Technology,
Engineer, Maths). As discussed in the Introduction chapter, Scotland is now experiencing
difficulties in recruiting STEM teachers. Many STEM graduates were less likely to choose
teaching as a preferred career but a fallback career option; teaching is more likely to be
perceived as simply working with children and receiving low financial reward and social
status (Scottish Government, 2016). In this case, an interest in one’s degree subject may not
necessarily an important factor influencing the decision to become a teacher.
2.4.3 Enjoying the activity of teaching

Considering that organising and conducting the teaching activity is the main characteristics of the teaching job, it is not surprising that the enjoyment of classroom teaching has been identified as one of the major reasons for choosing to teach (Younger et al., 2004; Watt and Richardson, 2008; Kyriacou, Hultgren and Stephens, 1999; Hammond, 2002; Roness and Smith, 2010; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013). Further, the actual experience of classroom teaching play an important part in shaping one’s perceptions and feelings about teaching activity as an attractive job. For example, Kyriacou, Hultgren and Stephens (1999) found that many student teachers in England shifted their view and attitude towards classroom teaching activities as an attraction from very positive at the beginning of the course to less positive after five weeks’ practical experience in school. They argued that ‘these students were spending two days a week in school and were beginning to get a more realistic view of classroom teaching and this may have toned down their expectation of enjoying classroom teaching’ (p. 379). Likewise, Roness and Smith’s study (2010) of student teachers in Norway reveal that the practical teaching experience is the most highly valued aspect of the teacher education course because the practicum provides the opportunity to teach the subject to real pupils and face the reality of teaching. Hobson et al.’s study (2008) observes that during ITP (initial teacher preparation), student teachers may have positive, negative and mixed feelings when reflecting their experience of school placement; their readjusting preconceptions about being a teacher and concerns with the development of a sense of being a teacher based on their school-based experience are the common features of their ITP experience. These findings above provide indications that whether student teachers’ practical teaching experience is positive or negative, their having experience classroom teaching might help them to refine their understanding of the teaching-learning process and make them more practical, more realistic and less idealistic about the image of a teaching profession.

In addition, some studies suggest that one’s experiences of teaching or teaching-alike activities before undertaking teacher training is important in directing the decision to pursue a teaching career (Sinclair, 2008; O’Sullivan et al., 2009; Lovett, 2007). As found in O’Sullivan et al.’s study (2009), many student teachers had teaching-like experiences (e.g. working with children in summer camps, coaching junior athletes) before embarking on teacher education courses, and they felt enjoyment and a sense of fulfilment from these experiences. O’Sullivan and colleagues further argued, having enjoyed the teaching activity might contribute to an expectation or a desire to maintain such enjoyment in teaching, which
convinced and attracted teacher trainees to choose teaching in the first place. In this respect, it may well be that these positive feelings are the key influences on the decision to choose a career in teaching physical education. Furthermore, Hammond (2002) notes that having positive experiences of working with young people before undertaking teacher training courses might give students the confidence to prepare to enter the teaching profession. In this connection, previous teaching-related experiences appear to play an important part in shaping students’ perceptions and image of the teaching profession as well as helping them understand or confirm if teaching is a ‘right’ career for them.

2.4.4 Making a social contribution

A desire to make a worthwhile social contribution and the belief that teaching would be a socially valued occupation were identified as important in influencing the decision to choose a teaching career (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Akar, 2012; Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Young, 1995; Watt and Richardson, 2008). For example, Kyriacou and Coulthard’s study (2000) found that students who seriously considered teaching stressed the importance of ‘a job where I will contribute to society’, ‘a job where I can care for others’, and ‘a job which gives me responsibility’ in their career decision-making, and they considered these factors as being well met by teaching (p. 122). In this regard, those who choose a career in teaching are those who are likely to have a sense of responsibility and value the importance of making a social contribution and expect to provide a service to society through teaching.

The teaching profession has long been connected with the ‘service’ theme; and regarded as ‘performing a special mission in our society’ (Lortie, 2002, p. 28). Lortie argues that the service appeal of teaching is more likely to attract those who approve of the education system, though there might be minority who go into teaching for changing it. While it can be argued that teachers are doing a socially meaningful and important job in the sense that teachers help and influence next generation and they play a useful role in society (Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1999; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Bergmark et al., 2018). These positive perspectives and social image of teaching should make teaching an honoured and sacred occupation with high respect and esteem. For example, as Richardson and Watt (2016) note, teachers in countries such as Finland, Taiwan and Norway enjoy a high occupational prestige and community respect. Nonetheless, this is not necessarily the case in countries such as the United States, Australia and the United Kingdom, for example, given the opposite prevailing
aphorism by George Bernard Shaw *He who can, does. He who cannot, teaches* (Phrase Dictionary, 2018). This perspective implies that teaching is chosen by individuals who fail to be qualified to enter a better career. It is important to note that such negative view remains in circulation and has the potential to have undermined the prestige of teaching and made a teaching career less attractive (Kyriacou *et al*., 2003; Yong, 1994; Richardson and Watt, 2016).

2.4.5 Extrinsic reasons for choosing a teaching career

This section considers extrinsic factors in the form of financial rewards, status, job security, and holiday entitlement as influential in the decision to choose a teaching career. As discussed earlier in Section 2.4, although student teachers may place a greater emphasis on intrinsic and altruistic reasons for becoming a teacher, the role of extrinsic factors cannot be overlooked in considering the choice of teaching. Extrinsic reasons with respect to job security, good starting salary and pension, long holidays, and teachers’ short working hours that allow compatibility with their family life are often pointed out as attractions of the teaching profession (Watt and Richardson, 2007; Anthony and Ord, 2008; Mtika and Gates, 2011; Yong, 1995; Bastick, 2000). Lortie (2002) notes that teachers may hesitate to highlight extrinsic rewards of teaching, especially in terms of material rewards overtly as attractions or influence in the choice of a teaching career. Lortie further argues, this orientation could be attributed to the fact that teachers had received inadequate salary and low social status but also the pressure, coming from a common preconception that teachers are dedicated to teaching and not supposed to view pecuniary rewards, prestige and security as primary attractions of teaching. This tacit perception may underplay the role of extrinsic factors in the decision to choose teaching as a career, and as a consequence, extrinsic factors may influence the choice of teaching more than individuals’ responses show. As discussed above, although extrinsic rewards may be voiced less frequently as dominant reasons for teaching, this does not necessarily imply that they are unimportant in the choice of a teaching career.

Further, pragmatic elements relating to salary, status, working conditions are also associated with levels of commitment to teaching. Herzberg (1959) labelled these extrinsic factors to the job as ‘hygiene factors’ and suggested that poor hygiene factors might give rise to job dissatisfaction. Likewise, evidence from extant empirical studies indicate that a lack of: favourable working conditions, a reasonable workload, a good salary, and social recognition might generate negative emotions about teaching and cause dissatisfaction with the job
(Heafford and Jennison 1998; Johnson and Birkeland, 2003; Lynch et al., 2016). In addition, low extrinsic rewards of teaching may lead to many people, for example, especially those in STEM subjects as discussed previously in Section 2.4.2 or those intelligent and academically able graduates, to never consider a teaching profession or choose teaching as only a last resort (Richardson and Watt 2016; Yong, 1994). For example, in a US research report drawing on a relatively large sample of 802 university graduates, their decision to not choose teaching as a career are concerned with ‘personal safety (89%), low pay (78%), limited career growth opportunities (69%), and being scapegoats for the problems facing education (76%)’ (Farkas, Johnson and Foleno, 2000, pp. 15-16). In this regard, these graduates who are unwilling to pursue a teaching career may well hold negative perspectives on the teaching profession, and they may have high expectations of a good salary and career prospects as career outcomes.

In relation to teachers’ financial rewards, although they are not commonly cited as the primary reason for becoming a teacher, it can be argued that no one would want to choose or commit to a career on a completely voluntary basis with low monetary rewards (Hammond, 2002). According to a recent report concerning the relationship between teacher salaries and educational outcomes by Dolton and Gutierrez (2011), there was a statistical correlation between higher relative teachers’ salary and better pupil performance across OECD countries. Although the authors suggest those countries do not necessarily have to get teachers higher paid to secure and improve pupil performance, it is important that ‘governments and educational administrators need to know that there is “no free lunch” here’ (p. 22). Dolton and Gutierrez thus further suggest increasing teacher’s pay might help schools to recruit and retain highly qualified teachers in order to offer high-quality education.

It may not be surprising that individuals would take the potential earning into account in deciding a career choice. On the other hand, it is worth noting that financial incentive is not necessarily considered as the key that drive potential teachers to join the teaching profession in the first place (See, 2004; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Yüce et al., 2013). For example, in light of an early study conducted in the UK by Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) concerning graduate’s choice, 92% undergraduate students regarded ‘high earnings over the length of career’ and 90% rated ‘good starting salary’ as important (p. 121). A majority of the participants indicated ‘higher top salaries for teachers and head teachers’ (65%) and ‘a higher starting salary’ (64%) would definitely encourage undergraduate students to teach (p. 125). Interestingly, however, when comparing the ‘anti-teaching’ group (i.e. who never considered teaching) with the ‘pro-teaching group’ (i.e. who have always seriously
considered teaching), Kyriacou and Coulthard found students in the ‘anti-teaching’ group attached relatively greater weight to ‘good promotion prospects’ and ‘high-earnings over length of career’. Whereas students in the pro-teaching group placed relatively greater value on a ‘job where I will contribute to society’ and ‘a job where I can care for others’ (p. 122).

As such, more recent research conducted in the UK, Tanzania, Australia share the similar results suggesting that those who shows high commitment to teaching choose teaching for intrinsic and altruistic reasons. Whereas those who show low commitment or express uncertainty or no interest in the choice of teaching tend to emphasis on extrinsic elements (e.g. work condition, salary, status) and perceive teaching as low in salary and status (Worth, Bamford, and Durbin, 2015; Moses et al. 2017; Sinclair, 2008). Considering these findings above, on one hand, improving teachers’ salary may make teaching as a more attractive career choice for students; on the other hand, people who are genuinely interested in teaching may be more attracted to the altruistic or intrinsic value of teaching than the level of income teachers earn.

Overall, weighing the role of extrinsic factors, especially in terms of salary in the decision to choose a teaching career is complex, given that extrinsic rewards are potentially in tension with the professional values of altruism in the teaching profession. It is important to recognise that pragmatic factors (e.g. salary, status, job security, employment opportunities, promotion prospects) can be important considerations in career decision-making, even though in many cases, they are not necessarily the dominant reasons for choosing a career in teaching. Therefore, we need to be aware of extrinsic factors as a potential influence on teaching and be cautious when interpreting and commenting on how one’s decision to teach is shaped by extrinsic factors, in conjunction with, as discussed previously in Section 2.3 and 2.4, the influence of socioeconomic and cultural background.

This section has discussed the common intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic reasons for choosing a teaching career choice. In more recent studies, a number of researchers have sought to explain teaching as a career choice by gaining further insight into different pathways to reach the decision about teaching and by taking account of the different types of teaching career entrants. What follows will look at individuals’ different routes into teaching and what makes them come into a career in teaching.
2.5 Different routes into teaching

Over the recent decades, there appears to be an increasing interest in investigating the motivation to teach based on different types of entrants to teaching or potential pathways into teaching, as depicted by Lovett (2007), as ‘direct (first career)’ and as ‘indirect routes (career changers)’ (p. 32). The following two sections will consider these studies that address why people choose teaching as their first career choice and what attracts career changers to enter the teaching profession after previously pursuing another career.

2.5.1 Research on choosing teaching as a first career choice

Gore et al. (2015) conducted a review of the literature with reference to the motivation for choosing teaching as a first career choice and found there have been a relatively small number of studies with a specific focus on those who choose teaching as a first career and their motivation to teach. In general, the main reasons given by those who chose teaching as their first career choice are related to intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivation; and, the influence of others (Lai et al., 2005; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Lovett, 2007; Yüce et al., 2013; Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Cross and Ndofirepi, 2015).

Unsurprisingly, the general patterns of motivation to teach – intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivation are identified within research as key influences on the decision to choose teaching as a first career. Intrinsic and altruistic motivations include: personal fulfilment and satisfaction (Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Yüce et al., 2013); a love for children (Lai et al., 2005; Lovett, 2007); a desire to work with children and make a difference to their lives (Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Lai et al., 2005; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Yüce et al., 2013); a desire to continue work within a subject area (Lai et al., 2005; Manuel and Hughes, 2006); and, making a contribution to the community (Cross and Ndofirepi, 2015). Extrinsic motivations were also cited in the literature as important in choosing teaching as a first career, with regard to financial rewards, job security (Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Yüce et al., 2013), employment opportunities (Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Lai et al., 2005), working conditions, and holidays (Lovett, 2007; Lai et al., 2005).

Since the sources of intrinsic, extrinsic, altruistic motivation as influential in the choice of teaching have already been discussed in details in the whole Section 2.4, the following will focus on discussing the influence of others including family, friends or inspirational role models as important in the decision to become a teacher.
In the light of a study of first-career entrants conducted in New Zealand by Lovett (2007), first-career teachers from a teaching family where they had one or both parents, siblings or close relatives who were teachers, and indicated that a family member played an important role in influencing their decision to choose teaching as an initial career choice. Lovett found that being around teachers gave respondents the opportunity to gain first-hand information about the teaching profession and teachers’ life, and how this might develop their interest in pursuing a teaching career. For these people from a teaching family, therefore, teaching is likely to be in some respects a pre-determined career path for them. In addition to family members, the influence of inspirational teachers or mentors, friends, and peers were identified as important in shaping the decision to choose teaching as a first career choice (Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Cross and Ndofirepi, 2015; Lai et al., 2005). These people are likely to play a positive role in encouraging student teachers to choose teaching and enhancing their confidence by recognising their ability or personal suitability for teaching and suggesting they would be good teachers (Lovett, 2007; Flores and Niklasson 2014). As discussed in O’Sullivan et al.’s study (2009) exploring the views of Physical Education teacher undergraduates, family members, coaches, and teachers were influential in considering a career in teaching in three ways:

‘developing their interest in physical activity and/or teaching, developing their sense of identity as a potential teacher, or inspiring them as role models that teaching was something they would enjoy and could do well if they chose this career pathway’ (p. 183).

In contrast, these ‘other people’ may also exhibit negative attitudes and even strong opposition to teaching as a career choice. As noted in Lai et al.’s (2005) study exploring teaching as a career choice in Hong Kong, the influence of others might serve as a deterrent; and, respondents were dissuaded from choosing teaching as a first career. Similarly, in Younger et al.’s (2004) study, 80% of the PGCE students in England had received negative and discouraging remarks on their decision to pursue a teaching career from friends, family and the profession itself while students themselves expressed a sense of moral commitment to teaching and seeing teaching as a valuable and meaningful job. Of particular note, in Cross and Ndofirepi’s (2015) study, the family exerted a crucial influence on a decision to enter the teaching profession, especially when one has family members who are teachers. Given the cultural traditions in some parts of Africa, which regard girls and women as homemakers; and, not encouraged to pursue higher education, the family is a ‘critical space where the ideas about teaching as career path obtained from the experiences in schools, the community/village and the media (e.g. radio and TV) are confronted and negotiated into
career choices’ (ibid, p. 102). Taken together, the influence of others in people’s decision to teach reflects the potential differences between cultures.

In addition, it is worth noting that there were minority of first career entrants in Lovett’s study (2007) who regarded teaching as a stepping-stone to another career. Cross and Ndofirepi (2015) note that many African teachers, for example, chose teaching after failing to enter more lucrative careers such as IT, engineering, law or business. Similarly, in Flores and Niklasson’s study (2014), a small number of students in Portugal and Sweden chose teaching because they were not qualified for their most preferred occupation. In this connection, student teachers who choose teaching as their first career path are not necessarily positively motivated to pursue a teaching degree or see teaching as a preferred career choice.

2.5.2 Research on changing career to teaching

In the recent decades, there has been growing body of research exploring the characteristics of the cohort who change their career paths and decide to enter the teaching profession, and what led to their decision to become a teacher. Evidence from extant research around the world including the UK suggested that many teachers (or prospective teachers) are mature ‘career changer entrants’ who have already had other working histories before deciding to come into teaching (Lovett, 2007; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Wilkins, 2017; Richardson and Watt, 2005; Williams, 2013). Peske et al. (2001) argue that the nature of work has changed rapidly; many people are now unlikely to lock themselves to one single career or to show loyalty to a single organisation as obsolete, and they tend to seek new challenges and experience various working trajectories. Likewise, Lovett notes that teaching is not a first career choice for most school teachers, and there are an increasing number of career changers who do not necessarily regard teaching as a long-term commitment but as one of many career choices. Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant (2003, pp. 98-100) outline the profiles of six types of career changers in the UK as follow:

1. The parent – mostly women who are attracted to teaching for fitting with family commitments
2. The successful careerist – mostly professionals who have done well in industry or business
3. The freelancer – those who had followed a single career but were often employed on short-term contracts
4. The late starter – those who entered straight into the job market with few or no qualification
5. The serial careerist – those who had moved frequently from career to career, having several short, successful and often well-paid careers
6. The young career changer – those who moved from temporary jobs and looking for a more suitable career

Many studies with specific reference to career changers explored what make them leave their previous career and what attract them to teaching, as described by Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant (2003, p. 100) as ‘pull and push’ factors. Although these studies were conducted in different countries (e.g. UK, Australia, New Zealand) and adopted different research methods, they shared similar motivations for a career change to teaching. Being dissatisfied with one’s previous career was identified as a common ‘push’ to consider a shift towards a teaching career (Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Anthony and Ord, 2008; Richardson and Watt, 2005); or in some cases, changing living locations and being difficult to progress further in previous work or losing one’s job as additional ‘push’ factors (Anthony and Ord, 2008).

The aspects that result in dissatisfaction with previous work are likely to be personal and diverse. In Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant’s study (2003) of career changers who pursue secondary teaching in the UK, feelings of boredom, isolation or alienation ‘push’ respondents towards a career change and subsequent choice of teaching. Anthony and Ord (2008) found that the source of job dissatisfaction reported by change-of-career teachers in New Zealand, for example, included ‘lack of fulfilment, undesirable work conditions, being apart from family, not fitting in the corporate world, disillusionment and lack of challenge or scope for progression’ (p. 365). By comparison, teaching, as a career was perceived by participants to provide a more desirable, challenging and sociable environment, and they, therefore, regarded teaching as a more career fit than their former job. These ‘push’ factors, as Anthony and Ord (2008, p. 365) note, provide the ‘activation energy’ towards seriously considering a teaching career.

Moreover, the factors that influence career change and an accompanying decision to enter the teaching profession are associated with family concerns and quality of life issues (Anthony and Ord, 2008; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Richardson and Watt, 2005; Serow and Forrest, 1994; Raggl and Troman, 2008; Laming and Horne, 2013). For example, in Richardson and Watt’s (2005) study, some female pre-service teachers who had
a partner or children expressed the intention to seek a career which they considered that teaching was a suitable career choice to accommodate their family duties, especially with respect to teaching with flexible working schedule and school holidays allowing for childcare commitments. In this sense, family circumstances and commitments as important considerations for these career changers may well be the case for females who are parents. As Raggl and Troman (2008) argue, teaching gives the opportunity to prioritise one’s family while pursuing a career; or, to enjoy both family and work without necessarily having a fixed priority.

Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant (2003) note that the decision to move into teaching later is not solely about meeting new demands (e.g. the need for greater financial security for family responsibilities); but, also about changing perspectives and attitudes toward life. This may particularly be the case for the cohorts who already have children. After becoming parents, they have more opportunities to connect with children and gain knowledge about taking care of children; and, this may make them more interested in working with children and potentially more confident about their ability, which may activate and prompt their decision to undertake a teaching career (Williams, 2013; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Anthony and Ord, 2008). However, it is worth noting that family-related factors need to be considered in the context of one’s previous working conditions and current family circumstances. If one’s previous work already satisfies the quest for good quality of family life, he/she will not necessarily want a career change to teaching.

A desire to give back to society and make a difference in young people’s lives, and an opportunity to use specialist subject knowledge, salary and career prospects, (Anthony and Ord, 2008; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Williams and Forgasz, 2009; Richardson and Watt, 2005; Laming and Horne, 2013); and, positive teaching and school experiences (Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003) are all identified as important factors influencing a decision to teach. Some studies (e.g. Lovett, 2007; Laming and Horne, 2013) especially, highlight that many career changers believe themselves to have relevant skills and talents, value the importance of education; and, look forward to influencing the next generation. This is despite being aware that they left a more ‘promising’ career in terms of salary and teaching may result in a lower salary compared to their former job. Such sense of optimism and confidence in becoming teachers may in part derive from the opportunities of working with youth or engaging in teaching-like activities. For example, in Lovett’s study (2007), 21 of 25 career changers have already had experience(s) working with young people and they found theses experience were enjoyable; these positive experiences lay the
foundation and build respondents’ confidence to choose a teaching career path. Likewise, as found in Anthony and Ord’s research (2008), nearly half of the respondents mentioned the importance of their prior teaching-related or teaching-like experiences (e.g. teaching assistant, tutoring, personnel management training) in helping them realise that they have had the potential to become a teacher and perceived themselves as being suitable for teaching. In this connection, it is likely that these positive feelings and perceptions about teaching and themselves encourage career changers to pursue teacher education and seek a career in teaching.

It is interesting to note, however, that, in some cases, the decision to change to teaching may not relate to or build on positive experiences of working with children. Interestingly, some career changers view teaching as ‘a sense of calling’ and they just take a ‘longer path’ to enter the teaching profession. For example, in Laming and Horne (2013) study, some career changers were persuaded to study other subject or to pursue a more well-paid or high status career rather than teaching; and, they restrained the idea of becoming teachers until their feelings and perceptions that the previous occupation was unfulfilled and unsatisfactory, which informed them to reconsider their career plans and promote the decision to fulfil a long-held desire to teach. These career changer teachers are described by Crow, Levine and Nager (1990) as the ‘homecomers’ who undertake a teaching career that they have always wanted and hoped to enter. For some career changes, entering a teacher education programme resembles a psychological homecoming. Although these students held jobs in other occupations, they consider them ‘way stations’ along the road to doing what they always wanted to do (ibid, p. 204).

Overall, given those ‘push and pull’ factors discussed above, what stimulates career changers toward considering teaching as a career involve a wide variety of factors. These influential factors are largely related to career changers’ intrinsic value, beliefs, and expectations, in combination with pragmatics and external factors with respect to salary, security, and family (or social) persuasion. Although career changers may be motivated differently in entering teaching, they seem to believe that teaching could provide a more satisfying career compared to their previous occupation. The appeal of teaching may thus link with career changers’ previous working history and their personal life situations, which made the understanding of the motivation for undertaking a new pathway of teaching become more complicated. As Anthony and Ord (2008) note, ‘the reasoning for turning to teaching as a career was multifaceted, complex, at times emotionally charged, and contradictory’ (p. 364).
This chapter has so far discussed the traditional three-category intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivation for choosing to teach as well as gave particular attention to reasons for choosing teaching as an initial or as a subsequent career choice. In the next section, the review of literature will draw on the widely-used FIT-Choice model, which is also employed as the theoretical framework for this study, to conceptualise the motivation for pursuing a teaching career.

2.6 Theoretical framework: Factors influencing teaching (FIT) as a career choice: FIT-Choice model

This section will provide a discussion of applying the FIT-Choice model to understanding the motivation for choosing teaching as a career. Prior to presenting a discussion of the FIT-Choice model in details, this section will first explain why the FIT-Choice model is chosen as the theoretical foundation to guide the investigation into the motivation for choosing a teaching career.

2.6.1 Background and rationale for choosing the FIT-Choice model

The FIT-Choice framework sheds light on why individuals choose teaching as a career choice, their perceptions about the demands and rewards of a teaching profession as well as the level of career satisfaction and commitment (Richardson and Watt, 2006). The FIT-Choice programme of research (http://www.fitchoice.org) set out in 2001, was prompted by two inquiries: a) what motivates people to pursue a teaching career? and, b) what makes people leave a more demanding, prestigious and highly paid career to enter the teaching profession? These questions are consistent with the issues of concern for this study, which drew my attention to use of the FIT-Choice model as a theoretical underpinning. As discussed previously in Section 2.3, the other important reasons behind this selection are it is conceptually robust and has been tested empirically with good construct validity and reliability across various sociocultural contexts.

Firstly, the FIT-Choice model might provide a holistic and integrative way to understand why teaching is chosen as a career choice in the area of teacher motivation and career choice. Although a large number of the studies suggest that motivations or reasons for choosing a teaching career fall into three main categories: intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic (Bastick, 2000; De Cooman, et al., 2007; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Moran et al., 2001; Sinclair,
Watt and Richardson (2007, 2012) argued that this traditional three-category reason was broad, resulting in unprecise definitions and overlapping categorisations; moreover, these categorisations did not include the influences of significant people (e.g. previous teachers or mentors, friends, family members) and prior teaching and learning experiences which has been identified as important in the choice of teaching (e.g. Richardson and Watt, 2006; Watt and Richardson, 2007; O’Sullivan et al., 2009; Manuel and Hughes, 2006). The intrinsic, altruistic, extrinsic typology is thus unlikely to provide a consistent conceptual framework to understand the motivation for those who choose a teaching career. Furthermore, different questionnaires and scales used in related studies often lead to difficulties in comparing and synthesising the findings of one study with another. The design of the FIT-Choice model was in response to the absence of a comprehensive and coherent conceptualising framework to address the issues of why teaching is chosen as a career choice (Richardson and Watt, 2014; Watt and Richardson, 2007).

According to Richardson and Watt (2016), existing teacher education literature on reasons for choosing a teaching career did not systematically link with the literature concerning motivations and occupational choice. Watt and Richardson further argue,

‘it appeared that these two literatures had developed in parallel rather than in dialogue with one another. It seemed to us that a marriage between these literatures might provide the field of teacher motivation research with comprehensive and coherent motivational theories to guide systematic investigations into why people choose teaching as a career’ (p. 284).

The FIT-Choice framework maps recurring themes such as altruistic-type motivations that have been long emphasised in the teacher education literature (Lortie, 2002; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Serow and Forrest, 1994; Yüce et al., 2013); and, personal utility value and intrinsic motivations, and ability-related beliefs that have received considerable attention in the career choice literature (e.g. Lent, Lopez and Bieschke, 1993; Eccles, 2005, 2009; Watt, 2006). In addition to capturing various fundamental motives identified in the existing literature, as discussed earlier in Section 2.3, the FIT-Choice model has been empirically validated across various contexts including Australia (Watt and Richardson, 2007), Turkey (Eren and Tezel, 2010; Kılınç, Watt, and Richardson, 2012), Norway (Watt et al., 2012), the United States (Lin et al., 2012), Germany (Watt et al., 2012), China (Lin et al., 2012), Netherlands (Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012), Croatia (Jugović et al., 2012), Ireland (Hennessy and Lynch, 2017) with sound evidence of reliability and construct validity. This
helps to address the issue that many researchers use/create different survey instruments with little or no reporting of construct validity or reliability with an over-reliance on frequency counts. Overall, the FIT-Choice project has addressed the theoretical and methodological limitations of previous research exploring pre-service teachers’ motivation for becoming a teacher. As Watt and Richardson (2007, 2012) argue, the FIT-Choice framework can provide an integrative and reliable platform to assist researchers who seek to investigate why pre-service teachers decide to pursue a teaching career. Given this, this study thus employs the FIT-Choice framework to approach the research questions pertaining to student teachers’ motivation for choosing a career in teaching.

2.6.2 Theoretical underpinnings of the FIT-Choice model: expectancy-value theory

The FIT-Choice framework is underpinned by expectancy-value motivational theory (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles, 2005). Expectancy-value theorists believe that individuals’ belief in their ability and expectancy of success and the value they attach to the task has a strong impact on educational, occupational, and other achievement-related choices (Eccles, 2005, 2009; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). Expectancy-value theory has been considered as an important frameworks for achievement motivation, starting with Atkinson (1957), being further developed by Battle (1965), Crandall et al. (1962), and more recently expanded by Feather (1988, 1992) and Eccles et al. (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles and Wigfield, 1995; Eccles, 2005). Although it was theoretically and empirically developed to examine student’s decisions to engage with mathematics in secondary school (Eccles et al., 1983); it has now been widely applied to other academic disciplines, such as English, Languages and Arts (Jacobs et al., 2002; Watt, 2004), and most importantly for the purpose of this study, to certain types of career choice (Watt, 2006).

Researchers explain expectancies for success as beliefs about how one will perform on achieving the impending tasks, conceptually distinguished from ability beliefs, which are the perceptions of one’s current competence at a given activity. Eccles and Wigfield (Eccles and Wigfield, 1995; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000) were unable to distinguish empirically between the ability and expectancies constructs in factor analytic work, they have combined the two in their analyses. Factors that constitute value components include intrinsic value (enjoyment or interest in the task), utility value (whether the task is regarded as useful), attainment value (whether it is important for reaching one’s goal), and cost value (the effort
and time required or what the individual must sacrifice financially or psychologically for completing a task. Eccles and Wigfield (1995) suggest three sets of constructs within expectancy-value theory: (a) expectancy/ability beliefs, (b) subjective task value (i.e. attainment, intrinsic, and utility values), and (c) perceived task difficulty (i.e. effort required and task difficulty).

Dörnyei (2013) has argued that the motivation to teach ‘is best understood in the light of expectancy-value theory, goal-setting theory and self-determination theory’ (p. 157). To explore teacher motivation, those theories can provide the foundation to explore the underlying nature of motivational characteristics. Nonetheless, different motivational theories focus on exploring different dimensions of motivations. Achievement goal theory focuses on individuals’ purposes or reasons for pursuing an achievement task and the standards individuals construct to evaluate their competence and performance on the task and emphasises contextual motivational processes and individual differences (Pintrich, 2000). For example, within achievement goal perspective, teacher motivation is likely concerned with how teachers define success in teaching and establish their own goals they aspire to attain for teaching. In comparison, self-determination theory gives little attention to the context variations and individual differences, but is primarily based on individuals’ needs for autonomy (i.e. need to act in accordance with one’s value, beliefs, and interest) competence, and relatedness (e.g. need to feel being accepted and supported by others) (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Achievement goal theory and self-determination theory share an emphasis that motivation is associated with cognition, emotion, and actions during task engagement whereas expectancy-value theory underlies the relationship between motivation and decisions such as choice of task, level of effort and persistence.

In addition, Richardson and Watt (2016) note, achievement goal theory and self-determination theory are often employed in studies exploring the motivation of in-service teachers who aim to practice or promote qualified teachers’ motivation for effective teaching, rather than investigating student teachers’ decision as to why they decided to pursue a career in teaching. Richardson and Watt (2014) argue that achievement goal theory and self-determination theory have demonstrated ‘considerable explanatory power in relation to the life/career stage of these professionals who are practicing teachers rather than those choosing and entering into the career’ (p. 15). Since the purpose of this study is to understand the factors influencing pre-service teachers’ decision to become a teacher, it is arguably appropriate to use expectancy-value framework as a theoretical foundation to conceptualise underlying motivations for entering the profession. Watt and Richardson (2007) have
applied the expectancy-value theory successfully to examine pre-service teachers’ motivations for pursuing a teaching career, and their FIT-Choice model was grounded in expectancy-value theory. The next section will proceed with discussing constructs that were developed within the FIT-Choice model.

2.6.3 The Structure of the FIT-Choice model

Figure 1 shows the constructs of the FIT-Choice theoretical framework, which has now been empirically validated. The FIT-Choice model encompasses ‘socialisation influences’, including ‘prior teaching and learning experiences, social influences and social discussion’, followed by more proximal influences of ‘tasks perceptions (task demand and task return)’; ‘self-perceptions’; ‘values (intrinsic values, personal utility value, social utility value)’; and, ‘fallback career’ (Richardson and Watt 2006, p. 32; Watt and Richardson, 2007, p. 176). This theoretical model, as discussed earlier in the Section 2.6.1, is built upon the interactions between existing teacher education literature and the literature on occupational choice. The following sections will offer more insight into those constructs and how they connect both fields of the study.

Figure 1: FIT-Choice empirically validated theoretical model (Watt & Richardson, 2012, p. 187)
The constructs of prior teaching and learning experiences and social influences align with teacher education literature where have emphasised the importance of positive influences of previous teaching and school experience (Bramald, Hardman and Leat, 1995; Lortie, 2002; Richardson and Watt, 2006; Watt and Richardson, 2007; Younger et al., 2004; Priyadharsini and Robinson-Pant, 2003), and the influences and encouragement of other people such as inspiring teachers, family members, friends and colleagues (O’Sullivan et al., 2009; Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Younger et al., 2004; Cross and Ndofirepi, 2015; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Mangaoil et al., 2017). Moving to one of the primary scales – Task Perception which contains task demand (expertise and difficulty) and task return (social status, teacher morale and salary), is to assess the individual’s perceptions and expectations of teaching and to what extent these judgments motivate or demotivate people to become a teacher. It is expected that the perceptions of teaching as a highly demanding career, requiring high levels of professional knowledge, a huge workload, hard work, and high emotional demand, may undermine people’s intention to pursue a teaching career, although this may be moderated by perceived high task return level (i.e. high social status, teacher morale and good salary).

The measured scales of Self Perceptions (i.e. perceived teaching ability) and Intrinsic Value are the key focus of several conceptual models in the motivation literature including the expectancy-value model, and ability-related beliefs and have been broadly emphasised in the career choice literature although they may not receive considerable attention in the teacher education literature. Altruistic motivation, on the other hand, has been long highlighted in the teacher education literature, which is described as social utility value (shape future of children/adolescents, enhance social equity, make social contribution, and work with children/adolescents) in the FIT-Choice model. The remaining value construct of personal utility value resembles the extrinsic rewards/reasons that has been identified in previous research as important in the choice of teaching, as discussed previously in Section 2.4.5, with regard to job security, shorter working days and long school holiday for more family time, being useful for traveling and overseas employment (i.e. job transferability).

The last proximal influence of fallback career is developed as a negative component drawing on the claims in the teacher education literature (Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1999; Lovett, 2007) and from traditional public opinion (Richardson and Watt, 2016) concerning teaching where entrants may have failed to be qualified for their preferred career or be uncertain about what career they wanted. Taken together, Watt and Richardson (2007) suggest that all
components of the FIT-Choice model should work together to predict the career choice of teaching and professional engagement outcomes.

2.6.4 Understanding motivation to teach from the FIT-Choice model perspective

The empirical validation of the FIT-Choice model in the original Australian sample suggested there were multiple factors influencing the choice of a teaching career in varying degree (Watt and Richardson, 2007). For example, intrinsic value, and perceived teaching ability, aligning with core themes within the expectancy-value theory, were found to be rated highest by prospective teachers as influences in the choice of a teaching career. Additional highly endorsed motivations included social utility value (make social contribution, shape future of children/adolescents, work with children/adolescents enhance social equity) and positive prior teaching and learning experiences. Social influences, job security, job transferability and time for family were rated as moderately influential factors in the choice of a teaching career. Choosing teaching as a fallback career was rated lowest, contrary to the view or the stereotype that teaching is chosen by people who are unable to achieve their ideal or expected career and see teaching only as a backup plan (Yong, 1995; Mtika and Gates, 2011). In Australia, teacher candidates perceived teaching as a highly demanding career that required hard work and professional knowledge and skills. They also perceived teaching as a low return career with respect to social status, salary; and, reported experiences of relatively strong social dissuasion from pursuing a teaching career. Interestingly, despite this awareness of ‘high demand’ yet ‘low return’, they still gave high ratings for the satisfaction of teaching as a career choice.

As presented earlier in Section 2.6.1, the FIT-Choice scale was also applied in other diverse contexts, thereby providing extensive cross-cultural comparative analysis and generating reliable findings on prospective teachers’ motivation and perceptions about teaching as a career. For example, in light of a cross-cultural comparison among four countries (Australia, Germany, Norway and the United States) using the FIT-Choice scale (Watt et al., 2012), the top five highly influential factors were consistent, including intrinsic value, perceived teaching ability, the desire to work with children/adolescents, making a social contribution, and positive previous teaching and learning experiences. Watt et al. (2012) suggest that motivation for entering a teaching profession are likely to hold more similarities than differences across diverse contexts and samples. Watt et al. (ibid, p. 804) argue,
‘the fact that contextual country features did not produce greatly different patterns of motivations raises interesting questions such as whether there are “core” motivations shared by those who are attracted to a teaching career, or whether certain personality types are more likely to choose teaching’.

However, in the same year, in another cross-cultural comparison of FIT-Choice scale results from Turkey, China, the Netherlands, Croatia, Germany, Switzerland undertaken by Watt and Richardson (2012), the authors found that the differences in culture or value were likely to have an impact on motivation for choosing a teaching career. For example, in the Chinese and Turkish contexts, perceived ability and intrinsic value were not considered as the most important factors influencing choice. It could be argued that career choices may be less based on personal interests and abilities in a collectivist culture such as China and Turkey and/or in developing countries where there might be greater level of needs for job security and benefits (Lin et al., 2012; Kilinc, Watt and Richardson, 2012). Moreover, a low rating is given for social influences in each of the Australian, German, and the United States contexts, suggesting that the choice of teaching might be more the result of a personal decision than other people persuasion for the respondents in those countries. In Croatia, however, social influences of friends, family, and colleagues were highly important in the decision to teach. Jugovic et al. (2012) argue that social persuasion may well stem from the idea of teaching as a suitable career for women, given that females constituted the vast majority of that sample (more than 95%).

In addition, as to the perception of a teaching career, there seems a consensus that teaching is regarded as a highly demanding career. Nonetheless, divergent perceptions about teaching with respect to salary and social status also emerged across different samples. For instance, prospective teachers from Australia and the US perceived teaching as a career with low status and inadequate salary whereas the counterparts from Germany reported that a teacher is well respected and earns a decent salary. Watt and Richardson (2012) argue that the contextual factors in terms of local society, culture and economics may influence what attract individual to enter teaching as well as how they perceive teaching as a career choice. In other words, the differences in motivations and perceptions about teaching as a career are likely to be a reflection of differences between countries in their social, economic and cultural context, and the general image held of the teaching profession. It is important to recognise that different motivation patterns and perceptions of teaching may have an impact on the process for selecting teacher education candidates as well as student teachers’ subsequent professional engagement and development (Richardson and Watt, 2014).
Although the FIT-Choice model covers the general and fundamental motivation for the choice of teaching, it is important to be aware of other possible influencing factors, as presented previously in Section 2.3, the role of sociocultural context, the labour market, gender roles and demographic background in considering a career choice are not included in the FIT-Choice framework. Klassen et al. (2011) suggest that researchers examining student teachers’ motivations to teach are required to go beyond models of planned decision making and to be aware of how social, cultural features may impact on individual’s career choice. On the other hand, the impact of sociocultural factors on pre-service teachers’ motivations needs to be considered with caution due to methodological limitations and challenges, for example, the sample size can be opportune or small rather than representative (Heinz, 2015). Further, solely relying on the FIT-Choice model and survey tool may be difficult to gain an in-depth view on how each factor impact on the choice of teaching and on how additional factors outside the FIT-Choice model would shape one’s decision to teach. These issues or concerns are important as they helped inform the methodology and mixed methods research design of this study, i.e. integrating the questionnaire component with collecting follow-up qualitative data to gain a richer understanding and exploration of the motivation for choosing a teaching career in a Scottish context.

2.7 Reflection and summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature with reference to factors influencing teaching as a career choice. From the literature reviewed, I recognise that individual motivation to enter the teaching profession is complex and the extent to which the factors influence a decision to teach may vary from person to person and from context to context (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Sinclair, 2008). There appear to be generic motivation patterns for undertaking a teaching career, intrinsic motivation (e.g. passion, personal desire), altruistic motivation (e.g. wanting to help young people, improving society) and extrinsic motivation (e.g. work conditions, salary) (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Struyven et al., 2013). Watt and Richardson’s FIT-Choice model (2007) expands and complements these by incorporating other factors from the previous literature (e.g. perceived teaching ability, previous teaching and learning experience, the influences of previous teachers, family members, friends); and by considering the role of one’s perceptions, beliefs, and career satisfaction in influencing the decision to teach.
In relation to the perception about teaching, teaching in Scotland is generally perceived as a challenging and demanding profession, especially with respect to the workload (OECD, 2017). Scottish teachers often work far more than contract hours for duties such as preparation, assessment and administrative work (NASUWT, 2015). The perception that teachers experience high levels of workload in Scotland was also highlighted in Priestley, Shapira and Bu’s study (2018) suggesting that Scottish teachers (particularly secondary teachers) believe that their workload is significantly heavy. Further, the authors find that teachers’ morale level is generally low; and, teachers felt a lack of respect within the community. For example, 72 per cent of teachers (n = 1,395) believed that teaching as a profession was undervalued in society. Despite the feeling of being undervalued, the majority of teachers are proud of the work they do. Their job satisfaction, however, is not very high with only half of them feeling satisfied. Similarly, in Ravalier and Walsh’s study (2017), over 50% of Scottish teachers (n = 4,947) were dissatisfied with their job, and over 40% were looking to leave the profession in the next 18 months, although most of them thoroughly enjoyed teaching young people.

The perceptions that teachers experience high workload but low morale and job satisfaction, combined with perceived relatively low levels of salary and social status, as discussed previously in Section 1.1, are found to have a negative impact on the motivation of teachers to maintain the commitment to the profession (Spear, Gould and Lee, 2000; Richardson and Watt, 2016). In this sense, one’s perception about teaching and judgement about the career satisfaction level are likely intertwined with the decision to pursue a career in teaching. Mapping (future) teachers’ perceptions about the value and rewards of teaching is particularly useful in understanding teachers’ experiences, motivations, and aspirations of teaching but also in building the foundation for encouraging and retaining committed professionals. Although many studies have already shed light on why people choose a teaching career across various contexts, to date, studies on the reasons behind the decision to teach in the Scottish context are relatively scarce. The questions, for example, 1) whether, as widely suggested, the intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivations are the main factors that drive people to undertake a teaching career in Scotland; and, 2) how future teachers’ positive and negative perceptions about teaching influence the decision to teach are currently not well understood in the Scotland context. Hence, there is arguably a need for further research investigating the motivations and perceptions about teaching in the Scottish context. Considering the conceptual and empirical robustness of the FIT-Choice model, this study employs it as a theoretical framework to guide the inquiry into the motivation to teach. However, to date, the FIT-Choice scale has not been tested for its utility in the Scottish
context, though it has been empirically validated across various contexts with evidence of reliability and construct validity (Eren and Tezel, 2010; Watt et al., 2012). Furthermore, it was worth noting that there have been variations in the exact composition of the FIT-Choice scale both through the further development of the scale by Watt and Richardson but also in terms of national contexts and the refinement and in some cases the removal or substitution of some individual items and subscales of the FIT-Choice scale in different contexts (Watt et al., 2012). This also justifies the exploratory nature of data analysis method for understanding the motivation to teach in the Scottish context. Taken together, this study attempts to address these voids by offering insights into 1) whether the FIT-Choice scale is suitable for use within the Scottish context; and, 2) motivations and perceptions about a career choice of teaching from the perspective of Scottish pre-service teachers.

In addition, another potential gap or limitation was found during the review of literature in relation to most studies treating teacher candidates and entrants as one homogeneous group; and, the subgroup differences based on choosing teaching as an initial and subsequent career as well as comparison of motivations of these two groups had received little or no attention. The research is particularly needed in the context in which career changers constitute a large proportion of the teaching workforce and efforts have already been made to attract them to change their career path to teaching. As a case in point, in order to boost recruitment of teachers in STEM subjects (i.e. science, technology, engineering, maths), the Scottish government offered £20,000 bursaries to the professionals to encourage them to switch career to teaching in these subjects (BBC, 2017). In this respect, it is pertinent and helpful to find out what attract career changers to teaching and what perceptions and expectations they held towards the teaching profession, and how these motivate or deter them to choose teaching as a career. Taken together, this study aims to appreciate as well as address potential gaps to knowledge by seeking to understand the factors influencing one’s choice of teaching in Scotland – taking into account the career changers by undertaking a group comparison of career motivations with: a) those straight from school, and b) those seeking to make a career change into teaching. The next chapter will discuss and explore the approach and methods undertaken for this study.
Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

According to Crotty (1998), methodology refers to ‘the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes’ (p. 2). The term methodology used in this study refers to the overall approach to exploring and understanding the research questions (Creswell, 2014). This chapter concerns methodology, beginning with a discussion of the philosophical assumptions underpinning researcher’s view on the nature of reality, identifying the role of pragmatism beliefs. This is then followed by the considerations of research design and an explanation of conducting explanatory sequential mixed methods research. This chapter will then present the instruments selected, their rationale and construction, participant recruitment, and data collection procedures. Finally, the ethical considerations, the validity and reliability of data, and data analysis methods are outlined in this chapter.

3.2 Philosophical foundations

It has been argued that all research inquiries have a philosophical foundation, although the philosophical stance might often be hidden in a study (Slife and Williams, 1995). The philosophical orientation shapes the way of understanding and gaining knowledge which then informs the research process, and can be related to the ‘worldview’ or ‘paradigm’, and is also concerned with epistemology and ontology (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 39). Creswell (2003) argues, ‘whether we are aware of it or not, we always bring certain beliefs and philosophical assumptions to our research’ (p. 15). Researchers choose different methodological approaches to their studies, which reflect their worldview and philosophical assumptions.

The research with objective assumptions tends to adopt a positivist quantitative approach (Creswell, 2014). From the pure positivist perspective, being objective assumes that there is one external reality or one truth that is both fixed and directly measurable (Bryman, 2012). Following a positivist approach, the researcher tends to adopt a deductive approach and is concerned with presenting and testing hypotheses and providing statistical logical links between constructs (or variables) (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; Creswell, 2014). Concerning this research topic, some previous studies (e.g. Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000;
Watt and Richardson, 2007; Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Watt et al., 2012) have adopted a positivist stance to identify variables influencing motivations for the choice of teaching and quantify the factors influencing teaching as a career choice. However, understanding the subjective meaning behind the pursuit of teaching as a career choice and the personal narrative and the process that led to a decision to teach may not be captured in purely quantitative studies. Maclure (1993) argues that the notion of career could be understood by ‘a specific genre of life stories that we tell to make sense of what we have done, are doing and might do in our jobs’ (p. 319). Furthermore, as discussed in Chapter Two, the relative importance of factors influencing a career in teaching are likely to differ from individual to individual and context to context (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Sinclair, 2008). In this respect, a study examining factors influencing a career choice may well be especially related to who participates in the study and how they choose to interpret those factors. If the research takes a purist quantitative approach, the concerns regarding participants’ consciousness about teaching as a career choice, and how those subjective feelings flow from their personal experiences, and the importance of the context in which their career decision may be underplayed. Therefore, following a positivist paradigm is unlikely to be sufficient to understand the detailed meaning participants attach to the teaching profession and how they conceptualise the motives of a preference for a teaching career rather than other career options.

The potential limitations discussed above led to consideration of combining a quantitative and a qualitative approach within a constructivist epistemology. Constructivists are largely concerned with individual’s experiences and interpretations and argue that ‘there is no meaning without a mind and meaning is not discovered, but constructed’ (Crotty, 1998, p. 9). Within this paradigm, it is assumed that different people may construct meaning in different ways, even when confronted with the same phenomenon. Those multiple interpretations, as constructivists note, are largely shaped by individuals’ experience and the world they live in. The constructivists, therefore, tend to place value on the specific context where people live and work as they make sense of the social and cultural background of the participants. Given that the lived experience of my participants may vary, this research gathers their multiple perspectives in relation to how they perceive themselves as a teacher as well as how they perceive teaching as a career choice.

Along these lines, the reasons for choosing a teaching career might be discovering the ‘truth’ out there that can be observed or quantified, i.e. quantitative, but also particularly related to how participants construct their choice of pursuing a teaching career in a subjective manner,
i.e. qualitative. With respect to philosophical stance, it might then be more appropriate to position the epistemological viewpoint between the pure positivism (quantitative research) and constructivism (qualitative research). In this regard, it would be appropriate to respect the wisdom of both standpoints while also seeking a workable balanced solution to approach my research topic. The worldview of pragmatism is designed to fit well this purpose as it attempts to open the door to different assumptions, perspectives and positions to derive knowledge (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007). Pragmatism stands against the analytic, static, and segmented thought of absolute dualism (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Pragmatists believe, ‘truth is what works at the time. It is not based in a duality between reality independent of the mind or within the mind’ (Creswell, 2014, p. 11). As such, in the field of psychology, pragmatists are more concerned with what the mind could do in a particular situation than with the inherent structure of the mind. Rorty (1991, p. 22) suggests that ‘pragmatism requires neither a metaphysics ontology or an epistemology’. In essence, the value of a perspective lies in its appropriateness in terms of whether it is progressive (Barab and Squire, 2004). In this sense, as a pragmatic researcher, it seems unnecessary to hold one single philosophical perspective all the time and adopt one approach (either quantitative or qualitative approach) throughout entire research process. Instead, the researcher has a choice of the third research paradigm – a mixed methods research (also called mixed research, multi-methods, multi-strategy, mixed methodology) (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011), as discussed below.

3.3 The mixed methods design

Following the pragmatist credo of ‘what works’ (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, p. 12), this research is undertaken with a mixed methods design. The mixed methods research refers to an integration of quantitative and qualitative research in one study (Bryman, 2012). The research questions serve as the driving force for the choice of mixed methods research (Greene, 2007; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). Greene (2007) argues that ‘methodology is ever the servant of purposes [and questions], never the master’ (p. 97). In this study, the main purpose of conducting mixed methods research is to achieve a holistic and comprehensive understanding of the research questions, looking at them not only from different angles but also from two different research frameworks. This research considers the following research questions:

1. What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to choose a career in teaching?
2. What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to choose teaching as their first career choice?
3. What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to leave their previous work to enter the teaching profession?

4. What are the similarities and differences in Scottish pre-service teachers’ motivations for entering the teaching profession between those who choose teaching as their first career choice and those who change their career to teaching?

In addressing these research questions, collecting quantitative data is regarded as a direct way to quantify the influential factors when pursuing a teaching career, comparing the factors between two groups while aiming to achieve a general picture of the research questions. On the other hand, collecting qualitative data aims to gain more detailed and in-depth perspectives to enrich the understanding of the research questions. Each type of data fits different purposes of this study; hence combining different forms of data is likely to provide a more complete picture to make sense of the research questions. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) argue that multiple data reflect an attempt to enhance an in-depth discussion by offering rigour, breadth, and depth of inquiry. It is with this intention to achieve breadth and depth that prompted me to undertake a mixed methods research. In addition, ‘the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon’ is also known as triangulation (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008, p. 291). The advantages of triangulation are likely to help researchers to be more confident of their results but also to generate rigorous data for the synthesis or integration of the knowledge (Bryman, 2012; Denzin and Lincoln, 2008; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007). As the generating results from the quantitative and qualitative source may be different or somewhat conflicting, collecting one type of data alone is probably insufficient. A mixed methods approach might help offset the weakness of a mono-method strategy (Creswell, 2010; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). Thus, the use of mixed methods might be superior to the investigation that relies only on one single research approach when addressing my research questions.

However, there are some debates about conducting mixed methods research. The argument against mixed methods research believes that the integration of two separate paradigms with irreconcilable epistemological and ontological foundations entails inherent challenges (Bryman, 2012). Although some authors still advocate the superiority of their favoured paradigm, there seems to be a general agreement that the so-called ‘paradigm wars’ (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, p. 3) or the ‘paradigm debate’ is over (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 25). According to Bryman (2012), the increasing popularity of mixed methods research appear to represent the end of the paradigm wars for it may have given way to pragmatism. Miles and Huberman (2014) note that the lines between epistemologies
might have become blurred and each perspective could contribute to a meaningful layer to the research without being incompatible and contradictory. Similarly, Sikes (2004) argues that the dichotomy over methodology and methods merely represented ‘a framework for comprehension rather than an accurate representation of how things really are’ (p. 19). In connection with those perspectives, the arguments against using mixed methods may not necessarily diminish the value of undertaking a mixed methods research as a preferred model to understand the world. It may be worth noting, as Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) suggest, that the challenging part in using mixed methods includes the acquisition of certain skills; and, time and resources for extensive data collection and analysis. Perhaps, more importantly, is being explicit about the reasons for choosing a mixed methods design. Having evaluated the strength and difficulties in integrating the quantitative and qualitative strands, conducting a mixed methods research is manageable and feasible for this study. More specifically, an explanatory sequential mixed methods design was chosen and the following will explain and justify the decision in choosing this design.

3.3.1 The rationale for the selection of explanatory sequential mixed methods design

Explanatory sequential mixed methods design is described by Creswell (2007, p. 15) as one in which the ‘researcher first conducts quantitative research, analyses the results and then builds on the results to explain them in more detail with qualitative research’ (see Figure 2 below). This design particularly emphasises the sequential approach because the results of quantitative research provide the foci and directions for the subsequent qualitative element. Creswell (2015) observes that the advantage of this sequential design lay in that the two stages build upon each other, leading to the fact that two phrases are unique, clear-cut but connected. For this study, the decision to choose the sequential design is based on the following conditions: 1) one data source may be inadequate to gather comprehensive perspectives of motivation for the choice of teaching; 2) a need for more in-depth explanations as to what initial quantitative results mean; and 3) a need to form groups based on quantitative results and follow up with the group view through subsequent qualitative phase (Bryman, 2012; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).
To investigate the motivation to teach, starting with quantitative research enables the researcher to identify trends or indicators of motivation patterns and significant associations or differences in motivation for becoming teachers across certain groups, which can then inform the qualitative component which allows a subjective interpretation and a more detailed understanding of motivations for choosing a teaching career. Moreover, qualitative data can also play an important role in supplementing the quantitative data, thereby checking, confirming or validating results. In such way, quantitative and qualitative elements interact with each other but also allow mutual corroboration. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) argue that the explanatory sequential design is well suited when the researcher needs to explore trends and relationships from a quantitative source but also desires to interpret the mechanisms or reasons behind the initial quantitative results, as in this research study. Therefore, the data generated from this research would be complementary and rigorous but also allow for cross-checking. Although there might be other ways to address the research problems concerning motivations to teach, given the justifications above, conducting an explanatory sequential mixed methods research is deemed the most appropriate way to gain a more holistic insight into my research questions. Following this sequential design, next section will explain the instruments that have been chosen for this study.

### 3.4 Research instruments

In the Quantitative → Qualitative research process as shown in Figure 2, the arrow indicates the sequence that qualitative data collection follows quantitative data in the data collection process. The instruments employed for this research are questionnaires in the first quantitative stage followed by semi-structured individual interviews in the subsequent qualitative stage. The rationale for choosing the specific methods and how they were constructed will be discussed below.
3.4.1 Rationale for the use of questionnaire

Questionnaires are a widely-used technique to study the attitudes, perceptions, and preferences in educational research (Newby, 2014). The use of questionnaires benefits the study in several ways. The participants are asked the same questions, in the same order, and thus, data from numerous questionnaires can yield motivation patterns for the choice of teaching and allow the researcher to compare motivations cross certain groups of participants (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Moreover, the questionnaire is arguably viewed as an efficient and economical instrument in that both numerical and descriptive data can be obtained through distribution at one single time (Bryman, 2012). In addition, it allows anonymity and can provide sufficient time for participants to check the content of the questions carefully which may aid the collection of more accurate data (Walliman, 2005).

On the other hand, although the questionnaire might be a versatile instrument that enables the researcher to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short time, it also suffers from some potential weaknesses. For example, participants’ engagement with the questionnaire, particularly in relation to the response to the comment sections, generally tends to be superficial (Bryman, 2012). Questionnaire respondents may skip some questions when they feel less confident to provide the answers or become tired of answering the questions that are not straightforward. If questions are not fully answered, this will result in a problem of missing data. More importantly, in some cases, misreading the question(s) or failure to comprehend them may produce unreliable responses and may not reflect what respondents actually mean or believe (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Those potential risks may subsequently lead to a low response rate for questionnaires. In order to increase the response rate, a participation incentive was offered (details to follow in Section 3.6.2), and the questionnaire instructions were carefully worded to avoid any ambiguity. The next section will provide more details on how the questionnaire was designed.

3.4.2 The design of the questionnaire

This questionnaire (http://www.smartsurvey.co.uk/s/FIT-choice/) was based on a standardised inventory called ‘FIT-Choice scale’ (see Appendix 1) in which the questions had been tested by a large number of participants in various contexts, as has been outlined in Chapter Two. Permission to use the FIT-Choice scale was granted by the developers of the scale for this study to be utilised in PhD research within a Scottish context. Employing
FIT-Choice questionnaire was intended to meet the research purposes and needs in two ways. First and foremost, as discussed previously in Chapter Two, the FIT-Choice scale is arguably a theoretically and psychometrically robust scale to measure the motivations for pursuing a teaching career, which is appropriate to address my research topic (Research question 1). Furthermore, according to Richardson and Watt (2016), the FIT-Choice scale can manage to compare or synthesise motivations for pursuing a teaching career from different groups, aiming to deal with the remaining research questions (Research question 2, 3, 4). Although the FIT-Choice survey tool has been proved as a valid and reliable instrument and generated reliable findings across various sociocultural contexts (Watt and Richardson, 2012), to date, it has not been used, tested or validated in the Scottish context. This, therefore, prompted me to understand whether it can be applied in a Scottish sample.

The questionnaire was constructed in four sections by using smart survey software (2018). The first section included an introduction to clarify the purpose of the study to the participants, instructions on how to complete the survey, and information about ethical issues of anonymity and confidentiality. The ethical issues will be discussed in more detail in Section 3.7. In addition, it also contained a question asking the participants to indicate if they were willing to take part in a follow-up interview and asked for contact details in the form of name and email address. In the second section, seven questions exploring demographic information of the participants, e.g. name, age, gender, marital status, educational background and working experience were included. The content of the third section conformed to the original wording and format of the original FIT-Choice scale. It began by asking the participants to briefly state their main reason(s) for choosing to become a teacher (Section A). This was followed by presenting items to examine the factors influencing teaching as a career (Section B), beliefs about teaching (Section C), outcomes for FIT-Choice motivation (Section D) respectively. In section B, there are 12 influential factors with a total of 39 items, with scale options ranging from 1 (not at all important) through 7 (extremely important). Participants were then asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with statements concerning beliefs about teaching and satisfaction with a teaching choice, by choosing one of the responses, ranging from 1 (not at all) through 7 (extremely). Section C contains 5 factors with a total of 17 items for beliefs about teaching. In section D, there is 1 factor with 3 items for career choice satisfaction and 1 factor with 3 items for social discussion (Watt and Richardson, 2007). The last section consists of an open-ended question ‘is there anything else that influenced your decision to become a teacher?’, aiming to give the participants an opportunity to add another factor(s) influencing their choice of teaching in case it has not been mentioned in the questionnaire.
3.4.3 Rationale for the use of semi-structured interview

To collect qualitative data, face to face, sequential semi-structured individual interviews were conducted based upon the quantitative data that has captured a large group view and achieved a general understanding of the reasons, trends and patterns in relation to pursuit of a career in teaching. These subsequent interviews were expected to provide complementary data by further explaining the questionnaire results and exploring personal life experiences to gain in-depth or even new perspectives on how the decision to teach was reached. Furthermore, there is a specific focus on the events, the situations, and the processes that lead to a decision to either choose teaching as a first career or to change one’s career(s) to enter teaching.

The semi-structured interview was chosen for this study because it enabled the researcher to prepare the interview questions in advance but also allowed flexibility to shift the order of the interview questions in case the participants have already answered previously. As Bailey (2007, p. 100) explains, ‘in a semi-structured interview, the interviewer uses an interview guide with specific questions that are organised by topics but are not necessarily asked in a specific order’. If participants did not fully understand the questions, they were able to ask for further clarification, or the interviewer rephrased and presented the questions in a different way to help them understand. By using prompts and rephrasing the questions, the researcher can be more confident that participants fully understand what they are being asked, thereby producing reliable answers (Scott and Usher, 2011; Silverman, 2010). More importantly, during the interview, the researcher can clarify and follow up the questions with respondents and probe unexpected responses to seek further details. In such ways, semi-structured interviews might give more opportunities for the researcher to gain insight into how participants view teaching as a career choice and how they construct the idea of pursuing a teaching career.

At the same time, potential drawbacks when using the interview as the instrument for qualitative study have been identified. For example, the interviewees may convey the message that they want the researcher to hear rather than what they really feel or believe (Creswell, 2010). For this research topic, as discussed in Chapter Two, the participants may have wanted to report more positive motives for becoming a teacher (e.g. interest, a desire to help children learn and influence children) and may have felt embarrassed to overtly express extrinsic benefits (e.g. salary, status, and holidays) as the main reason to teach, even if they really meant so. This may result in producing unreliable interview data. In order to
minimise this issue from occurring, the researcher paid close attention to the conversation with the interviewees, with an open mind. In addition, since individual interviews might be time-consuming especially with respect to data analysis, the researcher should be aware and exercise careful time-management allowing sufficient time for the analysis component (Bazeley, 2013). For example, a timeline was created with a clear focus for the task of transcribing, coding, and interpretation.

For a smooth interview discussion, a scheduled list of questions was used during the semi-structured interviews. The following section will present how the interview schedule was constructed.

3.4.4 The construction of interview schedule

The interview schedule (see Appendix 2) was devised based on the preliminary analysis of questionnaire data with constant revision drawn from the relevant literature and the feedback from piloting the interview schedule. The detailed information on piloting will be presented later in Section 3.6.2. Chapter Five will provide greater details on the results from preliminary analysis by calculating the sums, high means, low means, mean differences in relation to age, gender, marital status, working experience, levels of teaching (primary and secondary), study programme (PGDE and MEduc) (see Section 5.2). The interview schedule consisted of three sections. To mirror the sequential design and show the link between the interview and questionnaire components, some of the interview questions are informed by the initial questionnaire analysis and results. For example, in the first section, interview questions were utilised to clarify the questionnaire responses concerning participants’ path towards teaching pertaining to their decision to undertake MEduc or PGDE programme. The interview wording was constructed as ‘I noticed that you indicated in the questionnaire that … (e.g. you studied on the PGDE primary programme. What made you decide to study on the PGDE primary programme?)’. This was also an opportunity to show my interest in their initial questionnaire responses and my interest to know more in order to create a relaxed interviewing atmosphere and encourage the participants to be more open and share their perceptions and experience.

The second section was expected to capture the key factors influencing their choice of teaching, while taking into account the two groups: 1) those who chose teaching as a first career choice; and, 2) those who changed their career to teaching. Interview questions in the
second section were, therefore, personalised based on the preliminary analysis of their questionnaire data. For example, by looking at highly rated factors influencing teaching as a career (and response to the open-ended question regarding the main reasons for teaching), the results suggested that wanting to work with young people and shape the future of young people were dominant in one’s choice of teaching. The interview question was then, expected to gain greater details on this highly influencing factor and constructed as ‘you indicated in the survey, your main reasons for teaching were wanting to work with young people and shape future of young people work with young people, could you tell me more about it?’

The third section of the interview schedule focused specifically on the outstanding subscales/items generated from the FIT-Choice scale that might need further investigations and clarifications in the interviews. By conducting t-tests (or ANOVA) using SPSS software (2016), it was found that there was a statistically significant difference in motivational factors within the FIT-Choice subscales in relation to intrinsic career value across different age groups, and between PGDE and MEd student, and between those who had full-time working experience and those who had no full-time working experience. Details on the quantitative analyses by undertaking t-tests and ANOVA were presented in Section 3.9.1 and on the corresponding results were presented in Section 5.2. In addition, in relation to the differences in perceptions about teaching, there were some small differences in task return (i.e. social status, teacher morale, good salary) and satisfaction with choice between those who choose teaching as a first career choice (school leavers or fresh graduates) and those who change their career to teaching (career changers). Details of these results are to follow in Section 5.3.1.2. Taken together, motivation patterns within the FIT-Choice subscales that examine the intrinsic value, task return and satisfaction with teaching choice, and thus they were needed to be incorporated into the interview schedule.

In general, the questions in the interview schedule were developed as open-ended questions, expecting to obtain rich and highly illuminating qualitative data to complement the data generated from the questionnaire. Open-ended questions also encourage participants to construct their personal points of view, and as a result, led them to voice their own experience and understanding without being influenced by the perspective of the researcher (Creswell, 2012). In addition, during the interviews, the sequence of the questions was considered and adjusted in accordance with the participants’ responses during the interview. Furthermore, the interview schedule embeds follow-up questions to prompt participants for further elaboration of the topic or to check the meaning that interviewees express, at times,
to clear up any misunderstanding. For instance, these probes and prompts take the form of, ‘Could you tell me a bit more about that?’; ‘Could you explain that further?’; ‘What do you mean by that?’; and ‘Could you give me an example?’.

3.5 The participants

The participants of this study comprise first-year students on Master in Education (MEduc) and students undertaking a Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) (Primary and Secondary education) at the University of Glasgow starting 2015-2016. The completion of either MEduc or PGDE is a required qualification for pursuing teaching roles in the school in Scotland. Ninety-two students completed the questionnaire and 11 of them engaged in the follow-up interview phase. Detailed demographical information for the respondents who completed the survey and participated in the follow-up interview is presented in Table 2.

The online questionnaire was accessed by the entire sample population (n = 465) and 111 were returned, representing the response rate of 24%. This is an acceptable response rate, compared to the email surveys standard of an average response rate of 24.8% (FluidSurveys Team, 2014). Of them, 19 were excluded from the quantitative analysis due to the incomplete items. Online surveys are much less likely to achieve response rates as high as paper-based surveys administered in person (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). However, considering the practical issues with respect to the limitations of the time and places for paper questionnaire administration and completion (details to follow in Section 3.6.3), online administration for the questionnaire was chosen for this research. Moreover, for MEduc students, throughout the programme, they had a busy study schedule with a combined study class in the university and school experience and making preparation for forthcoming exams at the period of my questionnaire distribution, and this probably led to a relatively low response rate received from them. A small number of male participants, on the other hand, may reflect existing gender imbalance with more females in the teaching profession.

In order to offset a relatively low response rate received from the survey, an attempt to increase the number of potential interviewees from the original number 10-12 to 12-16 was sought. With purposive sampling methods (Cohen et al., 2007), potential interviewees were chosen via the questionnaire in which they indicated a willingness to participate in the interviews by giving their contact details. Fifteen participants were initially selected from those who had volunteered to be interviewed, attempting to reach a balanced mixture of participants’ background such as age group, gender, enrolled programme and previous
working experience. However, when contacted them via emails for the time and date of interview, four of the potential participants did not respond despite repeated requests and despite offering them the flexibility to suggest the time and date that suited them best. Eleven participants finally took part in the interview and their educational backgrounds varied, with the majority of students with a degree (79.5%) and the remainder of the participants with a higher national diploma or higher national certificate. Although there was a limited number volunteering to be interviewed and this was impossible to be statistically representative for the whole population of questionnaire respondents, given mixed characteristics of potential respondents selected, interviewees might roughly reflect the features of the questionnaire sample.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Questionnaire (n=92)</th>
<th>Interview (n=11)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 (17-22)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 (23-26)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3 (27-45)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Programme enrolled</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEduc</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary teaching</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary teaching</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married/cohabiting</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separate/divorce</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Working experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had full working experience</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had no full-time working experience</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Demographics for the respondents who participate in the survey and interview
3.6 Data collection procedure

The data collection for questionnaire and interview took approximately six months (from September 2015 to May 2016) to distribute questionnaire, analyse questionnaire data, plan and arrange subsequent interviews. The steps for data collection are displayed below in Figure 3. The following will provide more details about the procedure for data collection.

![Figure 3: The procedure in collecting quantitative and qualitative data](image)

3.6.1 Questionnaire piloting

Piloting, which refers to the pre-testing of a particular research instrument, was undertaken prior to distributing the online questionnaire and carrying out interviews to validate the instruments. An effective instrument could be obtained through piloting and revision (Bryman, 2012; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, 2011; Scott and Usher, 2011). For this study, the questionnaire and interview were piloted on same participants with a small sample (n = 5), who were not included in the sample. Of them, there were three females and two males. Two participants were University staff members and the rest were three PhD students who used to be employed as a primary or secondary school teacher.

The online questionnaire was piloted via emails. The piloting lasted about a month and paid attention to collecting feedback on the content and formatting of the questionnaire and calculating the approximate time for the questionnaire completion. According to the pilot feedback, the questionnaire could be completed in about 15 minutes. Moreover, two participants reported that there were factors (e.g. interest in the subject at university, the feelings of fulfilment) that strongly influenced their choice of a teaching career but were not explicitly addressed in the questionnaire items. Following the pilot feedback, one open-
ended question – ‘Is there anything else that influenced your decision to become a teacher?’ was added at the end of the original standardised questionnaire to give participants an opportunity to express additional factors playing a role in shaping their decision to teach. Overall, the piloting stage for the questionnaire provided useful information making the instrument effective prior to data collection.

3.6.2 Interview piloting

For piloting the interview, face to face interviews were conducted to collect feedback on the issues of clarity on the content and wording of the interview questions as well as the approximate time required for the interview. I noted that each interview lasted approximately for 30-40 minutes. Moreover, in the pilot interviews, the participants suggested that some interview questions were lengthy and needed to be simplified. Following the feedback from the participants, the wording of several interview questions was amended and made the questions concise. For example, an initial interview question ‘When you start thinking about pursuing a teaching career, what made you decide you wanted to become a primary school teacher and what made you decide not to teach in a secondary school?’ was adjusted concisely to ‘What made you decide you wanted to teach in primary and not secondary school?’

3.6.3 Distributing questionnaires

The online questionnaire was administered to first-year MEdc and PGDE students in academic year 2015-2016. The questionnaire distribution has been changed from the original plan – a paper questionnaire to an online questionnaire due to the difficulty with respect to accessing the participants. I initially decided to distribute paper questionnaire in the classroom in order to promote higher responses rate. Although this had been approved by head of school, the programme leader at that time suggested utilising an online questionnaire instead due to restrictions on the place and time required for questionnaire completion. In turn, the questionnaire distribution shifted from paper to online. To remedy the likelihood of low response rate of online survey, a small incentive was offered. Every participant who completed the survey was entered into a draw with a chance of winning one of three Amazon vouchers (each having a value of £20). Furthermore, the lecturer from both PGDE and MEdc programme agreed to give me about five to ten minutes to deliver a small talk to invite students personally from the class to complete the online questionnaire. Afterwards,
the programme convener helped email the students with the survey link as well as sent a Moodle post as an additional reminder, aiming to promote the response rate.

3.6.4 Conducting follow-up interviews

Interviews were conducted after the preliminary analysis of the questionnaire data, as already explained in Section 3.4.4. From the questionnaires returned, 24 participants indicated willingness to be interviewed, from which I selected 15 candidates. The details on the selection of interviewees are provided previously in Section 3.5. Afterwards, I contacted them via email to arrange a mutually convenient time for the interview. In order to maximise the number of potential interviews, prior to approaching the interviewees, I checked their class timetable and suggested the times and dates when they were in the University and also offer flexibility if they had a preferred time or date.

All the interviews were conducted in my supervisors’ office, with water and refreshments offered to each interviewee. Doing so intended to create a quiet, comfortable and relaxing interviewing atmosphere. During the interview, a digital recorder was used and permission from the interviewees was first sought. The recording is to enhance an efficient preservation of the conversation and to later assist in transcribing and analysing data (Silverman, 2010). The sequence of the interview questions basically followed the interview schedule, with an awareness of tweaking the order when some of the questions had already been answered by interviewees before I had the chance to ask them. The interview questions were not mandatory and adjusted based on participants’ response in the interview proceedings. Each interview lasted for 40-50 minutes. In addition, in the interview proceeding, notes and comments were made on interviewee’s key points, attitude, facial expression, body language and tone of voice. As each interview ended, I spent 10 minutes or more of time to summarise briefly and tidy up notes reflecting on what has been learned from the interview to obtain the key message and general impression of the participant.

3.7 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues related to the integrity of research that can occur at a variety of stage in a piece of social research, and thus, they need to be given due consideration (Bryman, 2012). For this study, prior to data collection, an application for ethics approval was reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow. Once ethics approval
was received, I proceeded with my data collection. Three basic ethical considerations involve informed consent, confidentiality/privacy, and potential risk assessment (Cohen et al., 2007). Since this study is unlikely to involve any sensitive issues and the participants were all adults, it was considered as a very low risk to either the researcher or participants. With respect to informed consent, I provided the potential participants with Plain Language Statements (PLS) (see Appendix 3) to inform them about the aim of my research, what they required to do and when to participate, the extent of their participation and that their participation would be voluntary. To ensure confidentiality, they were assured anonymity and the use of pseudonyms in the thesis while analysing and presenting data. Moreover, participants were informed that all personal data collected would be deleted after completion of the research. Once they accepted to participate, they were then asked to read and sign the consent form (see Appendix 4).

Overall, all stages of the data collection from this research conform with the ethical policy. For example, before accessing student participants, permission from the Head of School, the programme leaders and lecturers of M Educ and PGDE was sought prior to class visits, distribution of questionnaires and conducting interviews. Even after ethics approval was granted, when I realised that I needed to amend my research design such as changing paper questionnaire to the online version and increasing the number of potential interviews from the original number (10-12) to 12-16, I notified the College Research Ethics Committee of University of Glasgow about these changes and ensured that the amendments were also approved.

**3.8 Validity and reliability**

Greater validity and reliability of research instruments can support and enhance the trustworthiness of data and findings (Cohen et al., 2011). Validity is concerned with issues that a measure of a concept truly measures that concept, and reliability focuses on the issue of the consistency of a measure (Bryman, 2012). Although quantitative and qualitative research may have different a standard on validity and reliability, in both approaches, the aim is to validate and ensure the quality of the data, results and interpretations (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

This research attempts to establish validity and reliability in the following ways. In general, the use of two methods: questionnaire and follow-up interview for data collection, allowed data triangulation to build robustness that might make the researcher more confident about
research results. In the quantitative stage, a standardised questionnaire – FIT-Choice scale was utilised. As discussed in Chapter Two, it has already been tested and validated in the published studies across various samples, with sound reliability and construct validity, although researchers may achieve slightly different results (structures) in a different context.

For this study, in the course of questionnaire data analysis, internal reliability and construct validity of FIT-Choice instrument was sought via undertaking Cronbach’s alpha ($\alpha$) \(^3\) that can be calculated in a statistical package of SPSS (2016). The questionnaire resulted in Cronbach’s $\alpha$ value of .816, which is above the acceptable level of .7 for social research, indicating the questionnaire is reliable (Laerd Statistics, 2019). More details will be discussed in the section 3.9.1 and in the following Results Chapter (see Section 4.2.1 in Chapter Four).

In the follow-up qualitative research, the validity is more of a focus to check if the data and analysis are appropriate and can be trusted. Prior to qualitative data collection, the interview schedule was piloted to assess clarity and suitability. Cohen et al. (2011) argue that validity in interview data could be achieved through minimising the potential bias from the interviewer, the respondent and the interview questions. In conducting the interview, the researcher, for example, needs to be aware of his/her assumptions and avoid imposing them on participants’ responses or expecting any answer to support preconceived knowledge (Bryman, 2012). Likewise, participants were given the opportunity to freely express their own way of looking at teaching as a career choice and the researcher was flexible about the wording and sequence of the questions, based on the responses received from participants. Afterwards, all interview transcripts were given back to the participants for checking and returned with a confirmation of suitable record of interview. In the process of interview data analysis, each transcript was analysed and the procedure of analysing interview transcripts will be provided in the following Section 3.9.2.

**3.9 Data analysis**

Given an explanatory sequential mixed-methods approach was implemented in this study, the procedure for data analysis involved sequentially in three stages, 1) quantitative data analysis 2) qualitative data analysis 3) synthesising quantitative and qualitative findings

---

\(^3\) Cronbach’s alpha is a measure used to assess the reliability, or internal consistency, of a set of scale or test items. In other words, the reliability of any given measurement refers to the extent to which it is a consistent measure of a concept, and Cronbach’s alpha is one way of measuring the strength of that consistency.
(Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The specific methods and steps of the analysis are described as follows.

### 3.9.1 Quantitative data analysis

The quantitative data was analysed using SPSS software (2016). SPSS is a powerful and widely employed computer programme to assist the statistical analysis of data (Laerd Statistics, 2019). The purposes of quantitative data analysis using SPSS within this study are to investigate the following issues:

Issue 1: influencing factors that motivate pre-service teachers to choose teaching as a career choice (concerned with Research question 1)
Issue 2: whether there were demographic variables on motivational factors for undertaking a teaching career, for example, whether there was statistically significant difference in relation to gender, age, marital status, working experience, levels of teaching (primary and secondary), study programme (PGDE and MEduc)
Issue 3: the factor influencing a) participants who choose teaching as a first career, and b) participants who change career path to enter teaching; and, compare two groups (concerned with Research questions 2, 3, 4)
Issue 4: whether there were issues or questions raised requiring further exploration via the interviews

To address the Issues 1, statistical operations using SPSS involving descriptive analyses (i.e.: calculating means, sums and percentage), and Principal Components Analysis (PCA) were applied to quantitative data. Participants’ responses to the questionnaire were initially analysed by calculating the total score, the mean score and standard deviation. Doing so is to achieve a general view of the structure of influencing factors in the decision to teach. Prior to undertaking the PCA, in order to ascertain questionnaire reliability in terms of internal consistency, as discussed previously in Section 3.8, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was calculated using SPSS to measure the internal consistency coefficient of the FIT-Choice scale and its associated components and sub-scales and test whether the FIT-Choice scale is reliable to use with this Scottish sample. Some items and/or subscales that might cause a poor internal consistency were removed from the analysis (the removed items/sub-scales will be presented and discussed later in Section 4.2.1, see also Appendix 5) and then the internal consistency coefficient of the FIT-Choice scale were re-tested. According to Laerd
statistics (2019), the ‘Corrected Item-Total Correlation’ is the Pearson correlation between the specific item and the sum of all the other items. If the items are all measuring the same underlying construct, this correlation coefficient would expect to be relatively high. Pearson correlation coefficients lower than 0.3 are cause for concern because it is an indication that this particular item might not be measuring the same construct and might need to be removed from the analysis (Laerd statistics, 2019). Having resolved any potential issues in terms of internal consistency, a PCA was undertaken to explore the most parsimonious factor structure that attempted to explain the motivations for pursuing a career in teaching. Given that previous research had used different combinations of items and had resulted in different factor structures, it was felt justified to run a PCA to identify whether in the Scottish context, a different, complementary or alternative factor structure would be obtained. According to Laerd Statistics (2019), PCA is a variable-reduction technique that shares many similarities to Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). PCA is often used interchangeably with EFA in practice within SPSS Statistics, although PCA is conceptually different to EFA. Prior to using PCA test, two assumptions were tested and passed: (1) linearity between all variables, detected using a correlation matrix; and, (2) sampling adequacy, which was evaluated using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity measure of sampling adequacy for each individual variable or the overall quantitative dataset (Laerd Statistics, 2019). Several items were removed and recoded due to a low correlation score (< 0.3) at the PCA testing stage and more details will be presented in a subsequent chapter (see Section 4.2.2 in Chapter Four). In addition, Pearson Correlation was performed to examine if any positive or negative relationships between factors (or constructs) emerged from PCA.

To address the remaining issues in the quantitative analysis, an independent-samples t-test or one-way ANOVA was used to determine whether the statistically significant difference(s) in FIT-Choice factors (subscales) (see Table 5 for the subscales) between sub-groups (i.e. gender, age, marital status, study programme (PGDE/MEduc), teaching in primary and secondary, and teaching as a first or subsequent career choice) is statistically significant. In order to satisfy the assumptions of a t-test (or one-way ANOVA), the tests of assumptions were carried out using SPSS Statistics to check 1) if the data is normally distributed by visual inspection of Normal Q-Q plots; 2) if the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met by using Levene's test for equality of variances. Given that the sample size was >50, the Shapiro-Wilk test for Normality was not applied (Laerd Statistics, 2019). As presented previously in Section 3.4.4, drawing on the result of t-test or ANOVA, there were some differences in the motivation patterns for different age groups, working experience, study programmes (MEduc and PGDE) and levels of teaching (primary and secondary). These
patterns, are mainly in relation to the questionnaire items that examine *intrinsic value, task return and satisfaction with teaching choice*, and these quantitative results further informed the subsequent qualitative element requiring further investigations and clarifications.

### 3.9.2 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis, as Miles and Huberman (2014) depict, is a contiguous, iterative enterprise. Given that both quantitative and qualitative data are collected, there are two potential ways to approach the qualitative data. One of the ways begins by checking how qualitative data enable to further explain the quantitative findings while the other way starts with an exploration of the qualitative data itself without the reference of any quantitative findings. These two options identified by Miles and Huberman (ibid, p. 185) as primary ways in qualitative analysis, either starting with ‘conceptually specified categories... (deductively)’ or reaching them ‘gradually (inductively)’. The inductive approach was adopted at the early stage of the qualitative analysis. This way of analytical work is expected to explore and understand the nature of data in this sample without imposing any interpretation from pre-existing findings or theory, which was more data-driven (Gibbs, 2002). In other words, the qualitative data was initially approached with an open mind and a focus of teasing out what is really happening without largely relying on preconceptions. In this way, theoretical ideas or hypotheses are inductively generated from data itself rather than from pre-existing findings or literature.

However, Bryman and Burgess (1994) argue that it is impossible to ascertain that any assumption or previous research is completely omitted from the entire analytical procedure. In this respect, I agree that researchers cannot fully free themselves with the theoretical and epistemological viewpoints that had already in their mind. However, starting analytical work in an inductive way is not to guarantee that presuppositions is eliminated at any stage of the analysis, rather, is an attempt to give voice to the participants as a starting point. The integration of the quantitative findings and previous literature will come at the later stage of the analytical process as an important part to constitute the development of the conceptual framework. Although the interview schedule is structured based on quantitative findings and existing literature, from another angle, it can be argued that inductive analysis enriches the holistic understanding of the topic in the light of new issues arising out of the data, which helps generate a new conception. In addition, as discussed in Chapter One, working as a teacher in China has made me particularly keen to explore teachers’ motivations and
perceptions about teaching as a profession. My understanding and subjective feelings of teaching as a career choice are largely based on my own teaching experience. The assumptions and preconceptions about teaching that I bring into the research may have an impact on data analysis and shape the outcome of research. For example, in China, teaching is often seen as a prestigious profession and teachers receive a relatively high level of income and status in society. However, this might not necessarily be the case in Scotland and as Scottish student teachers commented in the interview (details will be presented in Section 4.3.1.1 and Section 4.3.1.2), teaching in Scotland was low in salary and social status. Being from outside the Scottish context, from another angle, is likely to prompt less subjectivity compared to Scottish researchers undertaking research in the Scottish context.

Once the interview data was collected, it was transcribed into written form. Bazeley (2013) described the process of transcription as a good starting point to familiarising with the data, though it may be time-consuming and sometimes tedious. This conforms to Braun and Clarke’s (2008) view that the time invested in transcription is not wasted, as it not only uncovers the first stage of the qualitative analysis but also offers the opportunity for the researcher to familiarise themselves with the data. Particularly the time when checking the transcripts back against the original audio recordings for fluency and accuracy. Similarly, according to Lapadat and Lindsay (1999), transcribing can be viewed as an interpretative act, in that the meaning is automatically created in the process of transcribing. As with transcription, Express Scribe software (NCH, 2017) along with a foot pedal was utilised to assist the transcription of audio recordings. Express Scribe has features to support variable speed playback, helping to check the meaning achieving efficiency of typing by allowing the feet to control the playback without keyboard input.

Once all transcription was completed (n = 11), with the assistance of QSR International's NVivo Software (2016), it was organised and analysed using thematic analysis to identify themes aligned with the research questions. According to Braun and Clarke (2008), thematic analysis is a widely-used analytic method for ‘identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data’ (p. 79). The process of thematic analysis for this study basically conforms to a six-step guide suggested by Braun and Clarke (ibid), that is, ‘1) familiarising myself with my data; 2) generating initial codes; 3) searching for themes; 4) reviewing themes; 5) defining and naming; 6) producing the report’ (pp. 86-93). Accordingly, the analysis started by thoroughly reading the full transcripts to achieve an overall impression about respondents’ motivation for pursuing a teaching career. The interview data was then coded using NVivo software by marking and naming selections of text within each transcript.
This process of coding represents ‘the most basic segment, or element, of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon’ (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 63).

The next stage moves towards analysing those lists of produced codes and organising them into hierarchies. Specifically, this process focused on exploring the potential connections between codes, and between themes or subthemes, and the way of sorting them into an appropriate broader level of themes. As explained earlier in this section, the themes (or subthemes) were identified and coded in an inductive way. Therefore, the themes identified are perhaps more focused on data itself rather than researchers’ theoretical interest or engaging with quantitative findings at this stage of analysis. For example, one of the participants’ response to an interview question regarding the reasons for studying on PGDE primary programme was:

‘I enjoy working with children. I like to teach them English. I like to do some fun things with children like playing games. I found I really enjoy it.’

I coded this response and labelled with ‘enjoy working with children’ and ‘enjoy teaching’ by using NVivo software (2016). The code represented the subthemes under the broader theme ‘intrinsic factor’ because it reflected participant’s intrinsic reason with respect to the feeling of enjoyment gaining from the teaching job itself. In addition, such analytical process involves repeatedly and carefully reading each data item until all relevant text was coded and was followed by reviewing these collated extracts to see if they could be merged into a reasonable category. The categories are then assumed, as Bryman (2012, p. 84) described, to be ‘saturated’, meaning that achieve sufficient information on what is of interest and relevance to the research topic is achieved.

Overall, the qualitative analysis was conducted by applying the principles of ‘data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification’ (Miles and Huberman, 2014, p. 12-14). Since the condensation process involves sharpening and discarding data, to some extent, the depth and complexity of the data can be lost (Bryman, 2012; Bazeley, 2013). To minimise the concerns of such criticism, analytic memos were used using NVivo while coding for a record of any issues, comments, doubts and interesting points that arose across the entire data set. These memos help the analysis in the sense that they contain important observations and insights for achieving notable details from the transcripts but also for capturing the story as a whole from each participant.
3.9.3 Synthesising quantitative and qualitative findings

Once the sequential and independent analysis of quantitative and qualitative data was complete, the connection and integration of statistical and qualitative findings were sought, using a process known as ‘meta-inferences’ (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 300). This step allows interpretations and conclusions to be drawn from both quantitative and qualitative source to enhance the quality of inferences, thereby understanding the research questions (ibid). In merging the findings, first and foremost, an assessment was made on how the qualitative findings could expand and explain further on quantitative results. Quantitative results provided general insights to address the issues of teaching as a career choice, as well as comparing the generic motivation patterns for choosing teaching as a first career or subsequent career choice. Qualitative findings, on the other hand, aimed to deal more explicitly and in more detail with some of the important reasons underlying those decisions. For example, a specific story or conversation about how, when and in what situation the decision to become a teacher was made. In addition, regarding teaching as a first or subsequent career choice, the qualitative strand also assisted in supplementing and refining the initial quantitative explanation on the important or interesting influential factors, the process of producing the thought of leaving previous occupation(s) and subsequent decision to teach. By and large, such combinations and interactions between quantitative and qualitative results eventually work together to address the research questions.

3.10 Summary

This chapter has presented and discussed the research methodology for this study. A sequential mixed-methods approach with pragmatic beliefs is adopted. The purpose of conducting the mixed-methods research is not to replace pure quantitative or qualitative approaches but to draw upon the strengths and compensate the potential weaknesses of the approaches if employed solely. The areas where the notion of mixing often occurs in this research are data collection methods (questionnaires and interviews), data set (numerical and textual), data analysis (statistical and thematic), findings and conclusions (objective and subjective). Given that the limitations are inherent in all research methods, a combination of questionnaires and interviews was chosen for matching the research aims, but also for its congruence with theoretical characteristics of motivations for a career choice as well as the issues of allowing feasibility and flexibility in practice. Although quantitative data is to inform the subsequent qualitative phase, the data obtained from each phase might be different but complementary, and hence they serve an equally important role in addressing
the research inquiry. Based on Creswell and Plano Clark’s (2011) diagram describing the study choosing the explanatory mixed methods design (see Figure 2), the implemented two phases of mixing in this study are presented and summarised in Figure 4 below. The data collection and analysis procedures of the initial quantitative phase are described in the first two rectangular boxes. The connections to the qualitative phase through qualitative sample selection and qualitative data collection protocols development are shown in the first oval. Then, the procedures in the following qualitative phase are described in the next two rectangular boxes. The flowchart concludes with a final oval indicating another point of the connection between quantitative and qualitative element and how the researcher interpreted and explained the quantitative and qualitative results.

---

**Preliminary quantitative data analysis:**
- identifying the factors influencing teaching as a career choice by calculating the sums, means, frequencies
- exploring group differences in relation to age, gender, marital status, working experience, levels of teaching (primary and secondary), study programme (PGDE and MEdue)
- determining which results need further explorations in the qualitative phase

---

**Qualitative sample selection; Qualitative data collection protocols development**

---

**Qualitative data collection**

---

**Qualitative data analysis**
- coding and thematic analysis

---

**Integration of the quantitative and qualitative results**
- summarise and interpret the quantitative results produced from preliminary analysis and PCA
- summarise and interpret the qualitative results
- discuss to what extent and in what ways the qualitative results help to explain the quantitative results

---

Figure 4: Flowchart of the procedures in implementing the explanatory design
Chapter Four: Findings (A): Motivational factors influencing teaching as a career choice

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings drawn from the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in relation to factors influencing participants’ decision to pursue a career in teaching. To follow the explanatory sequential design as explained in Chapter Three, this chapter contains three sections. Section one presents questionnaire responses to the motivational factors influencing choosing a teaching career and beliefs about teaching. Section two shows the linkage between questionnaire data and interview data, looking at how the interview data can help explain the initial questionnaire data. Section three presents what else emerged from interview responses towards reasons for choosing a career in teaching and how teaching is perceived as a career choice.

4.2 Section One: Questionnaire findings

As the FIT-Choice model provides a conceptual underpinning to guide the research practice, before presenting the questionnaire results, a discussion of the utility of FIT-Choice scale across my sample is presented. The validation of the FIT-Choice scale and the main underlying structure in relation to factors influencing teaching as a career choice are discussed in this section via 1) examining internal consistency (a measure of reliability) using Cronbach’s alpha; and, 2) a Principal Components Analysis for factor identification.

4.2.1 The reliability of the FIT-Choice questionnaire

Reliability analysis on the sub-scale components of two main constructs – motivation, perception and satisfaction with choice (in the questionnaire, they are labelled as Influential factors; Beliefs about teaching; Your decision to become a teacher) was undertaken by measuring Cronbach’s alpha. Appendix 5 shows the procedures in measuring Cronbach’s alpha for testing the reliability in terms of the internal consistency of the FIT-Choice scale. Given there have been different factor structures and items in the published research in different contexts and in the development of the inventory, in this study, I will provide a full presentation of how the data satisfied assumptions and items and sub-scales removed from the analysis if and when they failed the various assumptions required to undertake a robust
PCA, as discussed previously in Section 3.9.1. For motivation constructs, as displayed in Appendix 5, when inspecting Corrected Item-Total Correlation in the table of Item-Total Statistics I, *fallback career items* (i.e. B11, B35, B48) and *bulging* items (i.e. B4, B18) were Pearson Correlation coefficients lower than 0.3. For *perception and satisfaction with choice* constructs, when inspecting Corrected Item-Total Correlation, as displayed in the table of Item-Total Statistics III in Appendix 5, *expert career, high demand* and *social dissuasion* were Pearson Correlation coefficients lower than 0.3. These results indicate that these items might not be measuring the same construct, and hence should be removed from the analysis (Laerd Statistics, 2019). This resulted in $\alpha = 0.892$ for motivation constructs; $\alpha = 0.817$ for perception and satisfaction with choice constructs; and, $\alpha = 0.816$ for the overall FIT-Choice scale. Table 3 shows the high order subscales/constructs drawn directly from the FIT-Choice inventory applied in the questionnaire. As presented in Table 3, they had medium to high Cronbach’s alpha, ranging from $\alpha = 0.735$ to $\alpha = 0.864$. These values of Cronbach’s alpha indicate that the FIT-Choice scale has an acceptable level of internal consistency and it is arguably reliable to be applied in my sample.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher Order constructs</th>
<th>Cronbach's alpha value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation constructs/subscales</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Perception</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Perceived teaching abilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Value</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Utility Value</td>
<td>.791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Job security</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Time for family</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Job transferability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Utility Value</td>
<td>.864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Shape future of child/adolescents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Enhance social equity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Make social contribution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Work with children/adolescents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialisation Influences</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Social dissuasion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Prior teaching &amp; learning experiences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Social influences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perception and satisfaction with choice constructs/subscales</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Demand</td>
<td>.763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Expert career</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-High demand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Return</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Social status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-salary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Teacher morale</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with choice</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Cronbach's alpha for the constructs and subscales within the FIT-Choice scale

Given that there had been changes to dimensions of the FIT-Choice scale previously tested, and it has already been reported that different items and different sub-scales have been adopted in previous analyses of the FIT-Choice scale in different contexts (e.g. Eren and Tezel, 2010; Watt et al., 2012; Hennessy and Lynch, 2017); it is suggested that a Principal Components Analysis is justified to examine and compare the factor structure obtained with
this cohort of participants with previous research. The recoded sub-scales were then entered into a Principal Components Analysis (PCA).

4.2.2 Principal Components Analysis of the FIT-Choice questionnaire

A Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was run on the FIT-Choice subscales (see the table – Item-Total Statistics V in Appendix 5) that sought to measure on 92 students undertaking PGDE or MEduc programme. The suitability of PCA was assessed prior to analysis. Inspection of the correlation matrix suggested that the subscales in relation to prior teaching and learning experience did not meet the criteria for inclusion, having a correlation coefficient ≤ 0.3, suggesting they should be removed. The PCA was then re-ran and inspection of the revised correlation matrix confirmed that all items had at least one correlation ≥ 0.3. In addition, PCA diagnostics suggested that sub-scales of job security and job transferability did not meet criteria in relation to sampling adequacy (KMO < 0.5) and were removed. The remaining subscale items, in addition to the subscale satisfaction with choice, a motivation outcome variable that measures the extent to which participants are satisfied with the choice of a teaching career were included in the PCA. The overall KMO measure, was 0.79 with individual KMO measures all greater than 0.7, classifications of ‘middling’ to ‘meritorious’, according to Kaiser (1974). Bartlett's test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 346.811$, df = 66, $p < 0.005$), indicating that the data was likely factorisable. The details and procedures of testing the assumptions of PCA and conducting PCA are presented in Appendix 5 and Appendix 6 respectively.

4.2.2.1 Factor structure

PCA revealed four components that had eigenvalues greater than one and which explained 34.6%, 12.5%, 10.8% and 9.9% of the total variance, respectively. Similarly, visual inspection of the scree plot (see Figure 5) indicated that four components should be retained (Cattell, 1966). In addition, a four-component solution met the interpretability criterion. The interpretability criterion is arguably the most important criterion and it largely revolves around the concept of ‘simple structure’ and whether the final solution makes sense (Laerd Statistics, 2019). As such, four components were retained and are described in more detail below. The four-component solution explained 67.8% of the total variance. A Varimax orthogonal rotation was employed to aid interpretability. The rotated solution exhibited a relatively ‘simple structure’ (Thurstone, 1947).
The main steps for producing the four-factor structure were summarised and displayed in Appendix 6. Although the four-factor structure is distinct from other published studies suggesting five or eight factor structure (Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012; Hennessy and Lynch, 2017; Watt and Richardson, 2007), the 4-factor solution obtained from this sample was able to be interpreted in a manner consistent with the overall aims of the scale. A detailed discussion on how the 4-factor solution in this study is distinct from other contexts in the published research will be provided in Chapter Six (see Section 6.2). For this study, the interpretation of the data was consistent with exploring factors influencing teaching as a career choice that the questionnaire was designed to measure in terms of motivation and perceptions with strong loadings of perception constructs on Component 1; social utility value on Component 2; intrinsic value and self-perception on Component 3; and, personal utility value and social influences on Component 4. Component loadings and communalities of the rotated solution are presented in Table 4.
Table 4: The Rotated Component Matrix

Overall, the factors (subscales) emerged from the PCA were broadly consistent with the findings in relation to higher order factors suggested by Watt and Richardson (2007) in the Australian context. The first component, as displayed in Table 4, consisted of three items (social status, teacher morale, salary) in relation to task return subscale in Watt and Richardson’s study (2007), combined with work with children/adolescents and satisfaction with choice. As each item in component one appears to represent the specific characteristics of the teaching profession, hence, taken together, I named ‘General features of teaching as a career choice’. The second component comprised of items indicating an altruistic view and desire to benefit the society, and is therefore labelled as ‘Altruistic influences’. I named the
third component as ‘Intrinsic influences’ because constituent items reflect participants’ intrinsic reasons, especially with respect to a sense of achievement and satisfaction. Of particular note was that the original factor satisfaction with choice loaded both on component 1 and 3. The fourth component was named ‘Family and social influences’ because the comprised items elicit that family considerations and social persuasions are important in the decision to choose a career in teaching.

Drawing on the 4-factor solution discussed above, the section below will utilise the factors (constructs) produced from the PCA by looking at the mean ratings for each factor and correlations among factors.

4.2.2.2 Mean ratings for motivational factors

In relation to mean ratings for the four factors surviving in the PCA diagnostic testing, ‘intrinsic influences’ (M = 6.19, SD = 0.72) and ‘altruistic influences’ (M = 6.1, SD = 0.89) received the highest mean scores, suggesting that a large proportion of participants were strongly influenced by intrinsic and altruistic related reasons in the choice of teaching. This is followed by the ‘general features of teaching as a career choice factor’, with means above 5 (M = 5.37, SD = 0.97). In comparison, the ‘family and social influences factor’ (M = 4.32, SD = 1.66) was rated lowest by the participants but still rated above the scale midpoint, indicating that family concerns and social persuasions had a moderate impact on participants’ choice of teaching as a career. The following section presents the mean ratings of the 7-Point Likert scale (from 1 not at all important to 7 extremely important) for all factors and constructs within the FIT-Choice scale.

In general, participants had relatively high levels of career motivation (M = 4.96, SD = 0.52). Table 5 below illustrates the means and standard deviations for all subscale on influential factors, beliefs and decision to become a teacher constructs in the FIT-Choice questionnaire. The retained factors from the PCA are in bold.
The highly rated motivational factors influencing the choice of a teaching career, as displayed in Table 5, with mean scores above 5, were shape future of children/adolescents, work with children/adolescents and make social contribution, intrinsic career value, perceived teaching abilities, enhance social equity, prior teaching and learning experience, and job security. Moreover, most of factors survived from the PCA test were rated highly by participants. Of particular note was that prior teaching and learning experience and job security received high ratings from participants, despite they were not retained in the final PCA solution. It may be that prior teaching and learning experience and job security may

---

4 Bludging refers to the choice of teaching based on people’s perceived teacher’s short working days and long school holidays that allow low-effort exertion and a relaxed lifestyle (Watt and Richardson, 2007).
not occur as the generic or dominant motives but they may play an important role in participants’ decision to become a teacher. More details about the factors regarding previous teaching and learning experience and job security will be presented and discussed further later in Section 4.4.1, 4.4.2 and 4.4.3. In contrast, fallback career and bludging received the lowest rating by participants and their mean scores were below the scale midpoint (M = 1.54, SD = 0.74 and M = 2.63, SD = 1.2 respectively), indicating that respondents viewed these as less important influences on the decision to enter the teaching profession.

Participants’ responses to the constructs on perceptions about teaching indicated that they generally perceived a career in teaching as highly demanding in terms of workload, hard work, and level of specialised knowledge and although receiving good social status was seen to have a relatively low salary. As shown in Table 5, task demand constructs (i.e. high demand and expert career) received significantly high ratings (M > 6). Task return construct in terms of social status was highly rated (M = 5) whereas good salary and teacher morale was rated relatively low but still above the scale midpoint (4 < M < 5). Despite such perceived relatively low level of financial rewards, the majority of the respondents were very satisfied with the decision to enter the teaching profession, with mean score of satisfaction with choice above 6. In addition, social dissuasion, was rated below the midpoint, indicating that respondents experienced a low level of dissuasion from pursuing a career in teaching.

In addition, t-tests or ANOVA was conducted on four factor structure to determine whether there was statistically significant difference in four PCA factors in relation to gender, age, levels of teaching (primary and secondary), study programme (PGDE and MEd). The results of the t-tests (or ANOVA) showed that there was a statistically significant difference in Factor 1 (i.e. General features of teaching as a career choice) and Factor 4 (i.e. Family and social influences) between MEd and PGDE students; in Factor 1 between primary and secondary teaching, and across different age groups. No other statistically significant differences were found for Factor 2 (Altruistic influences) and Factor 3 (Intrinsic influences). The details of those significant differences are presented as follows.

There were 25 MEd students and 67 PGDE students. Mean MEd Factor 1 score (5.81 ± 0.56) was higher than mean PGDE Factor 1 score (5.21 ± 0.73). There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances (p = .167). The t-test result revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in mean Factor 1 score between MEd students and PGDE students, with MEd students scoring higher than PGDE students, with a statistically significant mean difference of 0.6 (95% CI, 0.28 to 0.93), (t(90
This indicates that M Educ students, relative to PGDE students, are more likely to be influenced by ‘general features of teaching as a career choice’ factor including social status, good salary, teacher morale and working with children/adolescents in their choice of teaching. Moreover, a statistically significant difference was also found in mean Factor 4 score between M Educ (4.53 ± 1.5) and PGDE (3.83 ± 1.36), with M Educ students scoring higher than PGDE students, with a statistically significant mean difference of 0.7 (95% CI, 0.53 to 1.35), (t(90) = 2.15, p = .001, d = 0.49). This result suggests that family concerns and social persuasions may impact more on M Educ students’ choice of teaching as a career, compared to PGDE students.

There were 56 students wanting to become a primary teacher and 36 students wanting to become a secondary teacher. Mean Primary Factor 1 score (5.53 ± 0.72) was higher than mean Secondary Factor 1 score (5.12 ± 0.16). Test for normality (Shapiro-Wilks p > 0.05) were met for Primary/Secondary for Factors 1 and 4, and there was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene’s test for equality of variances (p = 0.16). The statistically significant difference was only found in mean Factor 1 score between primary and secondary teaching, with primary teaching scoring higher than secondary teaching, with a statistically significant mean difference of 0.41 (95% CI, 0.11 to 0.72), (t(90) = 2.71, p = .001. d = 0.8). This result suggests that Factor 1, ‘general features of teaching as a career choice factor’ are likely to be more important in the decision to teach for participants wanting to teach in primary. In addition, participants were classified into three groups: Group 1: age 17-22 (n = 35); Group 2: age 23-26 (n = 32); Group 3: age >= 27 (n = 25). In relation to Factor 1, Mean Group 1 score (M = 5.72 ± 0.54) was higher than mean Group 2 score (M = 5.16 ± 0.79) and mean Group 3 score (M = 5.34 ± 0.76). There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene’s test for equality of variances (p = 0.168). The results of One-way ANOVA showed that only Factor 1 was statistically significantly different by age, (F (2,89) = 5.12, p = 0.008). The statistically significant difference was particularly found in mean Factor 1 score between Group 1 (M = 5.72 ± 0.54) and Group 2, with a statistically significant mean difference of 0.56 (95% CI, 0.14 to 0.99, p = .006, η² = 0.1, ω² = 0.08), and no other age group differences were statistically significant. This result indicates that the youngest group may attach greater importance to ‘the general feature of a teaching career’ factor including social status, salary, teacher morale and working with children/adolescents than the older age groups.

Given the results that there were significant differences in Factor 1 in relation to Primary/Secondary teaching and age groups, a Two-Way ANOVA was undertook to determine whether there is a statistically significant interaction effect for Primary/Secondary
and age groups on Factor 1 score. Boxplots suggest no outliers and Shapiro-Wilks p > 0.05. There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances (p = .064). There was no statistically significant interaction effect for Primary/Secondary and age groups on Factor 1 score, (F(2, 86) = 0.481, p = .620, η² = .011). Taken together, these results from t-tests and ANOVA suggest that the Factor 1, ‘general features of teaching as a career choice factor’ including social status, good salary, teacher morale and working with children/adolescents may play greater role in the decision to teach for those studying on MEduc programme, younger-aged (17-22), and intending to teach in primary. Further, given that MEduc is a primary teaching qualification, this might give more support for the result that those younger students and wanting to working with children in primary were relatively more likely to be strongly influenced by ‘general features of teaching as a career choice factor’ including social status, good salary, teacher morale and working with children/adolescents.

4.2.2.3 Correlations among retained factors

Significant relationships among retained factors or between retained motivations and the perception factors from PCA were observed. Broadly, there was a strong positive correlation between retained factor ‘general features of teaching as a career choice’ and ‘intrinsic influences’ (r = 0.621, p < 0.01). Furthermore, the Correlation Matrix (see Appendix 9) revealed some strong correlations among specific factors. The strongest positive correlation was witnessed between the teacher morale and social status (r = 0.701, p < 0.01). Intrinsic career value had a strong positive correlation with ability (r = 0.535, p < 0.01) and satisfaction with choice (r = 0.503, p < 0.01), and had a medium positive correlation with work with children (r = 0.368, p < 0.01), teacher morale (r = 0.328, p < 0.01) and shape future of children/adolescents (r = 0.304, p < 0.01). Moreover, shape future of children/adolescents had a positive correlation with social contribution (r = 0.564, p < 0.01), and teacher morale (r = 0.307, p < 0.01). It was noted that teacher morale was also moderately positively related to good salary (r = 0.454, p < 0.01), work with children (r = 0.448, p < 0.01), satisfaction with choice (r = 0.446, p < 0.01), social influence (r = 0.318, p < 0.01) and perceived teaching abilities (r = 0.302, p < 0.01).
4.2.3 Questionnaire responses to open-ended questions regarding the reasons for becoming a teacher

In addition to rating scale items, the questionnaire also includes two open-ended questions to collect some qualitative data concerning the reasons for choosing a teaching career, serving as supplement statistical responses to factors influencing teaching as a career choice. One open-ended question at the beginning of the questionnaire ‘Please state briefly your main reason/s for choosing to become a teacher’ was completed by all participants (n = 92), representing the response rate of 100%. The other open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire ‘Is there anything else that influenced your decision to become a school teacher’ was completed by 48 participants, representing the response rate of 52%. However, eight responses remarked ‘No/Nothing’ and thus valid responses were 40. With the assistance of NVivo software, these responses were coded using thematic analysis to identify and extract the patterns (or themes) regarding important factors influencing the choice of teaching.

The results on emerging patterns of main reasons for choosing a teaching career are presented in Table 6. In general, consistent with the results from the analysis of scale ratings, primary reasons for the decision to teach were largely related to intrinsic and altruistic motivations, specifically in relation to enjoying working with young people, interest in teaching, a desire to support young people’s learning and being able to influence and inspire the future generation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The emergent patterns</th>
<th>The number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>enjoying working with young people</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helping and inspiring young people to learn (or helping to reach their full potential)</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>making a difference/shape children’s lives</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interest in teaching</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enjoying the subject at university</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a desire to pursue a rewarding and meaningful job</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have always wanted to be a teacher</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>job satisfaction</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stability</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>giving back to society</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>being creative</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inspired by family</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Emerging patterns of main reasons for becoming a teacher from the open question in the questionnaire

Regarding the additional influential factors participants reported at the end of the FIT-Choice questionnaire, of 40 responders, more than half of them (n = 23) reported that the role of their own positive experience with young people in the decision to pursue a teaching career. The following responses indicated that the joy of working with young people helped respondents realise that teaching was an enjoyable and rewarding career to pursue.

*Enjoying working with young people confirmed that teaching was definitely something I want to do.*

*Having worked in schools and it was going really well, children like me and me enjoy the work.*
Moreover, some reported the importance of family influence (n = 8), suggesting family influence may not be a generic primary reason for choosing a teaching career but could be important for some participants in their choice of a teaching career. In the following responses, participants expressed how their family members were being influential in their decision to become a teacher.

* I come from a family of teachers so I have been surrounded by it from an early age and always imagined myself being one.

* My family is full of teachers; I was always surrounded by a discussion on topics regarding teaching.

* Parental support mostly. They thought I would be great at it.

There also some respondents succinctly reported the importance of their prior teachers or learning experience at school (n = 5) in the choice of teaching. Unexpectedly, three of them reported that having a bad teacher and a negative learning experience at school had an impact on the decision to enter the teaching profession as noted in their responses below.

* The teaching style of my primary two teachers influenced my decision to become a teacher. I dislike it very much.

* Bad experiences with teachers in school. Some teachers didn’t support me to achieve my full potential.

* My personal experience in primary school would be a major factor as I feel like I wasn’t given the opportunities and encouragement I should have.

In addition, a minority of participants mentioned that ‘poor job satisfaction at the previous job’ (n = 2), ‘the change of life style’ (n = 1), ‘flexibility of location, international opportunities, stepping stone for future educational study’ (n = 1) as an additional factor influencing the choice of teaching.

Overall, the responses given by participants to the two open-ended questions are generally covered in the items of within the questionnaire but also briefly add more information and little explanation to quantitative results to understand the reasons behind the decision to become a teacher.
4.2.4 Summary of questionnaire findings

This section discusses the suitability of the FIT-Choice scale applied to a Scottish context as well as outlines the questionnaire results produced from using the FIT-Choice scale. Overall, the FIT-Choice model fitted the data satisfactorily and has achieved construct validity and acceptable reliability across this sample. The factor analysis of PCA test suggested a 4-factor solution that generally covers important concerns of participants in relation to the motivation for choosing a teaching career. The 4-factor structure (i.e. ‘general features of teaching as a career’, ‘altruistic influences’, ‘intrinsic influences’, ‘family and social influences’) offers a broad way to understand potential factors influencing choosing teaching as a career choice in the data obtained from participants in the Scottish context. The next section will combine the results from the questionnaire with a detailed analysis of interview data to understand further how those factors identified above impact the decision to choose a career in teaching.

4.3 Section Two: Linking questionnaire findings to interview findings

This section is to build the linkage between questionnaire data to interview data. The resulting structure of 4-factor solution from the quantitative analysis will inform the order of the content of this section to understand each factor in more details from interview data. Prior to moving on to present this connection, this section will begin with a description of the interview sample. Table 7 below shows the profile of interview participants, in terms of their age, gender, marital status and study programme. Following ethics considerations as outlined in Section 3.7 in Chapter Three, pseudonyms are used throughout this thesis to maintain anonymity.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Study Programme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Michael</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>PGDE Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>PGDE Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>PGDE Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brian</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>Married /cohabiting</td>
<td>PGDE Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frances</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>PGDE Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miranda</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>MEduc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kate</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>PGDE Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nancy</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>PGDE Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grace</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>PGDE Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caroline</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>Married /cohabiting</td>
<td>PGDE Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>PGDE Primary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Interview respondents’ profiles

As showed in Table 7, of 11 interview respondents, it might be worth noting that there are only one MEduc students and few males (n = 2) which may reflect, as discussed in Chapter Two, gender imbalance in favour of females within the teaching profession. The teaching level was mixed of primary (n = 6) and secondary (n = 5) and respondents’ age was varied ranging from 19 to 33. In relation to marital status, most respondents (n = 9) were single and only two were married or cohabiting.

Having identified the characteristics of interview participants, the next sections will present the results from questionnaire and interview on the first loading component of 4-factor structure obtained from PCA – ‘General features of teaching as a career choice’ factor.

### 4.3.1 General features of teaching as a career choice

This section combines quantitative data with interview data in relation to ‘general features of teaching as a career choice’ factor, including *social status, teacher morale, good salary,*
and work with children/adolescents. Given satisfaction with choice loaded on both ‘general feature of teaching as a career choice’ component and ‘intrinsic influences’ component in the factor analysis as presented in Section 4.2.2.1, I will present findings regarding job satisfaction in Section 4.3.3 under ‘intrinsic influences’.

4.3.1.1 Social status

With respect to participants’ responses to teacher’s social status, there seems a mismatch between questionnaire data and interview data. In the questionnaire, social status was found to be rated relatively high (M = 5.00, SD = 1.18), suggesting that participants generally believed that teaching and teachers were respected and valued in society. In interviews, however, the common view conveyed by respondents was negative, for example, ‘teachers’ status is low’; ‘teachers are not highly regarded and even undervalued by society’. Or as Frances commented, ‘on the individual level, they treated you respect and trust. But society as a whole, the society, the group view, it’s odd, not respect anymore’. Michael expressed a similar view and explained ‘teachers are low valued in society because people think teaching is not a difficult job. Sometimes parents blame teachers for children’s poor grades, poor behaviour. They think you are bad teachers’. In addition, Helen also expressed negative sentiments towards teachers’ status, by remarking, ‘they’re very undervalued by society. But at the same time, one of the strange things was you are the undervalued one, but you help as very high standard on the other. It’s very odd’.

Although a desire to seek a high-status job was not expressed explicitly by interview respondents, many of them were very much aware that teachers might not be regarded highly in the Scottish context. The following responses given by participants exemplify why they believe teachers are not highly valued in society and not seen as professionals.

1) ‘view teaching as an easy job, just dealing with kids but with working assurance and lengthy holidays’ (Frances, 28, PGDE Secondary).
2) ‘people may not realise the enormous workload teachers had’; ‘teacher always work at night and at weekend’ (Nancy, 26, PGDE Primary; Grace, 23, PGDE Primary).
3) ‘people may not know how hard children can be’ (Miranda, 19, MEduc; Grace, 23, PGDE Primary).
4) ‘people probably think that people choose teaching because they are not sure about what else they can do or they couldn’t be successful in another job’ (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary).
Concerning those responses above, people might underestimate teachers’ work and their professionalism. In contrast, most respondents (n = 9) themselves did view teachers as professionals and believed that teaching should be given more respect. As Jane argued, ‘People would think it’s quite an easy job. I don’t think it is. Teachers are undervalued but they should be valued. Nobody knows what teaching actually entails unless you are in there and doing it. I don’t think people really understand, never understand the value of teaching unless you experience what it’s like’. The following responses show why respondents themselves perceived teachers as professionals.

1) ‘There are do and don’ts to be a teacher’ (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary).
2) ‘The nature of teaching is education. The teacher is recognised as the educated person, not only educated, but they are trusted to educate other people’ (France, 28, PGDE Secondary).
3) ‘Teachers are professionals when they work and for their personal life as well because they are being role model to the students’ (Michael, 24, PGDE Secondary).
4) ‘Teaching has responsibilities for young people’ (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary; Michael, 24, PGDE Secondary).
5) ‘People need to be trained as a teacher, for example, the teacher education course, the CPD course’ (Continuing Professional Development course) (Nancy, 26, PGDE Primary).

A minority of respondents, by contrast, who reported teacher as least professional not necessarily questioned the knowledge and skills teachers need to be equipped with to become a teacher. Rather, they believed that the teaching profession was considered as less professional when compared to other professional jobs such as doctor or lawyer. For example, Brian commented:

_I think teachers are maybe at the bottoms of professionals. They are just barely professionals. I think in society, when you said to someone think of a professional, the first person would not be a teacher. Maybe, a lawyer, a doctor, or someone worked in the office and teachers maybe not, you know._ (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

In general, there seems a strong sense from many interview participants that the public often overlooks the important role of teachers in education but they are the ones who deliver the education at school and help students in many ways. As Frances commented, ‘people forget to be grateful about teachers. I think people forget to be grateful for the most important things in life. Teachers are low valued. But they are important. But they forget to value them’.
Brian expressed a similar sentiment, remarking ‘people often talked about if you didn’t know what else you can do, so you became a teacher. Or you couldn’t find another job so you became a teacher. I think it’s not very well respected. I think it would put me off going into teaching initially because it’s not respected’. Moreover, he reported, when he embarked on PGDE secondary course and was talking to people about what he was doing on the course, ‘the no.1 response was why are you doing that? Are you crazy? I wouldn’t become a teacher. Even teachers I talked to, like, why are you becoming a teacher? That would not be something I would recommend’. Taken together, those findings above may be of help to explain why teaching is not generally perceived as a high-status occupation. Those discouraging feedback towards the decision to become a teacher are creating a negative image of the teaching profession and demeaning teachers’ capacities. In one sense, as discussed in Chapter Two, having low respect and value for the teaching profession might be detrimental to teachers’ morale and motivation to stay in teaching in the long term.

In Caroline’s case, however, teacher’s status was not an important consideration in the career choice of teaching. What motivated her to choose a career in teaching derived from the love of teaching rather than the prestige and status, as illustrate through the following extract.

Teacher’s social status is not something I have been too bothered about. That’s not something that concerns me. I don’t think myself, did that person over there think less of me because they are a doctor and I am a teacher. I don’t think of it in that way at all…I like teaching, so I go to teaching. (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary)

Emma was exceptional in commenting that people showed a high degree of respect for teachers in Scotland. She showed a positive attitude towards the status of the teaching profession in Scotland, despite being persuaded not to go into teaching due to teachers’ low status and salary, as noted in the following excerpt.

In Scotland, I think teachers got a high social status. People have a lot of respect for teachers. They don’t view it as a low job. Like, oh, you are a teacher, that’s great. You must be really smart if you are a teacher. I had a friend from Romania who I did my undergraduate with, she was, oh, you want to be a teacher, teachers get paid nothing, not highly regarded, that’s not a good job to have. She has a different outlook. But in Scotland, they are really highly respected for what they do. (Emma, 21, PGDE Secondary)

This sub-section related to participants’ perspectives on social status and career prestige of the teaching profession in Scotland. It was unexpected to find the inconsistency between questionnaire data and interview data in participants’ responses to teacher’s social status. In
the questionnaire, the majority of the participants rated highly on teachers’ social status, suggesting that teaching and teachers were generally perceived as high in status. Nevertheless, in interviews, although the perceptions and interpretations of teachers’ status might differ amongst interview participants, the general responses showed that most of them believed that teachers were not highly respected and often received discouraging remarks and little recognition from the public, indicating quite a negative view and attitude towards teachers’ social status. What was striking in their accounts was that how teachers were undervalued and underappreciated by society, which generated a sense of unfairness as the ‘job image’ of teaching. On the other hand, there were a quite handful of interview participants who held positive perspective on teachers’ prestige, believing that teaching and teachers were highly regarded in Scotland. The issue of teachers’ social status will also be explored and discussed in more detail in Discussion Chapter (see Section 6.3.3.2). The next section presents the data from questionnaire and interview concerning another component consisting of ‘General features of teaching as a career choice’ factor – good salary.

4.3.1.2 Good salary

Good salary construct evaluates participants’ views about a teaching career in terms of earning a good salary. Drawing on questionnaire findings, good salary (M = 4.37, SD = 1.16) was found to be rated below 5 and just above the midpoint. Moreover, participants appeared to show different attitudes about teachers’ salary: 48% of questionnaire participants reported that teachers earn a good salary; 30% of participants stayed neutral on the statement that teachers earn a good salary; 22% believed teachers’ salary was low. In interviews, a general sense of teachers’ salary was very negative. Of 11 interviewees, seven participants expressed clearly that teaching was low in salary and teachers were underpaid. Some argued that teachers’ salary was not able to afford a high standard of living, remarking ‘the salary, not good. Teaching is not paid well. It’s okay for the basics, but, you know, it wouldn’t be enough to get a nice car or a nice house’. Some believed that teachers often overworked but were not sufficiently paid for working extra hours at home, and the following excerpts are relevant examples.

Teaching should be paid more for what they do. I think teachers have a heavy workload. Teaching is not solely about being in the classrooms, Teacher do work at home, work at the weekend. (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary)

The workload is enormous, the whole planning, evaluating, and reflecting what you’re doing, reporting, and assessment etc., massive work to do. So
you actually do a lot of work than they actually paid for. So I think the teacher should be paid more. (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary)

From those extracts above, there seems a strong sense that Caroline and Jane were not satisfied with teachers’ salary and feeling that teachers were treated unfairly in the matter of salary. As Michael summed it up succinctly, ‘teachers were undervalued in terms of salary’.

It was encouraging to discover that those negative perspectives on teacher’s salary might not necessarily be detrimental to participants’ motivation for pursuing a career in teaching. In interviews, four respondents expressed that they were still willing to enter the teaching profession despite teaching was not well paid. As Miranda and Frances explained, they chose to enter the teaching profession for enjoyment or caring about children rather than for the money teachers earn. For these respondents, intrinsic and altruistic aspects of teaching were more important than financial reward in their decision to choose a teaching career, as illustrated in the following excerpts.

*I do think teachers get underpaid for what they do. If you really want to do it, it wouldn’t really matter. I feel if you enjoy what you are doing, then you do it. If you don’t enjoy what you’re doing, then don’t do it. Teaching is one of those jobs that are going to get a good salary but you are not going to get the best salary. But it shouldn’t really matter. Like you are there for the enjoyment rather than the money.* (Miranda, 19, M Educ)

*Clearly, your pay is not very good. But this job also attracts people because they care about children. I don’t think they do for the money although it would be nice for teachers if they weren’t facing such financial struggles sometimes.* (Frances, 28, PGDE Secondary)

A few respondents (n=3), in contrast, held a more positive (and perhaps realistic) view about teacher’s salary, knowing that teachers are likely to earn a good starting salary and have the potential to increase this with yearly salary increments. Moreover, they placed value on spiritual rewards from a teaching career such as the enjoyment and fulfilment gained from working with children rather than the financial reward of teaching, as shown in the extracts below.

*I think the salary has the potential to be quite good because it goes up every year. If you progressed onto the head teacher, it goes up again. But I don’t think you go teaching for the money. It’s a vocation rather than a job because you spend a lot of time on that. So you want to be a good teacher, you care about the kids, you like working with kids, the wages don’t really matter.* (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)
I think we don’t do it for the money. Especially compared to other countries, I lived in Switzerland for three years and I can get a much higher salary there, but I think, to be honest, I’m not looking for the best wages in the world but I just want a job that gives me satisfaction. Money doesn’t help. I think eventually the progression is not bad. You get a good starting salary as a probationer, and it goes up for years. It’s not letting you working towards the same salary every year. (Helen, 29, PGDE Primary)

I think a lot of people say it’s a low salary. But I don’t think the salary is everything. I think it’s overall package. If you’re considering the salary, obviously, it’s not the job for you. There is so much more that teaching can bring. So fulfilled with working with young people. Also the pension package, holidays. That’s good. In terms of the salary, I would be prepared to take a lower salary, knowing that there are other things that would make it worthwhile. (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary)

However, there is one male respondent (Brian) who conveyed explicitly that a low salary would undermine their motivation for pursuing a teaching career. In Brian’s case, he believed that when he was married and had children, teacher’s salary alone would be difficult to manage the family expenses, and therefore felt a need for a greater level of income to support his family. In this regard, the view on teacher’s salary may be personal and more concerned with the life stage participants experienced (e.g. marital status, parental experience).

I think that was another reason I would refuse teaching. It’s not well paid, you know, quite challenging, I had to look for another job, maybe getting some other income from something else or maybe doing something for the holiday. I need to earn some more money. That probably could be one thing I had to off teaching. Just because the salary is quite limited. Especially, when I had a family, a wife, and children. If just one salary, a teacher salary, it could make life, you know... must be very challenging. (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

This section sheds light on the participants’ perceptions and attitude towards teachers’ salaries. Both quantitative and qualitative data indicate that opinions and comments towards teachers’ salaries were not always universally shared and differences existed in relation to how participants define and interpret earning a good salary. In light of interview data, for example, some are positive about teachers’ salary, believing that teachers can earn a good starting salary and have the potential to increase with years; some, however, held quite negative perspectives in the sense that teachers’ salaries are insufficient to live a high-quality life or to support the whole family expenses or teachers are paid less for their working hours. Interestingly, in interviews, although some participants complained that teaching was not well paid even underpaid, they expressed clearly that they still want to become teachers.
because of the enjoyment and a sense of achievement obtained from teaching. Further discussion on the issue concerning teachers’ salaries will be provided later in Section 6.3.3.2 in Discussion Chapter. The following section presents the data from questionnaire and interview in relation to another component of ‘General features of teaching as a career choice’ factor – teacher morale.

**4.3.1.3 Teacher morale**

*Teacher morale* items in the questionnaire required participants to rate their judgments about the level of teachers’ morale and feeling valued by society (Watt and Richardson, 2007). The quantitative result revealed that 78% of participants perceived teacher’s morale was good. However, a general impression obtained from qualitative data on teacher’s morale was negative, viewing teacher’s morale was quite low. In the following three extracts, respondents expressed their views that a low level of morale was related to the experiences of enormous work stress, insufficient salary, and facing a difficult class.

*Their morale is low, I think. Teaching is a very stressful job and don’t get well paid enough. If you read any papers, something like any 5% of teachers will drop off after five years. They were not happy.* (Michael, 24, PGDE Secondary)

*I’ve been on a placement, what you hear in the staff room can be very very negative. The general confession was that teachers feel they have been overworked and underpaid.* (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary)

*I think the teacher morale is quite low. A lot of teachers are quite stressed, not just about their classroom teaching, but also the work they have to do after school. Although some of the staff enjoy teaching, their class is challenging, so you can see that they still had a bad day. You know, there are always challenges to face in the classroom, no matter how much experience you have. Expectations are really high from students, from parents, from administrators.* (Grace, 23, PGDE Primary)

Alternatively, teaching as a low-morale career might be based on a negative portray of teachers in the media, for example, a long-held public opinion, as discussed in Chapter Two, ‘*He who can, does. He who cannot, teaches*’ originally from George Bernard Shaw. Surprisingly, there seemed little disillusion with the decision to enter teaching due to this destructive perception about teaching. Respondents attached greater importance to their personal enjoyable feelings from teaching than being worried about people’s negative reaction towards the choice of teaching, as noted in their narratives below.
In general, I’m happy to do it. Really enjoy it. But it’s often looked down upon. If I tell someone I’m a teacher, it’s like, you couldn’t do the good stuff then you go teaching. I’m like, no, actually, I do enjoy doing it. But I understand it has a bad reputation. But I, myself love it, so it was all matters I guess. (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary)

Everybody told me not to do it. You are crazy. My friends, they were like, seriously, why did you go teaching? You will find a better job. But I really enjoy teaching, I can’t see myself doing anything else. (Michael, 24, PGDE Secondary)

As has been shown, in a general sense, there were some differences in responses to the level of teachers’ morale between questionnaire data and interview data. The majority of questionnaire participants indicated that the morale of teachers was good whereas interview data suggested teachers’ morale was low, deriving from experiencing excessive workload and pressure, inadequate financial rewards, a difficult class, and receiving negative remarks on teaching as a career choice. The next section presents the data from questionnaire and interview concerning another important component of ‘General features of teaching as a career choice’ factor – working with children/adolescents.

4.3.1.4 Working with children/adolescents

There was a consensus from both quantitative and qualitative data that working with children or young people was central to the decision to become a teacher. Working with children was important in the choice of teaching for 95% of questionnaire respondents. Similarly, in the interview settings, working with children was cited by most respondents (n = 8) as central to the decision to enter the teaching profession. Moreover, typical comments towards an opportunity to work with young people were ‘enjoyable, fulfilling and rewarding’. Such positive feelings from working with children gained from three areas: enjoying teaching activity; good communication with children; and, the love of children or adolescent and willingness to take care of them. In addition, participants expressed different preferences in the choice of working with the young people of different age. Not surprisingly, as noted in the following excerpts, respondents expressed an affinity with certain age groups of children reflected in their choice of programme.

I like working with kids in the primary. I like doing things with kids and helping them. Secondary kids are completely different. I think working with primary kids should be a lot more fun. (Miranda, 19, M Educ)
I prefer working with the younger ones. There’s a lot of transition and a lot of moving around from the secondary. Maybe the motivation isn’t that great to work in a secondary school... Because I think I enjoy primary more, and I like working with young children. (Helen, 29, PGDE Primary)

Actually, I had considered both. I thought, well, kids in primary school are so cute, I wouldn’t be able to tell them if they’re doing something bad. I prefer to work with older kids, so I choose to teach in secondary school. (Emma, 21, PGDE Secondary)

Moreover, the male respondents (n = 2), who intended to teach in a secondary school highlighted that they enjoyed working with teenagers compared to primary kids because they believed that people at secondary age could allow them to have a conversation in a more natural way. Two female respondents who decided to choose primary teaching conveyed that characteristics of primary kids such as enthusiasm, energy, innocence, and curiosity were attractions of becoming a primary school teacher. The following extracts show why male (Michael) and female respondents (Nancy and Kate) had a different choice in choosing between working with primary younger children or working with secondary older ones. These findings may elicit gender difference in preference of working with children at the different academic stage. But this conclusion should be viewed with caution, given there is a limited number of interview respondents.

I find secondary is a bit mature and you can actually have discussions. They are more like real people. Being with the kids, I have to look after them, I don’t think I can cope with that. (Michael, 24, PGDE Secondary)

I think in the primary, children are very enthusiastic whereas in secondary, it will be more difficult to manage maybe. That’s why I choose primary teaching. (Nancy, 26, PGDE Primary)

Probably the kids. They are cute and creative. Kids are just lovely. They are nice at heart like they don’t have prejudice and they are just eager to learn things. (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

This section has presented the data from questionnaire and interview in relation to ‘General features of teaching as a career choice’ factor. What follows next will present the data from questionnaire and interview on the second component of 4-factor solution extracted from PCA test – ‘altruistic factors’ which explained previously in Section 4.2.2.1.
4.3.2 Altruistic influences

This section will combine and to certain extent aggregate questionnaire data with qualitative data with respect to altruistic factors, including shape future of children and adolescents, make social contribution, and enhance social equity.

4.3.2.1 Shaping the future of children or adolescents

From questionnaire data, the construct on shape future of children or adolescents received very high ratings. Influencing or shaping the value of the next generation was important in the decision to teach for 97% of questionnaire participants. Similarly, in interviews, most respondents (n = 7) indicated they chose teaching because they wanted to positively impact on young people and make a difference in their lives. Such desire of shaping young people’s values and lives might connect to how they perceived teaching as a career choice and what their expectations and aspirations of teaching. In Brian’s case, for example, the idea of entering the teaching profession was perhaps influenced by his longing for a meaningful career that could impact on other people and the belief that teaching was helpful in meeting such expectations. As noted in his narrative below, Brian’s career aspiration of making a difference in people’s life, in conjunction with his belief that teaching as a way to help people and influence them, together influenced his decision to choose a teaching career.

*I think people always want to do something that matters with their lives. I think I like to impact the world. I thought teaching was a great way to do that...influence people. Like being able to make a difference and being support for them growing up...I think teaching is a vocation that is supposed to be influencing young people’s lives.* (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

Similarly, Kate expected to find a career that could influence people in a positive way, as noted in her narrative below. She believed that she would gain a sense of satisfaction from helping and supporting people and giving them a good experience at school.

*For my career, I could have a positive impact on some or a few people. A few people when they are older like me, can look back and say, oh, I had a good time at school. I learn this and I really enjoy it. It would be great. It would probably give me satisfaction when I am older to think that I was of help or encouraged people.* (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)
4.3.2.2 Making social contribution

Drawing on questionnaire data, the construct *making social contribution* was highly rated by the vast majority of respondents. Making a worthwhile social contribution was important for 98% of questionnaire participants, and giving back to society was important in the choice of teaching for 92% of questionnaire participants. However, surprisingly, in interviews, no one expressed explicitly the role of making social contribution in the decision to become a teacher. Despite this, many respondents did convey other altruistic dimensions such as helping and developing young people. In the following excerpts, respondents expressed the desire to help children learn and achieve their full potential but also to help children grow in a happy and healthy way.

*I want to open the mind of young people, give them the best experience at school, become critical and understand [lessons in-depth] ...First, obviously, is the pupil learning. Make sure learning is the top responsibility. Secondly, sort of looking at children’s welfare. It’s really important as well. Making sure that their needs are met, they are happy.* (Emma, 21, PGDE Secondary)

*Everybody is supposed to be here for a reason. I thought mine is to be able to help. It allows me to help as much as I possibly can. I think [the help] could be the student development, helping them to be the best they can be. I think that’s the most important thing. So my responsibility is to help children to be the best they can be, I’m just trying to help.* (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary)

In addition, Jane also conveyed a sense of ‘morally good’ when she was thinking about a career in teaching. As noted in her narratives below, she chose to study on teacher education over law because she believed that becoming a teacher was morally better than becoming a lawyer. She expressed the importance of engaging in a job infused with moral consideration in her career decision-making and considered teaching as an important and morally rewarding career choice.

*I actually thought of doing law before I was going to the university. I was debating on doing law or doing English teaching. You only had a certain amount of time in your life, you want to make yourself enjoy life but also do something meaningful. Law perhaps made me get more money but I wouldn’t be very interested in or had to defend somebody who I wouldn’t believe deserve my defence. So I think English is something everyone deserves to be taught and everyone deserves the best chance they can. So if I can do that, that would be so much better, and morally is all good.* (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary)
4.3.2.3 Enhancing social equity

The item *enhance social equity* was rated highly by questionnaire respondents, and 72.5% of respondents agreed with the statement that enhance social equity was important in their decision to choose a teaching career. In interviews, respondents expressed the desire to give an equal opportunity to the children from different backgrounds, and they wanted young people to be treated equally at school and desired to support them to be the best version of themselves.

*I think, as a teacher, you have a variety of children in your class from different backgrounds, in a different situation. But I like to think that when you come to class, it doesn’t matter. They all get the same experiences. I want to do my best to treat them equally and give them the opportunity to do well.* (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

*I want to go to a profession like special education and be a teacher or music therapist. I also want to change a few things to make it more inclusive.* (Miranda, 19, MEduc)

*I would say to give opportunities not just a career or knowledge. To give people opportunity to be the best version of themselves. Especially my subject, religious and moral, like using my subject to help a young person decide what kind of person they want to be, what their values and beliefs are.* (Frances, 28, PGDE Secondary)

This section has presented the data from questionnaire and interview in relation to the second loading factor – ‘altruistic factor’, containing the structure of *shape future of children and adolescents, make social contribution, and enhance social equity*. The following sections presents the results from questionnaire and interview on the third loading component extracted from PCA test – ‘intrinsic influences’.

4.3.3 Intrinsic Influences

In this section, the findings from the questionnaire and interview data in relation to intrinsic factors will be presented and linked, including *intrinsic career value, job satisfaction, and perceived teaching abilities*.

4.3.3.1 Intrinsic career value

Intrinsic career value refers to ‘the enjoyment one gets from carrying out a given task’ (Watt and Richardson, 2007, p. 171). Questionnaire results showed that the vast majority of
participants (around 95%) rated the questionnaire items ‘I am interested in teaching’ and ‘I like teaching’ as important in the decision to choose a teaching career. However, when coming to the item ‘I’ve always wanted to be a teacher’, 31% of the respondents agreed with this statement, suggesting that for most participants in this study, teaching was not necessarily a job that they always wanted to do or interested in from an early age. In the same vein, interview respondents also shared a similar view, indicating that intrinsic motives such as enjoyment and a sense of satisfaction as central to the decision to teach. For example, typical responses such as ‘To have a job that I enjoy. That’s it…’; ‘I enjoy it, that’s the main thing’; ‘My motivation is basically through self-satisfaction and enjoyment’.

Further to the questionnaire results, interview responses provided stories of the decision to become a teacher at different life stage. The following extracts reflect how respondents chose teaching as a career early or later in life based on their positive emotions and perceptions about teaching. For example, Grace expressed her longing to become a teacher early in life; Brian was not interested in teaching at a young age at all but he wanted to enter the teaching profession after a positive experience of teaching. More importantly, it was this experience that helped him realise that teaching was an important and rewarding career and he was keen to make an impact on young people’s lives in a meaningful way.

_I chose to be a primary school teacher because it’s something I’ve always wanted to do since I was in primary school. Teaching was something I always think about... I’d really enjoy doing it. Definitely like it._ (Grace, 23, PGDE Primary)

_When I was younger, I didn’t think about teaching. I thought about pilot, lawyer, and footballer. So teaching wasn’t something I would think about doing. I didn’t think that would be something I would enjoy. But once I had an experience of teaching, I thought how important it was and how much you could influence people and be a positive role model. Really develop young people’s life actually this is something I really enjoy doing. You can see the importance of it. But it’s not always I feel that way, but it’s something I had to experience as I grow._ (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

Although most interviewees placed the high value on the importance of enjoyment, enjoyable features of teaching might vary for participants, and thus present in many forms. They are summarised as enjoyment with respect to:

1) working with children
2) the subject discipline
3) the activities of teaching (e.g. preparing a lesson or delivering a lesson)
4) the opportunity to learn while teaching
5) the challenging elements of teaching

Furthermore, there might be some differences in the enjoyable aspects of teaching between participants who intended to teach in primary (n = 6) and who intended to teach in secondary (n = 5). As noted previously in this chapter, primary and secondary student teachers may prefer to work with young people at different academic level. It was also found that respondents’ comments on reasons for choosing primary teaching and secondary teaching also in relation to the subject(s) matter and teaching materials.

Three out of five respondents conveyed that they chose to teach in a secondary school because they wanted to specialise and maintain engagement with their university degree subject. The comments such as ‘I enjoy my subject and I want to pass on my knowledge to young people’ or ‘I enjoyed my subject (English) at the university. I hope to share my passion with my students’ were typical. In contrast, for primary student teachers, four out of six respondents expressed that they had no passion for a specific discipline and they were unwilling to teach the same subject all the time. Rather, they conveyed explicitly that an opportunity to teach a variety of subjects was an important attraction of primary teaching. For example, a typical response was ‘I quite like the variety in primary school. I didn’t want to be so specific. Feel like you won’t feel bored cause you’re not doing the same thing’.

Moreover, as illustrated in the following excerpts, two respondents chose primary teaching over secondary teaching because they liked the creative part of primary teaching and considered teacher’s autonomy in primary school as appealing.

*I prefer primary teaching because it gives you the opportunity to be creative. You can decide what to teach and how you teach it. It’s a creative process, really.* (Helen, 29, PGDE Primary)

*I did consider education for secondary. But the primary is more random, like there is a lot more to be. For me, I like to design interesting and creative lessons for kids, that’ll be so much fun. No need to focus on the books. But Secondary is very strict to the book and it has standard tests so you have to do everything in a certain way to get that. For the primary, you teach the basics but you can teach everything whatever you see fit for the children.* (Miranda, 19, MEduc)

In the last extract above, Miranda who intended to teach in primary also commented negatively towards being strict to the textbooks or exams in secondary teaching. Interestingly, Jane who decided to teach in secondary school disapproved of test-driven in
secondary school and the way teachers caring more about the exam results than caring students’ needs and feelings. She reported:

*I’d like to work in a school where students are really valued. I care about how their feelings, what their personal best is, rather than just focusing on the textbooks or just caring the scores, like, they need to get this level, anything below this level is unacceptable. It happens in secondary school. That’s just teaching to the test, just teaching to get numbers. So students just see the numbers. I don’t want to be in teaching if it was only about the numbers.* (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary)

### 4.3.3.2 Satisfaction with choice

Questionnaire participants, as noted previously in Section 4.2.2.2, showed a high level of satisfaction with the choice of teaching. In interviews, respondents reported further about their job satisfaction and expressed the source of their sense of satisfaction. The contributors towards job satisfaction from teaching might vary from person to person. The following excerpts illustrate various ways to achieve job satisfaction from teaching.

*I love to see students sort of mastering something, see them learning things and getting better. It’s fantastic. You get a lot of satisfaction.* (Frances, 28, PGDE Secondary)

*You got satisfaction seeing them doing something really well even I didn’t expect them to do well, and seeing them understand something that they just never been able to get... I’m happy I chose to do this. I really enjoy it. I enjoy what to do day-to-day.* (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

*I think teaching is challenging, stressful, and difficult. It was awful. But when you’ve achieved something like that, you can get a lot from it. If you break that wall and that barrier, you can yield a lot from it, you can get a lot of satisfaction, I’m optimistic, maybe naïve, but I care about my enthusiasm and my interest that will help me stay.* (Michael, 24, PGDE Secondary)

In the extracts above, Frances and Kate’s sense of satisfaction derived from supporting student’s learning development and seeing children challenging themselves and making progress. This finding implies a possible underlying connection between altruistic motives and intrinsic motives, reflecting the feature of an overlap between altruistic motives and intrinsic motives as discussed previously in Chapter Two (see Section 2.4). In Michael’s case, however, his source of job satisfaction was through successfully overcoming the difficulties in teaching and work-related stress. Moreover, he also expressed that the interest and passion about teaching would sustain his motivation to stay in the teaching profession, despite being aware of teaching as a difficult and stressful job.
4.3.3.3 Perceived teaching abilities

Drawing on the questionnaire data, perceived teaching abilities received high ratings, and about 94% of participants considered perceived teaching abilities as an important influence in the choice of teaching. In interviews, participants also shared similar a view that the confidence in teaching capacity had an impact on the decision to choose a teaching career. Further to questionnaire results, interview respondents expressed that their confidence in teaching was built based on their previous positive experiences of working with young people. For example, in the following three excerpts, they found that they were good at teaching, in terms of supporting young people learning, being able to give effective instructions, building a good relationship with students or receiving positive feedback from students or colleagues. These perceptions perhaps made them believe that they had good qualities to become a teacher and they were likely to enjoy teaching as a future career.

*I feel quite confident about my ability to teach. I know I can do it. It’s nice to see the students getting better and sort of master[ing] something. See the students really enjoy....... I have my own class for more than a year [teaching young people English], so I feel confident.* (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

*I feel like I’m good at working with young people. ... I get a quite good personality to get on with kids. See them learn new things they didn’t know before. That’s great to see that happen. I believe in myself in terms of the ability to teach children ... I get on with them very well.* (Emma, 21, PGDE Secondary)

*I did a programme that helped out other students when they’re struggling in the class. So I did a lot of things to make sure they were focused, and to make sure they were understanding what was happening because teachers may say something like they didn’t get that. I said to them the language perhaps they understood more [about what teachers said]. I was like, oh, I’m good at this. So I think since then it’s always been at the back of my mind. Maybe teaching... I’ve been told I’m good. I feel I’m good. I enjoy doing it. They’re learning. They’re engaged. So I feel I’m good at this.* (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary).

On the other hand, it was somewhat unexpected to find that there were two participants who described themselves as ‘less confident person about their ability to teach’. It may well be that the ability to teach effectively is not the most important factor for them when considering a teaching career. In Grace’s case, the choice of teaching was predominantly influenced by her love for children and the enjoyment of working with children, despite a lack of confidence in classroom management. Alternatively, for Helen, although she was positive
about doing a teaching job, she was being cautious to judge her teaching capability and aware
of the opportunities to continually grow. The excerpts below exemplify their views:

I go teaching because I feel like I’m good at working with an individual
pupil. But I feel like I can’t manage the whole class. It’s difficult...children,
I think is what I like most about teaching. I like their enthusiasm. They’re
just innocent and keen to learn things. I did a lot of things with children
like playing games. I found I really enjoy it. (Grace, 29, PGDE Primary)

Coming from someone who has low confidence. I’m quite hard on myself.
But when I was speaking to people, they said that I am really doing a good
job. But I’m not finishing the course, there’s always something you can
improve on. Even once you graduate from the course, I’ll still be learning
things. You’ve always got the opportunity to improve. (Helen, 29, PGDE
Primary)

This section has presented the result from questionnaire and interview in relation to ‘intrinsic
influences’ including the structure of intrinsic career value, job satisfaction, and perceived
teaching abilities. The following sections presents the data from questionnaire and interview
on the fourth component of 4-factor solution obtained from PCA – ‘family and social factors’
as explained previously in Section 4.2.2.1.

4.3.4 Family and Social influences

This section will be connecting questionnaire data to interview data with respect to the issues
of time for family and social influences.

4.3.4.1 Time for family

In the FIT-Choice scale, the constructed time for family measured the extent to which
participants had selected teaching because teaching hours and school holidays allow for
family commitments and desirable quality-of-life issues (Watt and Richardson, 2007). From
questionnaire data, time for family received relatively low ratings, suggesting that many
participants were not highly influenced by the concept of time for family in the decision to
teach. It may be that these responses are conditioned by the fact that many of the
questionnaire respondents (75%) stated they were single as noted previously in Table 2 (see
Section 3.5), although family commitment may become more relevant to them in time as
they move through the life-course. In the interview settings, the notion of family time was
not cited explicitly as an influential factor in the choice of teaching, but, surprisingly, as the
reasons for leaving the teaching profession. Respondents, especially females, conveyed that
they would consider quitting teaching when they had family and children. This may not necessarily signal that they have already lost their enthusiasm for teaching or are unsatisfied with their choice of teaching. Rather, they expressed the concern that teachers’ excessive workload and long working hours would not allow sufficient time for family responsibilities as noted in the following extracts.

The workload is crazy. Teachers need to work very hard, not only in the school. They work at night-time and weekends. So I think if I had children, I might give up teaching for a few years so that I could focus on raising them. (Frances, 28, PGDE Secondary)

Obviously, I enjoy teaching and can’t wait to go. But since it has a lot of work thing, from what I’ve heard from another teacher as well, when you have a family, completely change things because the job is not your priority. I think it must be difficult to juggle with that school stuff and family home. I don’t have any doubts about going into teaching but I don’t know if that will change when I have a family. (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

However, in interviews, three respondents gave positive responses to the work-life balance in teaching. They believed that teachers’ lengthy holiday entitlement could help them release the pressure and tension from the heavy workload in teaching to achieve a balanced lifestyle. Again, respondents articulated intrinsic and altruistic reasons as important in attracting them to teaching. In this sense, participants might view the holiday as the opportunity to relax and recharge themselves rather than the trigger of desire to pursue a career in teaching. The following extracts illustrate how respondents perceived teachers’ holiday entitlement in the decision to become a teacher.

I think people underestimated their work. Underestimated what they do such as planning, preparation. Definitely not. But I think teacher do have another advantage such as holidays. So I think kind of balance it. (Grace, 23, PGDE Primary)

I suppose no.1 would be a meaningful vocation to me, making sure those learners are successful, those are my care. But there are other things as well, I also have personal agenda, I like to go on holiday with my partner. So it’s a kind of the lifestyle you like to live to. (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary)

I think I really enjoy the job, and really enjoy being in the classrooms. That’s the most important thing. You know, teachers have holidays, I can go travelling in the break. I thought, well, it’s a good balance for life, a good break, and a meaningful job as well. (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)
4.3.4.2 Social influences

The FIT-Choice scale examines the social influence as ‘the influences of significant others such as family members, friends, and colleagues’ (Watt and Richardson, 2007, p. 174). Drawing on questionnaire data, in general, social influence was moderately rated by respondents as important in the choice of teaching. About half of questionnaire participants reported that their family (or the people they worked with) as important influenced their decision to become a teacher. In interviews, ‘significant others’ might play different roles in respondents’ decision to enter the teaching profession. The following two extracts show how ‘other people’ play a role in their choice of teaching.

*My uncle actually introduces teaching to me. It was his idea. He said primary school. I never thought about the primary. I was always keen on languages and thought about being a language teacher. But he suggested and encouraged me. Then I got experience and I love it. So I decided to go for primary teaching.* (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

*I knew a neighbour who was a teacher. She’s also a friend of mine. She always told me quite positive things in terms of the job satisfaction, in terms of the prospects. It’s a very flexible job. Then, I decided to have a try and had a lot of experience working with young people, teaching them my language. I really enjoy meeting people from different countries and teaching them English. I thought, yeah, it’s a good career to go into.* (Helen, 29, PGDE Primary)

In the excerpts above, for Kate and Helen, other people such as relative or friend played a positive role in their choice of teaching by encouraging and supporting them to consider the pursuit of teaching. However, interestingly, the respondents did not finalise the choice of teaching until they found the first-hand experience of teaching and felt the teaching process was pleasant. These findings suggest that ‘other people’ was a positive influence in drawing respondents’ attention to consider a career in teaching in the first place, and a sense of enjoyment in teaching experience is more likely to contribute to the final decision to enter the teaching profession.

Conversely, ‘other people’ (e.g. family member) was expressed by Emma as a negative factor influencing her decision to teach as noted in her narrative below. It was interesting to find that her mother was a teacher but suggested her not to choose a career in teaching. As a result, unexpectedly, she still intended to enter the teaching profession despite having such discouragement. The trigger in her decision to enter the teaching profession was the enjoyment gained from communicating with children and being told that she did well in
working with children. This result suggests that feeling enjoyable and receiving positive feedback may play a greater role than family dissuasion in her decision to become a teacher.

> When I started to think about what I might want to do, Oh, maybe I want to do teaching. My mom is a teacher. She always tells me you are not going to be a teacher, don’t be a teacher. You can do something different. But I’d like to do teaching. So in the end, I didn’t tell my mom...Partly because I always work with kids. I realised that I enjoy interacting with them. And a lot of people commented and said, oh, you worked really well with kids. So I think I should be a teacher. (Emma, 21, PGDE Secondary)

The previous sections have so far showed the linkage between quantitative questionnaire data to interview data and discussed how interview data could help explained questionnaire data. Given the interview data was analysed inductively as discussed previously in Section 3.9.2, the following Section 4.4 will present the findings from interviews to explore and address the issues of motivation for choosing a teaching career from pure qualitative perspectives.

### 4.4 Section three: Additional qualitative themes emerging from interviews

Thirty-six salient themes were identified and details in how they were labelled and the frequency of quotations are illustrated in Appendix 7. As explained earlier in Methodology Chapter (see Section 3.9.2), these themes have been sought to be connected either at the same level or in a hierarchy. Further details about how these codes were grouped and developed into the category are presented in Appendix 8. The top level of this hierarchy consists of nine components, that is, perceptions about teaching, intrinsic factors, previous teaching experience, altruistic factors, extrinsic factors, previous educational experience, teaching ability, the influence of other people, and doubts about teaching. These nine elements covered the themes arising from the interview data in relation to the motivation for choosing a teaching career.

The interview themes concerning intrinsic factors, teaching ability, the influence of other people were thematically aligned with or the FIT-Choice subscales – *intrinsic value, perceived teaching abilities, social influences*. The interview theme concerning altruistic factors overlapped with the factors produced from PCA – *Altruistic influences*. The interview themes regarding perceptions about teaching and doubts about teaching were largely related to the FIT-Choice subscales – *social status, good salary, teacher morale*. The questionnaire results on these subscales and how these relate to interview data have already
presented in the previous sections of this chapter. The following will feature a discussion of remaining interview themes which are not included in the four-factor structures from PCA, that is: 1) previous teaching experience, 2) educational experience in school(s), and 3) extrinsic factor, with respect to job security and travelling and how these themes related to the relevant subscales within the FIT-Choice model (i.e. Prior teaching and learning experiences, Job security, and Job transferability).

4.4.1 Previous teaching experience

In the light of questionnaire data which demonstrated, prior teaching and learning experiences received high means, perhaps suggests that the majority of questionnaire participants perceived previous teaching and learning experiences as important influences on the decision to enter the teaching profession. In line with quantitative findings, interview respondents reported that previous teaching (or teaching-like) experience greatly influence the decision to become a teacher. It is unexpectedly found in the interview that most respondents (n = 10) already had experience working with young people before embarking on teacher education programme. Of them, four respondents had opportunities to work with young people in a less formal setting than a real school such as nursing or coaching young people swimming or sailing in a summer camp; some (n = 3) had experience in teaching English to speakers of other languages in non-native English-speaking countries; and, some (n = 3) once worked as a classroom assistant. Many of the respondents expressed that the prior teaching or coaching experience helped them realise that they enjoyed working with children and wanted to get involved in teaching. The following three extracts give examples to show how respondents’ own positive experiences of teaching helped develop an interest in pursuing a career in teaching.

*I think the choice of teaching come from my working experience as an English teacher. I was living in Paris teaching English in a primary school. It wasn’t very long. But I loved it and I had so much fun working with young children. But before I went to Paris, I was not sure. Hopefully, it would be good. Then I went, I knew what it’s like. My confidence grew. So I feel I’m good at this and it’s an enjoyable career.* (Helen, 29, PGDE Primary)

*I had experience teaching English in the past in countries like Italy, France, and China, and I found really enjoyable. I like being around students and getting to know the teaching process. I found what definitely I want to do. But I didn’t have the teacher qualifications, so in order to kind of progress my career, I thought it was important I needed to get an official teaching certificate.* (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)
I completed my undergraduate and I didn’t know what I needed to do next. I spend a lot of time working with young people, teach them sailing in summer camps and doing other different things. I realised I enjoy it, a lot of people don’t enjoy it, but I did. (Michael, 24, PGDE Secondary)

From those excerpts above, when talking about such experience, respondents used the verbs such as ‘love’, ‘like’, ‘enjoy’ ‘have fun’ to describe how they felt. Those positive emotions and feelings from previous teaching (or teaching-like) experiences led them to seek formal training to become a qualified teacher and seriously consider entering the teaching profession. In addition, these positive experiences helped them understand what teaching entailed and gave them the confidence to take the role of teacher.

By contrast, two participants made negative comments about pursuing a career in teaching based on their own experience of teaching. They expressed that teaching was difficult and stressful work. Yet, they still wanted to become a teacher because they genuinely enjoyed teaching and gained a sense of satisfaction from inspiring children to learn and helping them making progress. The following excerpts are examples to show those negative responses to teaching as a career and how respondents have overcome difficulties associated to teaching.

I got the experience before I applied for the course. That gonna make me feel the school is a nice place to be, so I thought teaching would be the job I definitely wanted to do. But it was harder than I anticipated. There’s a lot of stress. Probably a quite difficult job. Kids make it worthwhile. At the end of the day you see they’re learning and making progress and they really engage and enjoy themselves, you feel better. So I enjoy what to do day-to-day. You get a lot of satisfaction. (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

I really really enjoyed that [experience of teaching Italian students English in a secondary school]. I also learned the difficulties of teaching. It can be tough. There’s always challenges ahead. For example, I remember I spent about three hours creating a sitting plan because I had so many students who didn’t like each other and this was happening in students’ lives. So I had to try to make them work together. Teaching needs a lot of hard work. But you still enjoy it. I know I love the job. (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary)

4.4.2 Educational experience in school(s)

Drawing on questionnaire data, 84% respondents agreed the item from the FIT-Choice scale ‘I have had positive learning experiences’ as important in the decision to choose teaching as a career. In interviews, participants’ comments towards previous learning experience as an important influence in the choice of teaching might vary, ranging from definitely (n = 5),
probably \((n = 3)\), and never \((n = 3)\). For respondents who cited previous educational experience as important, both positive and negative educational experiences would be influential in their decision to enter the teaching profession. Respondents expressed that their choice of teaching was inspired by their ‘good’ former teachers, and they wanted to inspire next generations in the way they were inspired. In other words, those ‘good’ teachers were being role models in the sense that participants hoped to be like them to help young people fulfill their potential and to create a positive and enjoyable school time for them. The following accounts were relevant examples:

Yeah, definitely. I had a biology teacher. Actually, I didn’t do biology as exam subject, so I never get a standard grade. But the teacher was so fantastic, so supportive and really encouraging. So I managed to do it so well. She encouraged me to go on with it. I wish I could have a positive impact on some people the way my teacher had on me. (Emma, 21, PGDE Secondary)

Probably yes. Probably because I had good school experiences and I had good teachers, probably I was inspired to be like them... make sure students enjoy their study. (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

Yes, school experience did influence my choice of teaching... I think I had good teachers and I had bad teachers. I hope I can like those good teachers. (Nancy, 26, PGDE Primary)

There were respondents, by contrast, who did not consider previous learning experience as an influence in the decision to teach, despite having positive educational experience at school. As noted in the following excerpts from their narratives, those respondents were attracted to the teaching profession because they liked teaching and working with young people, and/or they wanted to share their specialist knowledge with young people.

I had good experience in schools. I can read, I can write, I was confident. I was content. But my passion for teaching doesn’t come from school, it comes from the sailing stuff and working with young people. I like to teach them the sailing stuff. When I was in school, it’s just a school, you be there and learn. (Michael, 24, PGDE Secondary)

[School experience did] not really [influence my choice of teaching]. I had positive school experience and there were teachers - I quite like them. But these are not the reason for choosing teaching. I think teaching is fun, with a different experience every day. I like teaching, that’s the most important thing. (Grace, 23, PGDE Primary)

In addition, it was interesting and unexpected to note that respondents conveyed how negative learning experience played a role in their choice of a teaching career. The typical comment was ‘I want to improve things I didn’t enjoy at school’ or ‘I wanted to inspire
children to achieve their full potential as I feel certain teachers didn’t support me to achieve my full potential at school’. These responses imply that respondents who did not enjoy their previous school time might not necessarily refuse to work as a teacher in school. Those who once had negative school experiences are willing to enter the teaching profession because they desired to offer next generation a positive and enjoyable school experience when they became teachers as described in the following narrative.

Definitely. I think the primary teacher should be creative but I never had creative teachers... I don’t want that to happen, I want to be like a fun classroom, students learn fun things. It sounds so silly, but I feel like the more fun you have for the subject, the more enjoyment you will get, the more you actually like it. So I would like to change that. I think I came into teaching, hoping that I can improve it and make it better. I want to give other people good experiences. (Miranda, 19, M Educ)

4.4.3 Job security

The quantitative result revealed that the FIT-Choice subscale job security was reported by most participants as an important factor influencing their choice of teaching. Around 76% of the questionnaire participants agreed with the FIT-Choice items that ‘teaching will offer a steady career path’ and ‘teaching will provide a reliable income’. Consistent with questionnaire data, in interviews, respondents were positive about the job security of teaching. As illustrated in the following excerpt, pragmatic issues such job security, job demand and job prospects were often considered in the career decision-making.

The job security. You can always come back to teaching. There always gonna be in demand for teachers, even if you are working as a substitute supplying teacher. (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

From my short experience, from the course, I think it’s a good career to go into. For job security, for prospect...I think the fact is that you can come back to it as well. So, if I want to have a family in not so distance future, teaching is something I can always return to. (Helen, 29, PGDE Primary)

4.4.4 Travelling

From the questionnaire data, 42% of respondents rated the FIT-Choice item that ‘teaching may give me the chance to work abroad’ as important, and 30% of respondents agreed with the FIT-Choice item that ‘Teaching will be a useful job for me to have when travelling’ as important. In interviews, travelling was not mentioned by respondents as a generic
influential in the choice of teaching. Of particular note, however, two interview respondents who intended to teach English overseas reported the issue of travelling as the key to their decision in undertaking teacher education programme and to the choice of a teaching career. The following two extracts present how they perceived travelling as an attraction in their decision to become a teacher. They expressed their love of travelling the world and believed that teaching English could provide them the opportunity to work overseas and see the world. One participant (Helen) also stressed the value of their travelling experience as being useful to classroom teaching.

For me, I’m more interested in teaching English abroad, like international school, get into travel. I really enjoy travelling, seeing the world, I want to experience with the new cultures. That’s the main motivation really for me doing a teaching degree. (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

I am a big traveller. I like travelling. So that’s why I’d like to teach English abroad. Make money to travel. I’m just so excited about exploring a new culture and learning new things. Just experience something new. It’s also good for the students. When you are in school, they are in a little safe place. I think there is a very big world out there. It’s important to open their minds and know the world. (Helen, 29, PGDE Primary)

4.5 Reflection on the linkage between interview themes and PCA four factor structure

This section aims to discuss the linkage between the themes identified in the interview through thematic analysis and the factors within the FIT-Choice subscales) that emerged from the Principle Component Analysis (PCA). The four-factor structure (i.e. general features of teaching; altruistic influences; intrinsic influences; family and social influences) derived from quantitative PCA suggests the generic motivations for choosing a teaching career in this sample. There were nine main themes in relation to the motivation to teach emerging from the interview data, i.e. perceptions about teaching, intrinsic factors, previous teaching experience, altruistic factors, extrinsic factors, previous educational experience, teaching ability, the influence of other people, and doubts about teaching. These interview themes were generally aligned with the PCA factors in explaining the main drive that leads to the choice of a career in teaching. The interview themes and the factor structure produced from PCA solution shared the similarity that intrinsic, altruistic, extrinsic factors and perceived teaching competence were the common and main factors that strongly influence participants’ decision to enter the teaching profession. For example, highly endorsed motivations including perceived teaching abilities, intrinsic and altruistic-type dimensions such as passion, wanting to help young people and improving society, extrinsic reasons
(salary, job conditions, and extrinsic factors in terms of salary and work conditions were evidenced in the interview responses and PCA factors.

Further, the interview themes provided additional explanations in understanding the four-factor structure that was obtained from the PCA. For example, with respect to perceived teaching abilities emerged from PCA factor structure – ‘Intrinsic Influences’, interview participants conveyed that a sense of teaching competence was formed and developed based on their positive previous experience of working with children. Three interview participants reported that they had experiences of teaching English abroad before studying on teacher education courses and found the pleasure of teaching and how teaching fitted with their ability and skill set. This finding suggests that participants’ positive previous experiences of teaching and working with children are likely to have had an important impact on developing their confidence in becoming a teacher and lay the foundation for considering a career in teaching. Thus, their influence of previous teaching experience was identified as an interview theme in relation to their decision to enter the teaching profession. However, in light of the quantitative results on PCA factors, previous teaching experience did not emerge in the PCA solution as a contributing factor influencing the choice of teaching. It may be that the factor in relation to previous teaching experience is likely to be dependent on participants’ personal experience and how they interpret this experience from specific interview responses but it is not necessarily the case in identifying the trend or understanding the common elements of motivations based on the general questionnaire responses.

Moreover, the interview theme in relation to doubts about teaching offered supplementary explanations in understanding the PCA factor in terms of social status and good salary. The quantitative results of PCA suggested that participants’ perceptions about teachers’ salary, status and working hours were identified as important factors influencing the decision to teach. Complementing this quantitative result, in interviews, participants articulated that teachers’ excessive workload and long working hours would exert negative influences on their family life and responsibilities; a low level of salary and social status made them feel that teachers were not valued by society. These negative perspectives of the teaching profession would give rise to some uncertainties and doubts about pursuing a career in teaching (or even the consideration of leaving teaching). Considering the results from PCA and thematic analysis, participants’ perceptions about teachers’ workload, working hours, salary and prestige highlight their important role in influencing their decision to stay in, or leave the teaching profession, though they might not be the driving forces attracting them to teach.
In addition, some of the interview themes also elicited other motivational factors (i.e. previous teaching experience, educational experience in schools, extrinsic factors in terms of job security and travelling) that were not covered in the four-factor structure from PCA, as discussed in Section 4.4. Again, these themes, which emerged from the interviews reflect how motivation and perceptions about teaching differ at the individual level and how participants’ personal experiences can influence the decision to become a teacher. For example, the interview participant who cited the opportunity of travelling as important reason for teaching expressed that they had experience in teaching English in non-native English-speaking countries and remarked that teaching have supported themselves to travel the world. However, considering the concept of travelling or working abroad did not emerge in PCA factor structure, travelling-related factor may not be a generic or dominant influence in the decision to teach but may become important for the cohort who intended to teach languages when considering a career in teaching.

Overall, the PCA results showed the trend and common motivational factors that lead to the choice of teaching. The themes (and subthemes) arising from the interviews confirmed the factor produced from PCA but also provided complementary data in further explaining quantitative/PCA results and in understanding the motivation to teach in more depth, for example, in terms of how the decision to teach was reached based on personal experiences and situations.

4.6 Summary

This chapter presented both quantitative and qualitative findings related to the motivational factors influencing pre-service teachers’ decision to choose teaching as a career choice. Drawing on both quantitative and qualitative data, respondents were influenced by a combination of different types of motives in the decision to teach, including altruistic factors, intrinsic factors, previous teaching experience, perceived teaching ability, extrinsic factors, previous educational experience and the influence of other people. The extent to which the importance of these factors influencing the choice of teaching may vary from individual to individual. However, by and large, most respondents were strongly driven by enjoying teaching and working with children, perceived teaching competence, a desire to help children learn and to make a positive impact on their lives. Extrinsic factors, on the other hand, especially in relation to job security, holiday, travelling, were also considered by participants as attractions of a teaching career.
In addition, most respondents perceived teaching as very high in demand in terms of the workload and professional knowledge but not provided with a very high return in relation to salary and social status. It was interesting to find that there is an apparent inconsistency in terms of participants’ perception of teachers’ salary and social status between questionnaire data and interview data. Most questionnaire respondents believed teachers were well respected in society and earned an acceptable salary, whereas the general sense from interview data was that teaching was relatively low in status and not a well paid job. Furthermore, in interviews, respondents expressed doubts if teaching was a proper career choice, especially in relation to high workload, emotional stress, and insufficient salary. Taken together, many respondents might be positively attracted to the teaching profession; meanwhile, they were also very aware of the potential negative side of pursuing a career in teaching.
Chapter Five: Findings (B): Comparing motivations for choosing teaching as a career

5.1 Introduction

As the previous chapter has reported the findings pertaining to the motivation for choosing a career in teaching as a whole, this chapter presents the second part of findings from quantitative and qualitative data concerning the differences in motivations and perceptions about teaching across different sub-groups. This is to present the analysis and discussion of whether there were variables (e.g. gender/age) that could influence teaching as a career choice and to approach the research questions pertaining to choosing teaching as an initial or subsequent career, as set out for the purposes of the data analysis (see Section 3.9). This chapter will start by identifying demographic variables to examine whether there were differences in influential factors between certain groups of participants (i.e. gender, age, working experience and non-working experience, primary teaching and secondary teaching). It will then move on to presenting findings to address the research questions exploring motivations for becoming a teacher for two groups: 1) those who chose teaching as their first career choice; and, 2) those who changed their occupational path and then decided to enter teaching and a comparison of these two groups.

5.2 Demographic variables on motivational factors for pursuing a teaching career

To determine whether the difference between sub-groups (i.e. gender, age, marital status, primary and secondary teaching, programme (PGDE/M Educ) and teaching as a first or subsequent career choice) is statistically significant, an independent-sample t-test or a one-way ANOVA was conducted on the items of motivational factors and perception about teaching. Two assumptions of a t-test or one-way ANOVA were tested and met: 1) the assumption of normality assessed by visual inspection of Normal Q-Q plots and the results suggesting the data on motivational factors and perceptions was approximately normally distributed; 2) the assumption of homogeneity of variances assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances and the results suggesting that there was homogeneity of variances (p > 0.05). The quantitative results of the t-test (or one-way ANOVA) revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in motivational factors across different age groups, and between PGDE and M Educ student, and between those who had full-time working
experience(s) and those who had no full-time working experience. No other statistically significant differences were identified, implying that the choice of teaching was not influenced by gender, marital status, levels of teaching (primary and secondary). The following will present those significant differences in details and locate the particular item that causes such difference.

The result of an independent-samples t-test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean score of intrinsic career value between MEduc students (n = 25) and PGDE students (n = 67), with first-year MEduc students scoring higher than PGDE students, 0.56 (95% CI, 0.21 to 0.91), (t (90) = 3.18, p = 0.002, d = 0.76). This finding suggests first-year MEduc student teachers placed more value on intrinsic factors than PGDE counterparts in the choice of a teaching career. Specifically, MEduc students (M = 6.2, SD = 1.23) rated the item ‘I’ve always wanted to be a teacher’ within intrinsic career value significantly higher than PGDE students (M = 4.75, SD = 0.93), with a mean difference of 1.45 (95% CI, 0.63 to 2.28), (t (90) = 3.5, p = 0.001, d = 1.42). This result suggests that participants of MEduc programme are more intrinsically attracted to teaching and more likely to consider a career in teaching at an early age than participants of PGDE programme. It may be that student teachers on MEduc programme, relative to the counterparts of PGDE programme, are more likely to regard the intrinsic appeal of teaching as key determinant in the choice of teaching, reflecting the notion of ‘sense of calling’ as discussed in Chapter Two (see Section 2.4).

As such, participants who had no full-time job before (n = 33, M = 5.97, SD = 1.49) scored significantly higher than those who had a full-time job (n = 59, M = 4.68, SD = 1.93) for intrinsic career value, with a statistically significant mean difference of 0.56 (95% CI, 0.24 to 0.88), (t (90) = 3.5, p = 0.001, d = 0.75). Furthermore, such significant difference, particularly generated from the item within the intrinsic career value – ‘I’ve always wanted to be a teacher’ with a mean difference of 1.3 (95% CI, 0.52 to 2.06), (t (90) = 3.33, p = 0.001, d = 0.82). This result indicates that respondents who haven’t had any full-time working experience attached greater importance to intrinsic motivation than participants who already had a full-time job. It may be that those without previous employment, relative to those with career histories, have no practical working experience(s) to draw on or compare when considering a career choice. They are thus more likely to opt for the profession that is based on their initial career interest and aspiration, as discussed in Chapter Two, ‘to fulfil a dream’ or ‘to make a dream come true’ (Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Manuel and Hughes, 2006).
In addition, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were differences in influential factors across groups with different age. As explained in Section 4.2.2.2, participants were classified into three groups: Group 1: age 17-22 (n = 35); Group 2: age 23-26 (n = 32); Group 3: age >= 27 (n = 25). As the figures shown in Appendix 10, there was a trend of decreasing mean of motivational factors from the youngest age group to the oldest age group and these motivational factors including ability (ranging from a mean of 6.14 to 5.82, with standard deviation ranging from 0.71 to 0.64); intrinsic career value (ranging from a mean of 6.41 to 5.73, with standard deviation ranging from 0.63 to 0.79); work with children/adolescents (ranging from a mean of 6.5 to 6.0, with standard deviation ranging from 0.62 to 0.96); prior teaching/learning experiences (ranging from a mean of 5.9 to 5.3, with standard deviation ranging from 1.42 to 1.41). This result may suggest that influential factors for the choice of teaching are likely to be influenced by age and the youngest group of student teachers appear to be most influenced by ability, intrinsic career value, work with children/adolescents, and prior teaching and learning experiences amongst the three age groups. It may be that the cohort of youngest pre-service teachers who are just straight from school and lack of working experience, and thus, it is perhaps understandable that they would consider a job that they feel good at and enjoying doing. When they are confident about their ability to teach and highly interest in teaching and working with children, it is anticipated that they would choose teaching as a potential or future career. From another perspective, teaching as a profession might be ‘special’ for these young students in that they has been exposed to many teachers at school for years and these teachers may inspire them to become teacher, or at least they can acquire a firsthand knowledge or an idea of what teachers need to do and what a teaching profession entails; such knowledge may develop or shape the perceptions about images of teaching as a career, which may influence the choice of teaching (Younger et al., 2004; Johnston, McKeown and McEwen, 1999).

In addition, it was found that only intrinsic career value was statistically significantly different by age, F (2,89) =7.172, p = 0.001< 0.05). There was a decrease in a mean of intrinsic value from 6.41± 0.63 in the youngest group to 5.73 ± 0.79 in the oldest group, with a statistically significant decrease of 0.68 (95% CI, 0.2 to 1.1, p = 0.002, \(\eta^2 = 0.14\), \(\omega^2 = 0.12\)), and no other age group differences were statistically significant. Again, this implies that the youngest group may place more value on intrinsic factors than the other age groups.
5.3 Comparison of motivations for choosing teaching as a first career choice and changing career to teaching

This section will present the interview and questionnaire findings to understand the research questions comparing and contrasting motivations and perceptions about teaching between two groups: 1) those who pursue teaching as their first career choice; and, 2) those who changed their career to teaching. This section will begin by reporting and comparing responses to questionnaire items relating to motivations and perceptions about teaching between two groups. Afterwards, I will present more detailed interview responses regarding how they made the decision to choose teaching as an initial choice and how they decided to enter the teaching profession after previously pursuing another career(s).

5.3.1 Questionnaire results on motivations for choosing teaching as a first career choice and for changing career to teaching

This section presents the findings from questionnaire data related to similarities and difference(s) in motivation to teach between those who chose teaching as a first career choice and those who left their previous career for teaching. The data presentation contains comparing participants’ responses to motivational factors, perceptions, and beliefs about the decision to teach in the questionnaire.

5.3.1.1 Comparing motivational factors influencing the choice of teaching

Following the responses to the questions regarding participants’ career histories in the questionnaire, participants were classified into two groups as follows,

1) Group 1 – ‘school leavers’ and ‘fresh graduates’: the participants who had no full-time working experience and participants who had teaching-related working experience
2) Group 2 – ‘career changers’: the participants who had a full-time job that is not teaching

Participants in Group 1 (n = 37) are considered as the cohort who chose teaching as a first career choice cohort. Participants in Group 2 (n = 55) are considered as the cohort who changed career to teaching. Of particular note was that there were four participants who indicated in the questionnaire that they were employed as an English language teacher in non-native English speaking countries after graduating from school before undertaking a
teaching qualification. I decided to add these four participants to Group 1 as it could be argued that such informal teaching also reflects ‘teaching as a first choice’.

Mean ratings of motivational factors for Group 1 and Group 2 with error bars are presented below in Figure 6. The highly influential factors, with means above 5 on the 7-point scale, given by two groups were similar, although the ranking of important factors for each group was slightly different. Table 8 shows the reasons that received high mean ratings for each group. From this comparison, it can be found that both Group 1 and Group 2 rated that shape future of children or adolescents, intrinsic career value, work with children/adolescents, perceived teaching abilities, make social contribution, and enhance social equity as ‘very important’ in the decision to become a teacher. This result suggests that respondents give priority to social altruistic factors, intrinsic factors and perceived teaching abilities in the decision to pursue a career in teaching, whether they chose teaching as an initial or subsequent career choice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 1: school leavers/fresh graduates</th>
<th>Group 2: career changers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>intrinsic career value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shape future of children/adolescents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>work with children/adolescents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>perceived teaching abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>make social contribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>enhance social equity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: The highest mean ratings for school leavers (or fresh graduates) and career changers

Figure 6: Mean ratings of motivational factors influencing teaching as career choice for school leavers (or fresh graduates) and career changers
Moreover, as displayed in Figure 6, both groups of participants consistently rated prior teaching and learning experience, job security ($5 < M < 6$) as important in the choice teaching. Moreover, social influences and job transferability (i.e. teaching is useful for overseas employment or travelling) were moderately influenced the decision to choose a teaching career for both groups, with means just above the scale midpoint. Of particular note, social influences received relatively high ratings for Group 1, with means around 5, indicating that others’ support and feedback towards the pursuit of a teaching career are important in the decision to teach for respondents who chose teaching as an initial career choice. The factors were rated below the scale midpoint, including time for family, bludging (choosing to teach for long holidays and short working days) and fallback career, suggesting that both groups of participants perceived those as least influential in the choice of teaching. Taken together, respondents might share common important motives in the choice of teaching relating to altruistic social dimensions, perceived teaching abilities, intrinsic and extrinsic aspects, despite their personal and career histories.

As to whether there were significant differences in motivational factors between two groups, the result of independent sample t-test showed that Group 1 scored higher than Group 2 for intrinsic career value, with a statistically significant mean difference of 1.2 (95% CI, 0.44 to 2.0, $p = .001$, $d= 1.5)$. Such significant difference, particularly generated from the item within the intrinsic career value – ‘I’ve always wanted to be a teacher’ with a mean difference of 3.4 (95% CI, 1.61 to 5.18, $p = .000$, $d= 4.3$). These findings suggest that respondents who chose teaching as a first career choice are more intrinsically motivated to become a teacher and start to think about pursuing a career in teaching at early childhood, compared to respondents of career changers. In addition, there were minor differences in motivational factors showed in Figure 6 between Group 1 and Group 2. For example, Group 1 received slightly higher rating than Group 2 in ability, social influences, and job transferability; while Group 2 are slightly higher than Group 1 in work with children/adolescents, make social contribution, enhance social equity, and time for family.

5.3.1.2 Comparing perceptions about teaching

Figure 7 shows the mean scores with error bars for Group 1 (‘school leavers’/‘fresh graduates’) and Group 2 (‘career changers’) on the constructs relating to participants’ perception about teaching and the satisfaction with their choice. For both groups, high demand and expert career were rated highly, with means above 5. This result suggests that both groups of participants consistently perceived teaching as a career with a huge workload.
and highly emotional and demanding, and requiring a high level of professional knowledge and hard work. *Social status* was rated relatively high with means around 5, and *good salary* was rated below 5, suggesting both groups of participants believed that teaching was generally valued and respected by society but did not earn a high salary. Despite the accordant perceptions of teaching as a career with a high professional demand but receiving relatively low financial rewards, interestingly, they uniformly rated *satisfaction with the choice of teaching* significantly high. Moreover, *social dissuasion* was rated below the scale midpoint, indicating that the decision to pursue a career in teaching was encouraged and supported by other people.

In addition, the result of a t-test analysis revealed that no significant differences were found between Group 1 (school leavers/fresh graduates’) and Group 2 (career changers) for the constructs of *perception about teaching* and *satisfaction about the choice of teaching*. It can be seen from Figure 7 that some areas where there were some very small differences. For example, Group 1 rated higher than the other groups in *social status*, *teacher morale*, and *good salary*, signalling that participants who chose teaching as an initial choice were a little more positive than participants from changing career to teaching in terms of external teaching rewards such as status, morale, and salary. Both groups of respondents rated *social dissuasion* below the scale midpoint, with the mean score of Group 2 slightly higher than Group 1.

![Figure 7: Mean ratings of perception about teaching and satisfaction with the choice for school leavers (or fresh graduates) and career changers](image-url)
5.3.2 Interview results on motivations for choosing teaching as a first career choice

From interview data, five respondents fell into the cohort who chose teaching as an initial choice. Table 9 shows the most recent working experience for participants in this group. Expect for Miranda, four respondents indicated in the questionnaire that they took a teaching post or worked in teaching or education-related area before studying on PGDE or MEduc courses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Most recent full-time job indicated in the questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Jane</td>
<td>Summer English teacher to Italian students for two months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Emma</td>
<td>A swimming teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Grace</td>
<td>Pupil support assistant for 3 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Helen</td>
<td>Classroom assistant in an English-speaking preschool in France from Sep 2014 to June 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Miranda</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Working background of participants who chose teaching as a first career choice

Although these four respondents taught different subjects or had different educational-related experience, there was a consensus that the idea of coming into teaching was based on their pleasant teaching or teacher-like experiences. In these experiences, they felt they enjoyed and gained a sense of achievement and satisfaction from working with young people and being able to support their learning as noted in the following narratives.

> It was only for a summer job. It was the contract because they had the kids go to school during the academic year. It was a shame because I really really enjoy working with those kids and I would love to go back. (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary)

> Doing a pupil support assistant is a certain way to see something I can imagine doing. I found myself I really liked being with children. See how eager children are to learn and the joy of helping them to learn. Definitely like it. (Grace, 23, PGDE Primary)

> All these jobs worked with young people, I really enjoyed it. It’s great to see the young person who couldn’t do something, then you manage to teach that, you’ve done that. You’ve given them those skills. You help others and you feel good about yourself. Really satisfactory. (Emma, 21, PGDE Secondary)
For the respondent like Miranda who was just straight from school without any formal working experience, her huge interest in teaching and the process of learning, and desire to be involved in a job with day-to-day variety led her to view teaching as a natural career option. She remarked:

*I feel a passion to teach. I’m keen to know how people learn and what learning looks like as well. I feel it really suits me. I think the teaching job is varied. You can experience something different every day. I like being in a job, which you never know what’s going to happen. I couldn’t see myself working in the office doing the same thing. It would drive me mad.*

(Miranda, 19, MEduc)

Moreover, in Miranda’s case, she also conveyed the importance of being encouraged to become a teacher and feeling ‘good at teaching’ in the decision to choose a career in teaching. Interestingly, despite this, however, she was still not very certain about the choice of a career path in teaching until she had her school placement during teacher training course. A real sense of enjoyment she gained from this experience helped her to firm up and finalise the decision to become a teacher, as noted in her narrative below.

*I’ve always been told by people that I should do teaching. I used to have to find alternative methods of learning so I was finding easier to help others with methods of learning. I feel like, oh, I’m actually good at teaching...Last year I was about on the fence, was it for teaching. I think because I didn’t have placement. But now I have placement. I think that’s something you can never get bored of... The more time I spend in school, the more I seem to enjoy it.*

(Miranda, 19, MEduc)

In addition, interview respondents also expressed extrinsic factors as appealing for a teaching career. For example, Grace expressed teacher’s holiday entitlement as attractive, by remarking ‘it allows you to have long holidays. A long summer break, you know, sounds great’; Jane cited the reward of pay and job security as the benefit, saying ‘selfishly, money for me. A steady career for me. For me, making sure I definitely always have a formal job’. On the other hand, she made comment to indicate that teachers were overworked but were not sufficiently paid:

*Not good. It’s Okay but perfectly level low. Comparing it with what other people do, it’s not really fair. Teachers have to work all day, and after work they have to the paper work and the marking. The workload is crazy. So the workload needs to go down to equal the salary or the salary needs to rise.* (Jane, 22, PGDE Secondary)
Throughout the interview data regarding teachers’ salary, similar to Jane’s remark, comments such as, ‘I do think teachers get underpaid for what they do’, and ‘I think teachers have a heavy workload. They don’t just work at school. There’s a lot of work to do after class. They bring it home with them… so I think they should be paid more’ were common and typical. While participants in this group were generally negative about the salary teachers earn, they still viewed teaching as a rewarding and worthwhile career to pursue, as noted in the following excerpts from the transcripts. Again, the enjoyment of teaching, a desire to help children learn and make a meaningful impact on their lives were the deciding factors in their choice of teaching.

But the salary shouldn’t really matter, you are there for the enjoyment rather than the money. (Miranda, 19, MEduc)

I don’t really care about teacher’s wages. I want to inspire pupils to achieve their goals in life. For me, the first thing is the pupil learning. Make sure they are learning. By teaching and inspiring children, I feel I will be helping many people at the beginning of their lives. (Emma, 21, PGDE secondary)

This section presents the interview data in relation to factors influencing choosing teaching as first career choice. Consistent with questionnaire findings, perceived teaching abilities, intrinsic and altruistic dimensions (e.g. liking teaching, enjoying working with students and wanting to help children) were conveyed commonly by interview respondents who chose teaching as their initial choice as central to their decision to become a teacher. They also expressed the importance of being supported to go into teaching and extrinsic reasons relating to job security, holiday and salary as additional motivators in the choice of teaching. Respondents showed mixed feelings about the decision to pursue a teaching career in the sense that teaching would be an enjoyable and rewarding career but also would face the realities of massive workload and insufficient financial rewards.

5.3.3 Interview results on motivations for changing career to teaching

This part sheds light on the reasons for leaving the former job as well as influential motives for choosing teaching as a new career. From interview data, there were six respondents who chose to enter teaching from other job or career. Before studying on PGDE or MEduc programme, they had worked in a different area including administration work, bar tender, art design, sales, university recruitment work, and customer service. Table 10 shows the participants in this group and their most recent working experience.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Most recent working experience indicated in the questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Brian An administration assistant for four months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Michael A bar tender from September 2014 to June 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Frances Self-employed, making crafts for wedding decorations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Kate Sales assistant for 10 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Caroline Postgraduate research recruitment officer at University for six years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Nancy Staff in a call centre for customer service for two years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Working background for participants who changed their career to become a teacher

The following excerpts illustrate why respondents decided to leave their previous work and what draw them to consider teaching as a career. In relation to the reasons for withdrawing from former jobs, three out of five (Brian, Michael, and Kate) conveyed explicitly that they regarded their previous work as a contract-based temporary job for a living and paying the daily basis. Respondents (e.g. Kate and Frances) looked for a stable ongoing career and wanted a career with a high level of enthusiasm or meaningfulness. It was worth highlighting that Kate also provided a serious and profound reflection on how she would like to spend her working lives with passion.

*It was just a temporary job, it was only four months contract. The company has a lot of summer camps for young kids so they need people over the summer for that. I was getting that application for paying bills.*  
(Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

*A job as an assistant was basically a job I wouldn’t do forever. It’s just a temporary job because I needed a job to pay my rent. So I have to find something else, something I gonna do for the rest of my life and something I feel really passionate about.*  
(Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

*When I moved back to the UK, I decided to go for PGDE. This is my second degree. I had to pay for myself, my study. So I started my own line business... My first degree was psychology. But I wouldn’t be an educational psychologist, I felt I rather teach and I think education is really important for people’s chance.*  
(Frances, 28, PGDE Secondary)

In addition to a result of the short-term contract, respondents expressed that poor satisfaction with previous work pushed them towards a career change to teaching. According to the following narratives, the disillusionment with prior working experiences stemmed from a low level of personal achievement and future career prospect, and hence they expected to undertake a more fulfilling career. They found that they need a new career related to helping
and developing young people and making a difference in their lives. Of particular note, the responses from Nancy and Caroline were another example of deep reflections on their career path, indicating an aspiration and desire to pursue a meaningful and rewarding career. It is probably these career aspirations and expectations that trigger the decision to choose a career in teaching.

\textit{Job satisfaction, I think. It was half-way through the second year, When I used to finish my work at the end of the day, I thought I was not making any difference. I found maybe I made the wrong decision [to work in a call centre]. I wanted to do something different, do something important, like impacting people.} (Nancy, 26, PGDE Primary)

\textit{Simply because I was becoming stagnant. So I can’t progress that role any further. I like educating young people. I hope I can help children reach their full potential.} (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary)

There were, by contrast, other respondents who enjoyed their former job, but felt the income was not sufficient and stable, and therefore they need a job provide greater financial rewards and security. Frances’ comment on her previous work was a typical example:

\textit{I was a dress maker, and I still make crafts for wedding things. I enjoy them and I’d love to continue doing them. It’s a nice job. But the business wasn’t always successful. They were good days and bad days. Just sometimes I didn’t get enough income to pay my living expenses.} (Frances, 28, PGDE Secondary)

Another male respondent Michael share a similar view and convey succinctly why he decided to quit his previous job, ‘\textit{because it’s really badly paid. That’s it’}. This result may also imply that inadequate financial reward may deter male respondent from staying in a post in the long term. Similarly, as noted previously (see Section 4.3.1.2), the other male respondent Brian expressed that he would consider seeking another career if teaching is not well paid. This result is another evidence to prove that the importance of the financial incentive in male’s career decision-making; and, male respondents tend to consider a long-term career or life-long career that come with a decent salary. However, given only two males participated in the interview, interpretation and conclusion drawn need to be viewed with caution.

As to why the decision to enter the teaching profession, participants’ responses were mainly related to intrinsic and altruistic reasons and the following extract was one of the examples.

\textit{After I left University, I thought I wanted to go back to University again doing some office job. I did look for a few but I never really always want}
to do it. I think teaching was something I wanted to do. I like teaching, and I actually want to get a job you can go on with your life. For my career, I want to help children, I wish I could have a positive impact on some people. I know teaching might be difficult, but it would be great. It would probably give me satisfaction when helping people and encouraging people. (Kate, 22, PGDE Primary)

The extract above showed that Kate made the choice of teaching based on interest in teaching and a sense of satisfaction from helping young people and being able to influence young people in a positive way. In the same vein, Nancy expressed, as noted in the following narrative, the attractions of teaching held for her were how teaching could help young people and make a difference, compared to her former job. Moreover, she also pointed out the importance of seeing her friends enjoying their work as teachers and being fascinated by the methods of designing lesson plans in the decision to become a teacher.

I want to do something actually helping people, making a difference in their lives, not just ringing and complaining about the furniture. Teaching was always there, I decided to go for it. Also, I have a lot of friends who are teachers. I used to listen to their stories. They really really enjoyed teaching. I also had the chance to look at their resources about different ways of setting up the class, and I just really like these ideas in lesson plans. (Nancy, 26, PGDE Primary)

In addition to intrinsic and altruistic dimensions, family considerations had an impact on the decision to change to a career in teaching. For example, the following extracts illustrate how interview respondents considered the importance of family commitment and responsibility in the choice of becoming teachers.

I think teaching can be a good choice for the family. Teachers have school holidays and there’s great amount of holidays. Like I said before, I like teaching and I want to go on holidays with partner every year. We both think teaching is absolutely a great choice. (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary)

Maybe good for the family when you had your own children because you know more about education, also the school schedule. But I also heard the pressure of the job. I heard from my friends. They are teachers. They would mark into the night, spend hours designing and perfecting their lessons. The work-life balance is difficult. (Nancy, 26, PGDE Primary)

The excerpts above showed that Caroline and Nancy perceived teaching is family-friendly profession with respect to quality of living or family commitment (e.g. caring and educating their own children). Of particular note, however, was that in Nancy’s narrative, she was aware of the long working hours required in the teaching profession and the potential
difficulty in achieving a balance between work and family time. This aligned with other career changes’ responses (i.e. Frances and Kate) in the interview settings, as presented earlier in Section 4.3.4.1, indicating that heavy workload and long working time that could have negative impact on their family life.

In addition, for career changers, the opportunities to work with young people played an important role in considering pursuing a career in teaching. It was unexpected to find that all career changers in this study had already had the experience of working with young people before being formally trained as a teacher, including teaching English to the speaker of other languages, nursing, coaching sailing in a summer camp or being a classroom assistant. Those experiences were positive, and they realised they enjoyed working with children in the classroom. It was then they start to think about pursuing a teaching career or doing a job involving with working with children. Alternatively, in Brian’s case, his experience of teaching English helped develop his confidence in communicating with young people and made him consider pursuing a formal teaching qualification. More importantly, he also came to know that teaching met his career expectations and aspirations of having a positive impact on people’s lives.

*I did some training with postgraduate research students as well. I realise I like to be in the classroom. I like that experience and I like working with children. So I think it will be interesting actually if I become a teacher.* (Caroline, 33, PGDE Primary)

*I had experience teaching English. My previous teaching experience helped me realise that teaching was a good job for me. I realised teaching may be something I would like to do in the future. I really enjoyed and I think I built a great relationship with students. I like to influence young people and help them achieve their best. I thought teaching was a great way to do that. Another thing, as I said earlier, I didn’t have the teaching qualification. So, I decided to go PGDE.* (Brian, 31, PGDE Secondary)

This section provides the interview responses to the reasons for leaving the previous job and the decision to choose teaching as a new career. In reflecting on the decision to move from previous work towards a career in teaching, interview participants reported that a short-term temporary employment or dissatisfaction with their prior job had prompted them to consider a new career path. Teaching as a career choice, compared to their previous occupation, was seen as a way to pursue a sense of inner satisfaction and achievement and to offer a stable income and long-term job security, despite being aware of the possibilities of getting a low salary and heavy workload. In most cases, liking being with children and wanting to make a difference to their lives, combined with positive prior experiences of working with young
people, together influenced respondents’ decision to come into teaching in an important way. In this sense, respondents seem to be positive about this career change and the decision to move into the teaching profession.

5.4 Summary

This chapter discussed whether the choice of teaching was influenced by demographic variables, and presented the quantitative and qualitative findings relating to motivations for choosing teaching as a first or subsequent career choice. I initially expected some significant differences in motivations across certain groups; however, the quantitative findings suggested that there was little statistically significant difference in relation to gender, marital status, levels of teaching (primary and secondary). The significant difference was only found in intrinsic career value construct between PGDE students and MEdc students; having working experience and having no working experience; choosing teaching as an initial career and choosing teaching as a subsequent career. It was interesting to note that those that were younger and who did not have previous full-time employment tended to be more driven by intrinsic motives and a sense of ‘always wanting to become a teacher’.

In a general sense, the main reasons for becoming a teacher given by those who choose teaching as a first career choice and career changers in this sample were more similar than different. Both groups reported being strongly influenced in the decision to teach by perceived teaching abilities, enjoying and liking teaching, a desire to work with children and make a difference to their lives. It was noteworthy that career changers’ reflections and comments on the career choice, relative to school leavers or fresh graduates, were based on a comparison with their previous work; their career expectation of pursuing an enjoyable and meaningful career were evident in some of the responses in the interview settings. In addition, both questionnaire and interview data suggested that many respondents were satisfied with teaching as a career choice and appear to show a positive attitude towards the decision to teach during their teacher preparation study, despite many of them are realistic about how teachers overworked but did not earn a high salary.
Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

There were three aims within this study: the first, to measure the utility of the FIT-Choice Scale for use within one Scottish university context. The second, to assess the factors influencing pre-service teachers’ decision to choose teaching as a career choice (Research question 1). It is anticipated that the influence of individual factors may vary depending on the different stages of respondent’s career trajectory. This expectation leads to the third aim of the study: to explore the motivation of student teachers who chose teaching as their initial career choice and those who entered the teaching profession after previously pursuing another career (Research questions 2 and 3), and to compare those two groups (Research question 4). Corresponding with those research aims, this chapter will begin with a brief discussion in relation to the utility of the FIT-Choice scale, and will then move to an in-depth discussion for interpreting the findings generated from both quantitative and qualitative components of the research.

6.2 The suitability of the FIT-Choice scale

As expected, the FIT-Choice scale fitted my questionnaire data satisfactorily and demonstrated acceptable reliability and construct validity in the Scottish sample as reported in Findings Chapter (see Section 4.2.1 and 4.2.2). Principle Components Analysis (PCA) suggested a 4-factor solution of the scale structure within this sample, that is ‘general features of teaching as a career’, ‘altruistic influences’, ‘intrinsic influences’, and ‘family and social influences’. These results had small changes to the structure presented in the original Australian setting and other settings such as Netherlands, Turkey, Ireland (Watt and Richardson, 2007; Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012; Kılınç, Watt and Richardson, 2012; Hennessy and Lynch, 2017). Those small changes came from slightly different loading items contained in the final factor analysis, thereby producing a different underlying factor structure. The different structure solution might be due to the specific characteristics of participant involved or/and different items deleted for running and rerunning the PCA. In the following section, I will discuss the 4-factor structure in this study with reference to the findings from previously published studies.
Regarding the first factor, the results of the PCA combined three forms of subscales: 1) subscales of social status, teacher morale and good salary which come from the original factor structure – Task return; 2) a subscale of work with children/adolescents which originally belongs to Watt and Richardson’s higher order factor – Social utility value; and, 3) a motivation outcome measurement – satisfaction with choice to form a new factor which was labelled as ‘general features of teaching as a career’. For the second factor, the original ‘shape future of children/adolescents’ factor, the ‘make social contribution’ factor and the ‘enhance social equity’ factor were combined, and in line with other researchers named as ‘social utility value’ or ‘altruistic service’ (Hennessy and Lynch, 2017, p. 8; Watt and Richardson, 2007, p. 172). The third factor was a combination of perceived teaching abilities and intrinsic career value, reflecting the key focus within the expectancy-value framework as a conceptual guidance for the development of the FIT-Choice model. A detailed discussion of the findings connected to expectancy-value theory will be presented later in Section 6.7. Of particular note, the original factor satisfaction with choice existed on both factor 1 and 3, indicating that job satisfaction is likely internalised but also related to the teaching job itself. Lastly, two original factors time for family and social influence served as external motives influencing pursuit of a teaching career, similar to the findings from many previous studies suggesting them as the influential (e.g. Eren and Tezel, 2010; Richardson and Watt, 2014).

Overall, the results from 4-factor structure are broadly in line with previously published findings that have identified the factor structure from the FIT-Choice scale whether in the original Australia context or other contexts such as Netherlands, Ireland, Turkey (Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012; Eren and Tezel, 2010; Hennessy and Lynch, 2017; Watt and Richardson, 2007). Although there may need further research with alternative pre-service teachers sample to support the factor structure, the findings of this study suggest that the FIT-Choice scale might be a suitable instrument for use in a Scottish context.

In addition, the means values of all subscales within the FIT-Choice were calculated and the results presented in Chapter Four (see Section 4.2.2.2). In line with results from an Australian context where the FIT-Choice scale was initially developed (Richardson and Watt, 2006; Watt and Richardson, 2007), perceived teaching abilities and intrinsic career value were rated among the most highly influential in this study in the Scottish context. As discussed earlier in this section, these two factors are the key to the expectancy-value theory which was developed in the North America and used as a conceptual underpinning of the FIT-Choice scale to explain the reasons for choosing a teaching career. In this sense, in the
Scottish context, arguably rather similar to Australia and North America, it is very likely for students in my study to prioritise their career choices as optimally fitting their competency and interests, in contrast to the Turkish and Chinese contexts that career choice may be less based on abilities and interest and more on concerns with job security and benefit (Watt and Richardson, 2012). Moreover, from the questionnaire, it was noticeable that altruistic-type *social utility values* (i.e. *shape future of children/adolescents, work with children, make social contribution, enhance social equity*) were predominant in the decision to become a teacher, suggesting that respondents attached greater significance to altruistic aspects of teaching than fulfilling personal interests and skills.

The next most highly endorsed motivational influences were *prior teaching and learning experience* and *job security*. *Personal utility value factors* such as *time for family, job transferability* and *social influence* were rated moderately. The least influential factors were *fall-back career* and *bludging* (choosing teaching for long holidays and short working days).

To a large extent, those findings are against a prevailing stereotype that teaching is chosen for a family-friendly career and an easy lifestyle (Richardson and Watt, 2014). Therefore, it is suggested that the majority of participants in this study were very much attracted to teaching rather than seeing teaching as a negative default career option. Again, in line with findings from Australian, US, Germany and Norwegian samples (Watt *et al*., 2012), students’ choice of becoming a teacher is more the result of an individual decision for personal interest and fulfilment, rather than as a result of influence through other’s reinforcement or persuasion. The following section will discuss further in relation to the contributing factors influencing the choice of teaching, addressing Research Question 1.

### 6.3 Research Question 1: What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to choose a career in teaching?

Drawing on data from questionnaires and interviews, the main contributing factors influencing teaching as a career choice emerging from this Scottish study includes intrinsic factors, altruistic factors, previous teaching experience, perceived teaching abilities, extrinsic rewards, school experience, and the influence of other people. These factors interact with participants’ perceptions/expectations/attitudes towards a career in teaching. A combination of different forms of motivations for choosing a teaching career was found to be characteristic for all respondents and none solely expressed one form of motivation. By and large, the findings broadly align with previous findings in many studies suggesting that altruistic and intrinsic reasons for teaching are powerful motivators (Pop and Turner, 2009;
Brookhart and Freeman, 1992; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Saban, 2003; Watt and Richardson, 2008; Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012; Kılınç, Watt, and Richardson, 2012), in contrast with the claim that student teachers chose teaching because they had no other choice (Yong, 1995). Although those positive intrinsic and altruistic reasons were expressed as central in the interviews, at the same time, surprisingly, throughout the interview transcripts, there was a sense that questioned whether teaching was an optimal career to pursue. Such perceived doubts served as another important theme to illuminate the choice of teaching within this study. Taken together, there are nine motivational influences on pursuing a teaching career emerging from this study, including altruistic factors, intrinsic factors, previous teaching experience, perceived teaching abilities, external rewards, school experience, the influence of other people, doubts about teaching, and perceptions/expectations/attitudes towards a teaching career. The chapter now presents details of each influential factor while engaging critically with existing research.

6.3.1 Intrinsic factors

Questionnaire results indicated that intrinsic career value was rated as highly influential in the decision to take up a teaching career (for details, see Section 4.3.3.1). In interviews, respondents emphasised internal rewards as the key and expressed feelings of fulfilment, satisfaction and enjoyment of teaching, emanating from working with children, favouring teaching activities and teaching subjects. Many of the respondents on the PGDE secondary programme indicated that they were motivated by a desire to use their existing undergraduate degree subject. This result is similar to existing literature suggesting subject matter as a fundamental reason or an important attraction for students who are interested in secondary school teaching (e.g. Moran et al., 2001; Hammond, 2002; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000). Respondents who chose secondary teaching in this study reported in the interview that they liked to impart the knowledge of existing degree subject and to share their interest in that subject. It might be the enjoyment and passion of existing degree subject that drive those teacher trainees to become a teacher in a secondary school. In addition to these, as discussed in Chapter Two, Hammond (2002) found that one of the important reasons students decided to teach in a secondary school was a wish to extend and update the knowledge of existing degree subject they intended to teach (Information and Communication of Technology: ICT). Further, those prospective teachers believed that ICT was a valuable and rewarding subject to teach and expected young people could see the importance of learning that subject (ICT) for themselves. Taken together, for teacher candidates who looked to work in the secondary school, the opportunity to continue working
with existing degree subject or discipline; and, how teachers and learners can benefit from engaging with such subject specialists might be important attractions of teaching as a career.

In contrary, interview respondents who chose to teach in primary school reported that they did not prefer to specialise but preferred to teach more than one subject. Moreover, they expressed the enjoyment of working with primary pupils, and the preference of having more teaching autonomy compared to secondary teaching because they did not necessarily follow specific books or tests. Unlike primary student teachers, secondary student teachers reported a preference for working with older kids and the feeling of a good connection with secondary pupils were important in the decision-making of teaching in secondary school rather than in primary school. Similarly, as Reid and Caudwell (1997) note, the choice of secondary teaching rather than primary teaching is related to the aspects of secondary pupil, interest in degree subject and teaching at a higher academic level. Based on those results, it is possible, therefore, that the choice of teaching either in primary school or secondary school is mainly driven by the enjoyment and satisfaction of teaching; however, the views of what make teaching enjoyable and satisfactory between primary prospective teachers and secondary counterparts might be different.

In one sense, those findings above are not surprising. Those intrinsic factors, echoing the notion of ‘teaching as a calling’ (e.g. Farkas, Johnson and Foleno, 2000, p. 10), as discussed in Chapter Two, are cited as generic and core influences in the literature with reference to motivation and career choice. Moreover, and perhaps unexpectedly, 31% of the respondents negatively rated the statement that ‘I’ve always wanted to be a teacher’, contrary to the conclusion given by Manuel and Hughes (2006, p. 20) that ‘It has always been my dream to teach…’ for their sample of student teachers. Students in this study reported during interviews that their enthusiasm for teaching stemmed from their previous teaching related experience and they were not sure about teaching when they were young. In this regard, participants’ interest or desire to become a teacher may not always be sparked off at early age but their ‘sense of calling’ for teaching may come later, particularly when they have had the chance to work with children and experience what teaching might be like. O’Sullivan et al. (2009) argue that the positive feelings from the experiences of coaching other people or working with children result in the idea of continuing those pleasures, which were central to the decision to enter the teaching profession. It is the enjoyment of previous real teaching experiences or teaching-like activities develop the interest in a career in teaching. Thus, students’ choice of teaching in this study is based on having some experience of their own with teaching or working with children rather than on simply having the instinct or the vision
of teaching in the mind. In this sense, those students in this study appear to have made a deliberate and practical decision to begin a journey on teaching.

In addition, it was noteworthy that questionnaire data showed evidence that intrinsic career value correlated with some altruistic dimensions (i.e. *shape future of children/adolescents, enhance social equity, work with children/adolescents*) (see Section 4.2.2.3). Similarly, interview respondents conveyed that their inner satisfaction, enjoyment and aspiration largely coalesced around helping young people learn and making a difference in their lives. Those findings might not be very surprising, since a desire to serve a useful social role is often cited as an element of personal fulfilment for teachers (Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1999; Lortie, 2002). Indeed, it was further noticed that many interview respondents in this study articulated their role in teaching as helping and influencing young people. Unlike Manuel and Hughes’ finding (2006, p. 11) that ‘social justice dimensions’ were ‘tacit in statements made by participants’, participants in this study expressed explicitly the importance of being role models and contributing to student’s personal development. The findings presented here appear more in accord with the finding from Krečič and Grmek’s study (2005) that students convey that teaching can realise themselves by providing a service to whole society as well as being a good example to children and young people. One possible interpretation is that such underlying altruistic influences in the decision to teach may well fulfil participants’ psychological needs or meet their career expectations, resulting in blurring the distinction between altruistic and intrinsic motivation. Hence, as has been discussed in Chapter Two (see Section 2.4), intrinsic and altruistic motivations might be difficult to separate in exploring the influences on career choice. In the following section, I will discuss further on the altruistic factors in participants’ choice of teaching.

### 6.3.2 Altruistic factors

From the questionnaire data, altruistic aspects related to *shape the future of children/adolescents, work with children/adolescents, make social contribution* ranked the most influential among all the motivational factors within the FIT-Choice scale (for details, see Section 4.3.2). Moreover, the majority of questionnaire respondents (72.5%) rated *enhance social equity* as importance in the choice of teaching. Again, these findings align with the recurring theme – altruistic-type factors from the existing teacher education research (e.g. Lortie, 2002; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012; Watt and Richardson 2007, 2012). Furthermore, the qualitative data highlighted that those altruistic
dimensions were likely to be bound up with participants’ career aspirations, values and perceptions. For instance, some reported that the idea of becoming a teacher derived from the desire to undertake a meaningful occupation to help people and they felt a teaching career would be a good fit. This implies that the trigger of the choice of teaching may lie in respondents’ career value and goals to pursue a worthwhile career and they perceived teaching appears to be the occupation to fulfil such aspiration. Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) argue that career choice is influenced by the degree of alignment between what people want from a career and what they think a certain career could offer. It is very likely that these feelings of alignment prompt many participants to choose a teaching career.

In addition, given making social contribution rated as the third highly motivational factor (for details, see Section 4.3.2.2), it was expected that interview participants would indicate how the idea of contribution to society had heavily impacted on teaching as a career choice. However, I was surprised that making social contribution was never expressed by any respondents during interviews. One possible interpretation for this result is that the respondents feel embarrassed to convey the intention to become a hero or heroine to save the world overtly in the interview setting as a predominant attraction of teaching. Alternatively, the aspect of making a social contribution was a general agreed statement in the questionnaires, however, when it was expressed specifically in interview settings, the respondents might become more reticent. Another possible explanation is, as Younger et al. (2004) note, a desire to improve society might be less exciting than a desire to influence the next generations of people. Indeed, most students at interview reported that they were keen to make a positive impact on young people in meaningful way. Some also viewed it as a responsibility for teachers. It might be worth noting such different results arising from different types of data, particularly when interpreting the element of making worthwhile social contribution as central to a teaching career.

6.3.3 Extrinsic factors

For this research, external rewards were concerned with job security, travelling abroad, long holiday, salary and status. In general, unlike intrinsic and altruistic factors, the majority of participants in this sample did not rate those pragmatic reasons at the top level as influential in decision to teach. This result aligns with the findings from other research in the UK suggesting that extrinsic rewards are not the main attraction for those who already interested in teaching and they are more likely to be motivated by intrinsic rewards (See, 2004). As
previous UK studies have found, the extrinsic rewards, on the other hand, are more likely to be perceived as important by those who have never seriously considered teaching as a career choice (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; See, 2004). While, in this study, the extent to which participants cited those external benefits as an important motive for pursuing a teaching career may vary from person to person; by and large, job security was viewed as the most striking attraction among all practical considerations within this study.

6.3.3.1 Job security

From the questionnaire data, the majority of the participants (76%) rated job security as important in the decision to become a teacher. In interviews, the respondents reported job security as a compelling aspect of teaching; and, considered teaching as a job with a high level of job security. However, in fact, in 2012, a survey conducted by The General Teaching Council in Scotland (GTCS) showed that only 35.4% of teachers who had just completed their probationary year found a full-time permanent teaching post (BBC, 2012). More recently, with budget restraints, many local authorities in the UK tended to make short-term contracts to rather than open-ended or permanent posts (Morris, 2017). Temporary or supply work without any guarantee of tenure at the end have now became prevalent in the job market for teaching. Those results suggest that a fixed-term teaching post may be limited and it is arguably competitive and challenging for the applicants to find a secure career in teaching nowadays. In this respect, participants’ perception that teaching can offer great job security may be idealistic and not based on the fact that there are not always enough permanent contracts available to newly trained teachers who look for teaching as a career. If teacher trainees have high expectations of job security within the teaching profession but find this may not be the case in reality, they may feel disappointed. This may in part account for the problem discussed in Chapter One regarding acute teacher shortage across the UK and why many newly qualified teachers leave teaching within the first few years (Donaldson 2010; Kyriacou and Kunc, 2007).

6.3.3.2 Salary and status

In relation to teacher’s salary and status, in general, there appears to be a mismatch between questionnaire data and interview data. The majority of questionnaire participants reported that teachers and teaching were valued by society although teachers might not necessarily receive a very high level of payment. However, unexpectedly, most interview respondents conveyed a quite negative attitude towards teacher’s salary and status, believing that
teaching was underpaid, undervalued and not highly regarded in society. Such inconsistency may in part due to different methods used, thereby generating different results. The interview responses seem more complex from the straightforward agreement and disagreement responses in the questionnaire statement. When it comes to the issues such as teachers’ salary and status, a general sense gained from the questionnaires is that teaching is a high-status occupation with good salary; whereas this may not necessarily be the case based on specific responses produced from the interviews. Similar to the interview responses, previous research on teachers’ salary and status suggests that teachers in the UK, US and Australia might not necessarily enjoy a high level of income and status, unlike the countries such as Finland, and Norway where teachers received quite high prestige, respect and income (Richardson and Watt, 2016). In this connection, teachers’ salary and status may differ among countries and thus, people in the different context may interpret teachers’ salary and status in various ways. Therefore, situational factors and individual differences perhaps need to be taken into account when interpreting teachers’ salary and status.

In the meantime, it is important to make clear that not all of interview participants are fully negative about teachers’ salary and status. Consistent with questionnaire data, there was a minority of interviewees who positively believed that teachers were highly regarded and earned a reasonable salary. Drawing on a report from NASUWT teachers’ union in the UK (NASUWT, 2017), the salary of newly qualified teachers in 2017 start from £22,641 in their probation year. Once fully registered, teacher’s salary will have 1% increase each year and salaries rise by annual increments over the first five years from £27,438 to £36,480. Compared with £23,150 as the median gross salary in Scotland for all employees in April 2017 (McCall, 2017), a teacher’s salary is above the median, meaning early on teachers are earning well compared to much of the population. Even on the international level, teachers in Scotland received relatively good salaries. According to a report by MacKinnon (2012), when looking at teachers’ salary scale in 38 OECD countries, Scottish teachers earned 95% of the average graduate salary, compared to an average international level of 82%; and, again specific to this study, pay in Scotland has increased in real terms by 21% over the past decade. In this study, however, in relation to many interview respondents’ negative perspective and attitude towards teachers’ salaries, one possible interpretation is that their views may stem from their assumptions rather than the fact that a career in teaching provides a relatively competitive salary. Another possibility is that respondents set different standards of what a decent salary is; and, this may in part depend on their financial and class background. For example, students from a middle class background may have higher expectations of salary than students from a working class background; even though as we have seen starting as a
Scottish teacher, the initial salary means that she/he can earn at least as much as 50% of the population.

Although participants may construct perceptions of teachers’ salary and status differently, throughout the qualitative data, there is little evidence to support that participants in this study choose teaching for financial rewards and high prestige. On the other hand, again, as discussed previously in this section, many interview respondents reported that teaching was underpaid and undervalued for the time and effort they exert for teaching, feeling being treated unfairly in terms of salary and status. Interestingly, by and large, they still considered teaching as a worthwhile career to undertake and reasoned themselves that they were entering teaching for enjoyment rather than for a high level of salary and prestige. On the positive side, respondents did not express that low salary and status would result in disappointment in teaching or would undermine their intention to enter the teaching profession. One possible interpretation is that these students are likely the ones who tend to place more value on intrinsic rewards of teaching. They probably view teaching as a platform to fulfil and enjoy rather than to achieve a decent salary and social status. Other studies (e.g. Bastick, 2000; Richardson and Watt, 2014; See, 2004; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Yüce et al., 2013) similarly indicate that, as discussed in Chapter Two (see Section 2.4.5), salary and status are not overriding factors influencing the initial decision to teach, but may well be important factors for choosing not to undertake a teaching degree, or not to take a teaching post once qualified, or never seriously consider a teaching career.

In addition, regarding financial reward, the questionnaire data indicated that there was not a statistically significant gender difference in their view about teachers’ salary. This is in contrast to the findings of some studies suggesting male student teachers placed more value on financial rewards than female counterparts (Johnston, McKeown and McEwen, 1999; Yüce et al., 2013). However, of a particular note, in interviews, all male participants reported that whether a job can offer a good salary was important in their career decision-making. Particularly, one male respondent conveyed that a low salary could be the very possible reason for him to leave teaching permanently. He indicated that life events such as marriage and having children might alter his decision to stay in teaching if teachers’ salary was insufficient to support the whole family. In this sense, the extent to which financial rewards demotivate male teachers’ commitment to a teaching career arguably depends on their life or financial situation at that time, and how they view and respond to such circumstances. In addition to this, he also expressed that other people’s discouraging response to the decision to become a teacher, such as ‘you can’t find a better job, so you go teaching’ would make
him doubt if teaching is the right career to pursue. This implies that men tend to be more concerned about the prestige of the teaching profession and how other people will view teaching as a career choice, despite feeling intrinsically fulfilled to pursue a teaching career. It is important to note that only two male respondents participated in an interview, therefore any conclusions drawn should be viewed with caution.

6.3.3.3 Holiday/annual leave

While there might be some myths about teachers’ holiday entitlements, the findings of this study suggested that annual leave entitlements were not reported by most questionnaire respondents as an important reason for choosing a teaching career. This result supports the findings of Reid and Caudwell’s study (1997) conducted in England indicating that teachers’ longer holiday entitlements were not cited a powerful motive in the choice of a career in teaching. In Scotland, a teacher’s full working year is 195 days, and every year, teachers get 40 days’ holiday at full pay. Compared to most full-time workers who receive 28 days statutory paid holiday entitlement per year (for details, go to https://www.gov.uk/holiday-entitlement-rights), teachers are getting longer holiday entitlements. However, interestingly, in interviews, it was surprising to find that teaching with long holiday entitlement was not necessarily offering teacher a relaxing lifestyle. Although respondents were aware of the longer holiday teachers had, they still considered teaching as a busy occupation with a heavy workload. Many participants reported that in addition to classroom teaching, teachers often worked after class including at night, at weekend, and even during holidays. Some also reported that they often sacrificed holiday time to plan and prepare lesson(s) ahead for the next term. In this regard, these students may not believe that school teachers can fully enjoy their leisure time, and rather, they may regard holidays as a chance to refresh themselves in order to balance an exhausting teaching life at school days.

These results above are inconsistent with those from earlier UK studies indicating that students hold a positive view about teacher’s lengthy holiday (e.g. Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1999; Kyriacou et al., 2003). It may be that the situation has changed in this respect over the past decade. Now, despite teachers getting 40 days’ holiday at full pay each year in Scotland, in many prospective teachers’ view, this does not necessarily mean that teacher can take 40 days off fully during holiday periods. Some people outside the teaching profession may be under the misconception that teachers can get all school holidays off, and thus would potentially undervalue a teacher’s workload. According to an OECD report (2017), Scottish teachers have a significantly heavier workload in comparison with many of
the counterparts in other countries; teaching time in Scotland exceed 800 hours a year in class, compared to an international average level of 662 hours in early secondary school. Much of the increased workload of teachers primarily results from, as discussed earlier in this section, administrative tasks and preparation of lesson plan. With a rise in teacher’s autonomy in Scotland as discussed in Chapter One, on the one hand, teachers are more likely to have flexibility and to be trusted to decide on the course content and design. On the other hand, teachers might work long hours outside class preparing lessons as well as on doing a lot more reporting to comply with accountability systems; potentially increasing the working hours of teachers. Moreover, the excessive demands of accountability are arguably making teachers feel less trusted and in turn, devaluing them as professionals. Spending too much time on non-teaching tasks are probably not helping children to learn but might have a negative impact on teachers’ general wellbeing and job satisfaction and even teaching performance. These findings are of importance in understanding teachers’ work conditions and have implications for teachers’ recruitment and retention. Policy makers and school management may need to pay more attention to teachers’ working conditions and consider reducing teachers’ workload and giving teachers more support in order to maintain morale and retention.

### 6.3.3.4 Travelling

Similar to previous findings across various contexts (e.g. Watt and Richardson, 2012), in this study, travelling-related purposes and needs moderately impacted on students’ choice of teaching. On the other hand, it might be noteworthy that 30% of questionnaire respondents reported travelling as extremely important and most of them were the cohort who intended to teach languages in school. In interviews, there were three participants who had experience in teaching English to speakers of other languages in non-native English-speaking countries such as Italy, France and China without a formal qualification for teaching. Their pursuit of a PGDE programme is to get a formal teaching certificate. Two of them cited travelling was the main reason for becoming a teacher. They considered English as being useful for working abroad, thereby getting the opportunity to fulfil their desire of travelling around the world. Interestingly, they also emphasised the aspect of helping and influencing young people as essential, and this factor and travelling were equally important in the decision to enter the teaching profession. In principle, they look like conflicting motives, nonetheless, given the trigger of such mixed reasons may rest in participants’ inner desire rather than a sense of compulsion, it can be assumed that teaching is likely to be an internally fulfilling career for them, reflecting the expectations they attribute to the choice of teaching.
altruistic and utilitarian motives coexisting within one individual at the same level may be a unique case throughout this study as well as in the literature. However, this may require further research to explore whether one form of motives is more predominant than the other over time.

6.3.3.5 Reflection on extrinsic rewards of teaching

In general, student teachers consider those external rewards (e.g. job security, annual leave entitlement, salary, status, and travelling) as a form of bonus that makes a teaching career more appealing, in spite of some having reservations about teachers’ salary and level of job security which as discussed above may be ideal, unwarranted and not quite up-to-date. Again, both questionnaire and interview data suggested that the majority of the participants tend to view teaching as providing more intrinsic rewards than extrinsic rewards from teaching. Of particular note was the extent to which practical reasons were important to the respondents in this study; and, how they view those external rewards may vary. Therefore, when interpreting and applying the findings regarding pragmatic aspects of teacher recruitment and retention, caution is still required, given the individual variation and the influence of contextual and situational factors.

Although extrinsic motives were not the predominant influence in the choice of teaching in this study; as discussed in Chapter Two (see Section 2.4.5), the role of extrinsic aspects should not be ignored or given less attention. It is perhaps important to bear in mind that the complexity of extrinsic motives, not only plays an important part in understanding pre-service teachers’ decision to choose a teaching career but also how they might have potential effects on sustaining their motivations and intention to stay in the teaching profession. Specifically, attention may need to be given to student teachers’ potential perceived myths or misinformation about job security, holidays; and, the negative impression they expressed about teachers’ salaries and status. If they have high expectations on those aspects, this may lead to depression and low levels of job satisfaction. As discussed previously in Chapter Two, some researchers have noticed the negative perceptions about teaching and teachers’ prestige and pay that might have detrimental effects on pre-service teachers and even the most intrinsically motivated teachers (e.g. Kyriacou et al., 2003; Richardson and Watt, 2016). In the light of this, some changes to improve teachers’ status and financial rewards might be required. According to an OECD report (2017), improving the image and status of teaching and making teacher’s salary more competitive might be worth considering to make teaching
a more attractive proposition. It could be argued that the higher the salaries, the fewer the people who might not decide to leave the profession (OECD, 2005).

However, in relation to financial incentives as determinants of teaching as a career, See’s (2004) study conducted in the UK found that financial incentives were not as important as the intrinsic values people attached to a job and their perceptions of teaching; moreover, negative perception of teachings’ pay and status were unlikely to put off those who already decided to teach but might be a deterrent to those who might be considering it. Richardson and Watt (2016) argue that simply raising teacher’s income is likely to give rise to the consequence of attracting people who tend to be more interested in the financial rewards than being passionate about school teaching or enjoying working with children. It is also possible that people choose to study on teacher education programmes for the funding or potential good salary with less focus on the nature of teaching itself. More importantly, it is worth to recognise that teaching is also perceived as a socially important and worthwhile job. If people are more concerned about the importance of helping people through a sense of altruism and social responsibility within teaching; they are still likely to consider teaching as a career choice, and improvements to the extrinsic dimensions such as salary, status, and working conditions might be regarded, as discussed previously, as a bonus.

6.3.4 Previous teaching experience

Consistent with many international studies (e.g. Hammond, 2002; Younger et al., 2004; Watt, et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2012), the majority of questionnaire participants highly rated previous teaching and learning experiences as important in their decision to enter a teaching career. In the interview, respondents reported a variety of opportunities to work with young people in an informal educational setting such as nursing, coaching young people swimming or sailing in a summer camp or being a classroom assistant. Some reported that they had experience in teaching English as a foreign language in schools in non-native English-speaking countries such as Italy, France and China. O’Sullivan, et al. (2009) note that it was the positive feelings from relevant prior teaching, mentoring or coaching experiences that helped to develop the interests in choosing a teaching career. Indeed, in the interview, when talking about working with young people, there was a general sense of the enjoyment and a high level of job satisfaction from helping children to learn and seeing them making progress, despite they were very aware that teaching was a challenging and stressful job.
In addition, those teaching or teaching-related experiences were quite influential in shaping one’s self-perception and understanding of a teaching career. Two interview participants who had taught English to speaker of other languages in an informal setting conveyed that they wished to gain a practical insight towards teaching before enrolling on PGDE or M Educ courses to understand what teaching entails and whether they have the ability to successfully manage a teaching job. In this respect, relevant teaching experience helped them explore and establish a clear image of themselves and a teaching career in advance. As Hammond (2002) notes, the positive experience of teaching could make student teachers feel good about themselves and intrigue them to know more about the professional knowledge of teaching and learning. The feelings and feedback students get from previous teaching or teaching-like experience appear to help them decide to train as a qualified teacher. In other words, students might gain a better understanding about whether it is worthwhile to pursue teaching in the future based on their own teaching or teaching-like experiences. Overall, previous teaching-related experience not only provided an opportunity to gain a subjective feeling of teaching, but also to make a rational judgement and evaluation about both participants themselves and teaching as a career choice and how these two aligned.

6.3.5 Previous educational experience

In relation to previous educational experience, questionnaire results revealed that the majority of respondents (84%) believed positive learning experiences at school as important in their decision to teach. Interestingly, in interviews, participants expressed that their intention to teach was inspired by both positive and negative learning experience in primary or/and secondary school. As might have been anticipated, respondents with positive memories of learning experience are likely to have enjoyed their school days. One possible interpretation is that those enjoyable school times probably created a feeling of belonging in the school environment, thereby forming the desire of being a part of school community as a teacher. It may be that those teacher trainees, consciously or unconsciously, seek to belong in a community where they feel comfortable and enjoyable. According to Baumeister and Leary (1995), the need to belong is a fundamental human motivation. More importantly, as discussed in several empirical studies, teachers’ feeling of belonging to the teaching community in schools is an important source of job satisfaction; and, their developing sense of belonging, for example, from the recognition by a good relationship with students or teachers as a colleague, is closely associated with long-term work engagement and commitment (Ashby et al., 2008; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2011). In this regard, in this study,
student teachers’ sense of belonging is likely developed based on positive school experiences in teacher education courses or subsequent teaching experience at school, not necessarily their previous learning experience as a student at school. These teaching experiences in schools may have an impact on the motivation to enter and stay in the profession.

Alternatively, some trainees were likely to be influenced by their previous school teacher(s) in considering teaching as a career (Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Reid and Caudwell, 1997; O’Sullivan et al., 2009). In this study, questionnaires result showed that 76% of respondents rate the statement ‘I have had inspirational teachers’ as important/very important. Similar to O’Sullivan et al.’s finding (2009), students who enrolled on physical education teacher education (PETE) programmes reported that they had former teachers or coaches who inspired them to learn and helped improve their confidence mentally and professionally. Further, Younger et al. (2004) found that previous teachers were influential in future teacher’s beliefs about teaching in relation to teaching method and teaching-learning process. Overall, having important previous teachers or mentors and managing to build up a good relationship with them may be part of enjoyable learning experience in school. In turn, such positive prior educational experience might develop teacher candidates’ interest in becoming a teacher. This inspired decision to enter the teaching profession appear to reflect the interpersonal and relational nature of teaching. As Palmer (2007, p. 22) notes,

‘the power of mentor is not necessarily in the models of good teaching they gave us, models that may turn out to have little to do with who we are as teachers. Their power is in their capacity to awaken a truth within us, a truth we can reclaim years later by recalling their impact on our lives. If we discovered a teacher’s heart in ourselves by meeting a great teacher, recalling that meeting may help us take heart in teaching once more’.

Palmer’s argument implies that it is those mentors who are likely to evoke the thought of becoming a teacher which is ‘out there’ in one’s inner world. It may well be that participants in this sample may view their important prior teachers or mentors as role models, and they thus expect to be like them to help young people learn and make a difference to their lives. Interestingly, participants’ negative learning experience also contributed to their choice of teaching in a positive way, similar to the notion of ‘counter-identifiers’ proposed by Lortie (2002, p. 46). For this study, the typical qualitative comments were about the desire to improve the issues that students dislike about the teacher or the class experience. Malderez et al. (2007) argue that teacher trainees could be negatively inspired to improve what were viewed as bad in their educational experience. What was more interesting and unexpected to find was that one interview respondent who had quite enjoyed the learning experience at
secondary school, was very much aware of the schooling approach and school system as not appropriate, and who explained that part of the reason for becoming a teacher was in order to ‘make the learning experience better than my own’. However, this type of student teacher appears to be relatively unusual in the previous literature as well as in this study.

Literature on the experiences of school have not been widely cited as a motivational influence on the choice of teaching as a career, rather as an influence on what type of teacher they want to be (See, 2004). Nonetheless, several interview participants in this study expressed clearly that school experience play an important part in shaping the idea to work in a school environment and go into teaching. Lortie (2002) argues that teaching is a special profession since teachers have experienced a long apprenticeship as learners before they become a teacher. In one sense, such experience may provoke participants’ career interest in becoming school teachers. Overall, the school experience, whether from positive or negative recollections, is likely to lie at the heart of a wish to replicate or recreate good learning experience at school. In essence, such desire arguably reflects how people view teaching as a career and what they expect from the teaching profession.

6.3.6 Perceived teaching abilities

Questionnaire data showed that the majority of respondents (around 94%) agreed that perceived teaching abilities was an influential factor in the choice of teaching. Extending the questionnaire findings, interview participants reported specifically about how their positive experience working with children had developed their confidence in teaching and convinced them they might have suitable qualities or skills to be a teacher. These findings support the notion discussed in Chapter Two, regarding ability-related beliefs or sense of self-efficacy, or more broadly self-perceptions, which have been emphasised greatly in the literature concerning motivation and career choice (e.g. Bandura, 1997; Eccles, 2009; Lent, 2001; Klassen et al., 2011). Previous research has shown that pre-service teachers’ efficacy beliefs have an important implication for effective teacher practices and teaching knowledge (e.g. Fives, Hamman and Olivarez, 2007). According to Malderez et al. (2007), student teachers take two or one of two positions: ‘actualising an already identified potential’, and/or ‘a transformation of self in order to ‘change into’ a teacher’ (p. 230). Considering many positive responses towards how teaching suit their ability and how enjoyable feelings from prior teaching experience, it is very likely that many student teachers in this study had recognised their potential within teaching consciously before deciding to train as a teacher. Those
students at this stage may take the first position identified by Malderez et al., for the opportunity to use their talent or ability to teach.

On the other hand, with growing development of their teaching knowledge and skills in the course, students might establish a sense of identity that they have the capacity to manage a teaching job. Teaching may then become a part of individual’s ‘Me’ or ‘self’, echoing Malderez et al.’s perspective of transforming identity from student to teacher. These identity components can motivate or demotivate behaviour when they are activated in relevant situations and contexts (Eccles, 2009). In this respect, students’ beliefs and assessments about the competence to successfully perform teaching activities as part of identity formation might prompt students to choose or wish to constantly get involved in teaching or to decide to pursue teaching as a career. As Ewing and Manuel (2005) outline, ‘thinking you can teach, being told that you can teach and early positive experiences in teacher education and teaching are seen as powerful motivational forces in deciding to teach’ (p. 11).

6.3.7 The Influence of other people

From questionnaire data, in general, participants’ choice of teaching was moderately influenced by other people. Drawing on interview data, respondents cited their relative, family or school mentor as influential, similar to the literature identifying as ‘the influence of significant others’ (e.g. O’Sullivan et al., 2009, p. 183). As the influence of school teachers as being either good or bad role model has been discussed previously in Section 6.3.5, this section will be focusing on discussing the influence of family members.

Much of the extant research (e.g. O’Sullivan et al., 2009; Lovett, 2007; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Reid and Caudwell, 1997) suggest that those significant others, particular those who worked as school teachers, had positively influenced teacher candidates to pursue a teaching career, reflecting the notion of ‘a tradition in my family’ or ‘a family history of teaching’ (Lortie, 2002, p. 41). Eccles (2009) argues that other people such as parents, peers, teachers may influence individuals’ perceptions of a vocational choice through providing their personal experience and information. While Lortie’s (2002) suggests that family encouragement was a ‘powerful recruitment resource’ (p. 44), in contrast, in this study, an interview respondent from a family with a background in teaching conveyed that there was strong discouragement to becoming a teacher made by her family due to low career progression and poor long-term prospects. In part, this explains earlier UK findings, focusing
on England and Wales, that those who entered the teaching profession were less likely to have parents who were teachers (Spear, Gould and Lee, 2000). Moreover, it was interesting to find that the participant in this study remained committed to teaching despite family attempted at dissuasion because she enjoyed working with children and was being told that she worked well with children. In this respect, a family’s suggestions or discouragements might not necessarily influence or determine the final decision to enter or never to enter a teaching profession. Therefore, the notion of ‘a family history of teaching’ may not be common any more, indicating the motivations and expectations of a career in teaching may change over time. Alternatively, student teachers with a teacher in the family can either have positive or negative impact on their decision to teach, again dependent on situational and contextualising factors.

In addition, there were three respondents who had no teachers in the family, and they were inspired by relatives, or friends, or school teachers to consider teaching as a career choice. Unexpectedly, two of them did not determine to go teaching directly. They reported consistently that they were not certain about teaching until they got experience in teaching and found teaching enjoyable and interesting. These findings suggest that the influence of other people is perhaps more important in an initial thought of teaching as a potential career option rather than the real decision to devote themselves to teaching. In essence, it is more likely that the positive feelings towards working with children as the real contributing factor to a determination of pursuing a teaching career. suggesting that internal satisfaction is likely more dominant and powerful than ‘significant others’ in the choice of teaching in this study. As Hammond (2002) argues, the influence of friends, parents or colleagues, for the most part, are a ‘marginal influence’ on their decision to become a teacher (p. 139). Therefore, it may be difficult to attribute the decision to teach to the particular influence of significant others, despite participants mentioning the role of significant others. Since there was a small sample size of interview participants, therefore the conclusion drawn needs to be viewed with caution.

6.3.8 Doubts about teaching as a career choice

Apart from what motivates to teach, in interviews, participants also conveyed some negative sentiments about teaching, which contributed to doubts about pursuing teaching including considerations of leaving teaching. In light of the interview data as presented in Chapter Four (see Section 4.3.1, Section 4.4.3.3, and Section 4.3.4.1), the evidence of doubts came
from multiple sources: the teaching profession itself and the participants themselves, and
other people or mainstream media (see below in Table 11). The discouraging response to
teaching may, to greater or lesser degree, influence those teacher trainees’ consideration of
pursuing a teaching career. A limited number of UK studies have investigated the perceived
drawback of teaching as well as the potential factors of rejecting a teaching career. In this
section, the study’s findings on student teachers’ doubts about teaching might be important
in understanding and addressing the issue, as discussed in Chapter One, concerning a high
level of teacher attrition nowadays within the teaching profession (OECD, 2014). The
following sections will discuss those aspects in more details.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of doubts about teaching</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The teaching profession itself</td>
<td>a) excessive workload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) emotional pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) low salary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d) low status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The participants themselves</td>
<td>self-doubts about the ability to teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other people or mainstream media</td>
<td>making discouraging remarks or negative feedback about teaching as a career choice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Interview respondents’ doubts about teaching as a career choice

### 6.3.8.1 Doubts from the teaching profession itself

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative findings shared a similarity, that teaching is
perceived as a demanding career with high level of knowledge, workload and emotional
stress. Several interview respondents reported that teacher’s workload and duties were
excessive and unreasonable. Moreover, they clearly expressed that the overwhelming
workloads and pressure would restrain themselves from fully enjoying a teaching job and
even lead to consideration of leaving teaching. These results support earlier findings from
UK regarding why beginning teachers expect to have a happy private life due to a particular
concern about ‘the heavy workload encroaches unacceptably in too much of the time for
their private life’ (Kyriacou and Kunc, 2007, p. 1253). On the other hand, these results are
in opposition to a widely prevailing notion proposed by some sociologists or psychologists
for decades, as discussed in Chapter Two, that perceives teaching as an easy job and not
necessarily intellectually stimulating (Denzler and Wolter, 2009). As discussed earlier in
Section 4.3.1.1 and Section 4.3.1.3, people outside the teaching profession appear to
underestimate teachers workload, emotional demanding and the intensification of teaching
work and undervalue teachers’ professionalism. In this sense, again, there might be some
misconceptions about teachers’ work and lives that has been circulated in the society, and this may need to be changed. Furthermore, what is even worse perhaps is that teachers have been blamed for the problems facing education and made the scapegoats for poor students performance and behaviour at school (Farkas et al., 2000; Edward, 2017). Indeed, some interview respondents in this study expressed that they felt that teachers were not sufficiently respected and appreciated by society; for example, the head teacher and parents at times blame teachers for the poor quality of students’ educational achievement.

In addition, other negative perceptions of the teaching profession in relation to inadequate financial rewards may also be challenging, particularly for male respondents, to sustain their decision to teach. They reported that they worked very hard for classroom teaching and spend tremendous time (even personal time) on lesson preparation, planning and class reports after class; nevertheless, they turned out to get relatively low paid and not highly respected by people and society. These perspectives of teaching would make them feel unfair or frustrated that might lead to low morale and stress-related problem and even might be the potential barriers to keep them staying in teaching in the long term. According to a recent NFER report (Worth, Bamford and Durbin, 2015), heavy workload remained the major reason for considering leaving the teaching profession in England. Similarly, as noted in extant literature, early career attrition was a global phenomenon; the issues of working conditions including workload, working hours, salary and school support have been identified as important influences in beginning teachers’ intentions to stay in, or leave the profession, though teacher attrition may need to consider other issues such as teachers’ resilience level and the complexity of the school, social cultural and political contexts (e.g. Clandinin et al., 2017; Craig, 2017). In this study, although those negative viewpoints of teaching were only reported by the minority of the interviewees as a deterrent factor for teaching, it is likely to be worth noticing when it comes to teacher attrition and teacher retention, especially in the current UK context in which, as discussed in Chapter One (see Section 1.1), growing concerns regarding teacher shortage and teacher attrition need to be addressed.

6.3.8.2 Doubts from public opinion

Questionnaire data showed that around half of the participants reported that they had received negative feedback toward the intention to go teaching or had been advised against entering a teaching profession. In interviews, respondents expressed that those discouragements were given by both within and outside the teaching profession, saying that
'don’t go teaching, it’s awful’, or ‘You can’t find a better job, then go teaching’. They felt not valued by society and other people, compared to other professions such as lawyers and doctors. Teaching seems to have long-time precarious occupational standing. In the last several decades, teaching hold low status in the occupational hierarchy as it is often considered as an easy work, likened to child care and is viewed as women’s work (Lortie, 2002; Johnson and Birkeland, 2003; OECD, 2014). Till recently, from the public’s perspective, teaching is less likely to be regarded as a profession with high level of prestige and specialised knowledge. In the face of such negative response to teaching, intriguingly, and contrary to Younger et al.’s assumption (2004, p. 249) that student trainees possibly ‘draw on a strongly moralistic positioning in order to withstand this discouragement’; many interview participants in this study attached greater significance to intrinsic rewards of teaching such as job satisfaction or enjoyment than to discouragement they had received. It may be that strong positive inner feelings about teaching help students sustain their determination to become teachers.

6.3.8.3 Doubts from students themselves

In interviews, two respondents expressed the feeling of self-doubt in managing a teaching job or something they felt they were not good at in teaching. For example, participants reported their low confidence in classroom management and dealing with disruptive children or time management of delivering the class. Having low confidence in teaching or uncertainty of whether they are doing well in teaching or whether they have reached their goals are very likely to undermine participants established self-image of teachers, which might become a source of a high level of anxiety in teaching (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003). Feeling anxious has been identified as pertinent to teachers’ experience of negative emotions (Keller et al., 2014). The occurrence of negative emotions would probably be a threat to teachers’ job satisfaction and may make them consider leaving the teaching profession.

Unexpectedly, it was encouraging to discover that those struggling elements of teaching as a career choice were not detrimental to their intention to become a teacher. Rather, they regarded that hardness as the very thing they need to improve. Respondent reported that thinking about genuinely liking being with children and enjoying working with them could help them accept difficult times when self-doubting their ability to teach. In this respect, students in this study tend to focus more on the intrinsic rewards of teaching rather than any potential difficulties they perceived in the teaching profession.
6.3.9 Perceptions about teaching

The research provides an indication of a combination of motives in respondents’ choice of teaching. It is also evident that those motives involve a complicated interplay between respondents’ perceptions about teaching, reflecting on their aspiration, expectations and attitudes toward a teaching career, and more broadly, their values about career choices. Given intrinsic, altruistic and ability as highly important motives for most participants, it is very likely that they view teaching as an optimal and rewarding career that they can enjoy, fulfil interest and ability as well as help others to learn and make a difference to young people’s lives. In this respect, they were highly motivated to pursue a teaching career.

However, as discussed previously, it is noteworthy that many interview participants convey a sense of mismatch between the perceived demands of, and returns to, teaching. Such a mismatch may be due to having heavy workload and huge emotional stress but receiving low income with little recognition or appreciation for teachers. In this regard, they seem to create a negative image of teaching and some of them are very aware of the potential downside of teaching as a career choice. On the positive side, given participants’ indications of a high level of satisfaction about teaching as a career choice, they might still feel positive about entering the teaching profession and retain the desire to remain teaching. Further, participants tend to rely on aspirations and expectations of internal satisfaction from teaching as against a potentially unfavourable picture of teaching, similar to literature focusing on how teacher’s expectation about teaching as a career impact on the decision to remain in the profession (Kyriacou and Kunc, 2007; Kyriacou et al., 2003). On the other hand, although most pre-service teachers in this study do not enter teaching for a high level of salary, prestige and an ‘easy life’, it is noteworthy that workload, salary, disruptive pupils and low status were identified as the key reasons given by teachers in England for leaving the profession within the first few years (Spear, Gould and Lee, 2000; Kyriacou and Kunc, 2007; Lynch et al., 2016). Research on students’ experiences of initial teaching training in England, suggests that the most frequent reason given by student for withdrawing from the training is that they simply find teaching is more demanding than they expected it would be (Hobson and Malderez, 2005).

Although this might not necessarily be the case in Scotland and a previous study of teachers in Scotland indicated the issue of ‘pay and status do not feature directly’ (Robinson, Munn and MacDonald, 1992, cited in Spear, Gould and Lee, 2000, p. 21), it is a much earlier study and teachers’ motives, deterrent factors and career expectation may change over time. For
instance, as discussed earlier in Section 6.3.3.3, nowadays, teachers often need to work far more than contract hours, and the workload of Scottish teachers is considered as heavy on the international level. Moreover, another important factor influencing career decision-making is likely to be a feeling of lack of success and inner satisfaction, a feeling that teaching is not suitable for them (Heafford and Jennison, 1998). In this respect, what would cause disappointment with teaching as a career choice may need to be rethought, and it is likely worthwhile to give more attention to the perceptions and expectations student teachers or in-service teachers hold nowadays. Those results and interpretations indicate a future research might be needed to explore further about the extent to which those perceptions and expectations of teaching influence the decision to pursue a teaching career; also, how pre-service teachers balance their perceived positive and negative aspects of teaching as a career choice.

6.3.10 Section summary and reflections on the motivation for choosing a teaching career

In this section, both quantitative and qualitative findings in relation to the first research question (i.e. What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers’ decision to pursue a teaching career?) has been discussed in light of previous research. In general, confirming the existing literature (Younger et al., 2004; Hammond, 2002; Watt and Richardson, 2007; Watt et al., 2012), this study found that respondents tended to combine different types of motivational factors influencing their decision to enter teaching and these factors were closely related to intrinsic factors, altruistic factors, extrinsic factors, perceived teaching abilities, family members and previous teaching experience. Among these influential factors, intrinsic and altruistic motives (e.g. interest and enjoyment, desire to work with children and help them succeed) and a sense of teaching competence predominantly motivated most participants to pursue a teaching career. In this respect, the majority of the participants in this study tended to look for internal satisfaction and a sense of fulfilment in a teaching career. Concerning the high level of teaching attrition across the globe including the UK over the last decade, previous research suggests that the main source of leaving the profession might be attributed to external considerations, such as excessive workload, low relative salary, and low perceived status (Kyriacou et al., 2003; Donaldson, 2010). Considering these findings above, there might be potential differences between what made individual enter into teaching and what made them withdraw from teaching. It is therefore important to distinguish between factors that are more important to the initial decision to enter the teaching profession and
factors that are more important to the latter decision to stay in or leave the teaching profession. According to Dinham and Scott (1998, p. 363),

‘Generally, motivation is taken to mean a stimulus for behaviour and action in the light of a particular context, while satisfaction – and indeed dissatisfaction – is usually taken to mean a product of behaviour and action in the light of a particular context or environment. However, both phenomena are inextricably linked through the influence each has on the other’.

Following this explanation of motivation, satisfaction and dissatisfaction appear to be the two pertinent concepts that guide the understanding of the motivation to teach at large. The work of Herzberg and Maslow might be relevant here to understand this issue (Herzberg, 1959; Maslow, 1954). In Herzberg’s Motivation-Hygiene theory (1959), Herzberg identified two factors, one is ‘motivator factors’ that are more concerned with positive job satisfaction and the separate one is ‘hygiene factors’ that are more concerned with job dissatisfaction. The motivation factors are intrinsic to the job itself such as interest, achievement, recognition, advancement, and responsibility. The hygiene factors, however, are extrinsic to the job itself such as salary, institutional policies and administration, working conditions, interpersonal relations with others. These two sets of factors appear to parallel Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (1954), as discussed in Chapter Two, from the low level of needs (e.g. physiological and safety needs) to high-level needs (e.g. self-actualisation, esteem needs). For most participants in this study, the motivator factors or high level of needs (e.g. enjoyment, personal fulfilment, work with children) participants expressed might result in a high level of job satisfaction that positively encourages them to pursue a career in teaching. Whilst, failing to achieve the hygiene factors or low-level of needs (e.g. proper level of salary and prestige workload) might result in job dissatisfaction, and this is very likely to have a negative impact on the intentions to stay in the teaching profession. On the other hand, it is also worth noting that although extrinsic factors did figure in the choice of teaching in this sample and some mentioned issues of salary and working conditions, the majority tended to hold quite strong intrinsic motivational drivers which allowed them to maintain their commitment and enthusiasm for a career in teaching.

Herzberg (1959) argued that ‘motivator factors’ and ‘hygiene factors’ were independent of each other. For example, if the hygiene factors were poor or unsatisfactory, people would experience job dissatisfaction; solely promoting hygiene factors would only reduce or remove job dissatisfaction, but would not result in an increase in job satisfaction. In this sense, although most participants in this study exhibit high level of internal motives (i.e.
motivator factors), if external aspects such as workload, salary, prestige (i.e. hygiene factors) are unacceptable, these participants may still perceive the job of a teacher with dissatisfaction, which may result in putting off a teaching career through placements. Kyriacou et al. (2003) argue that the motivators were evident in the teachers’ initial decision to teach, and these career expectations would be realised once employed as a school teacher. However, the demotivators (i.e. the external hygiene factors) may not necessarily meet their expectations, and this could demoralise teachers and make them feel disappointed and dissatisfied. Thus, it is those negative feelings and attitudes towards a teaching career that can trigger the intention of leaving the profession. Alternatively, participants’ career expectation of intrinsic rewards gained from teaching might have been challenged by extrinsic issues such as the overwhelming workload and pressure, or/and a lack of sufficient pay and respect. In this regard, positive intrinsic aspects might be crucial in the decision to study teacher education courses but not necessarily crucial in the intention to remain in the profession. These interpretations may help make sense of the issue noted earlier regarding why people decide to leave teaching, even though they were initially highly motivated to become a teacher.

Following these perspectives, in order to achieve a holistic picture of motivation for choosing a teaching career, it is important not only to recognise the motivators towards teaching as a career but also to understand the potential demotivators (e.g. the doubts about teaching as a career choice) that may erode the motivation for becoming a teacher. Of particular note is that those demotivators emerging from this study might not always be extrinsic to the teaching itself, as discussed earlier in Section 6.3.8, low confidence in teaching competence and poor student behaviour may also become a potential deterrent factor of teaching as a career (Edward, 2017; Farkas et al., 2000). Taken together, the motivators and demotivators are arguably equally important in examining the motivation to teach as a whole, whether in the current teacher training stage or subsequent professional journey. Understanding them both is perhaps of great practical importance in deciding how to address the problem of teacher recruitment and retention.

6.4 Research question 2: What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to choose teaching as their first career choice?

From questionnaire data, as might be expected, the majority of the cohort who chose teaching as their first career choice reported work with children/adolescents, intrinsic career value, shape future of children or adolescents, perceived teaching abilities and make social
contribution as very important motives for entering teaching, followed by prior teaching and learning experience, enhance social equity, job security, and social influences. Generally, these results confirm that students participating in this research choose teaching as a first career option for similar reasons as those outlined within international research with reference to teaching as a first career choice, including role models, intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivation (e.g. Lai et al., 2005; Lovett, 2007; Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Manuel and Hughes, 2006). On the other hand, it is noteworthy that perceived teaching abilities is also seen as an important influential component in an individual’s choice teaching, and it is this self-belief that is possibly difficult to categorise as being a form of intrinsic, altruistic or extrinsic motivation. In this study, most students in this cohort are young (75% of students with age 17-22) and straight from school without any full-time working experience, and thus, it seems not surprising that they would consider a job which they believe they could manage and simply feel good about themselves.

Similarly, in interviews, more detailed responses about choosing teaching as the first career preference largely focused on enjoying teaching and realising identified teaching capability. Drawing upon the notion of self-actualisation within the teaching profession suggested by Malderez et al. (2007), it may be understandable that students expect their first career path to provide the opportunity to reach their potential, thereby fully enjoying it as a career. Furthermore, most interview respondents also reported that they had informal teaching experiences or had experienced teacher-like activities; and, the choice of teaching as a first career preference was driven by the joy they found in such experiences. It may be that this experience is positive, therefore, they generate an intention to sustain this pleasure and enjoyment of teaching that reinforces the decision to become a teacher. Arguably, such pre-teaching experiences drive individuals to think about their role in the teaching profession and to develop the idea and awareness of teaching as a suitable job or career path (Hammond, 2002; Lovett, 2007). Moreover, contrary to Mtika and Gates’ finding (2011) the idea of teaching as a fallback or stepping stone career was not a feature of this sample. Interestingly, on the other hand, although many respondents recognised that teaching was a career with potentially a high workload and high stress, for some, relatively low status and financial rewards did not cause them to actually question their decision to pursue teaching. In this respect, although many students are highly motivated and attracted to teaching, they are also aware of the potential negative aspects of being a teacher prior to making the decision to enter the teaching profession. Thus, it is suggested that the cohort who chose teaching as a first career choice in this study have made a conscious decision and hold a relatively rational expectation of teaching as a career.
6.5 Research question 3: What motivates Scottish pre-service teachers to leave their previous work to enter the teaching profession?

Drawing on questionnaire data, most career changers reported that the decision to teach was strongly influenced by more altruistic-type factors including *shape the future of children/adolescents, make social contribution* and *work with children/adolescents*. *Perceived teaching abilities, intrinsic career, enhance social equity, prior teaching/learning experience, job security* came next. Consistent with questionnaire data, in interviews, career changers respondents also generally conveyed that they chose teaching mainly for reasons of enjoyment in working with children, and helping children with the potential to make a difference to their lives. Furthermore, it was somewhat surprising to find that many of interview participants already had pleasant experiences working with children. Such experiences may act as a catalyst that informs career changers to visualise exciting positive outcome to becoming a teacher. In addition, some interview participants reported that they left their previous occupation due to short term employment contracts and saw it more as a temporary job for living rather than a life-long career for joy or fulfilment. Drawing upon the notion of ‘push and pull factors’ (Anthony and Ord, 2008, p. 365; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003, p. 100) discussed in Chapter two, for those career changers in this study, the ‘push’ resulted from disappointment with previous working experience that lacked fulfilment or satisfaction, which caused them to re-evaluate their previous choice of job(s). The need for greater job satisfaction and better long term prospects; and, the perception of teaching as a potentially exciting and meaningful profession, served as a ‘pull’ towards teaching. In changing career, as Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant (2003) suggest, teacher trainees may be constantly revaluating their career perceptions, expectations and aspirations before a final decision to switch to a career to teaching.

On the other hand, the remaining minority interviewees with a relatively long employment history were to some extent an exception to this lack of inner enjoyment and fulfilment. They attributed leaving their previous occupational path to pragmatic reasons, in terms of relatively low salary or career prospects. At the same time, unexpectedly, some also expressed awareness that teachers might not necessarily get a high level of salary and promising prospects. The issue of what is perceived as high salary level, as discussed earlier in Section 6.3.3.2, perhaps needs caution because participants may have a different personal standard of good salary and their financial background and social class may need to be considered as working class and middle class may have different views as to what a high salary is. The finding that some participants left their previous job due to low pay and poor
prospects while choosing a career seen by some as having similar characteristics is interesting. These somewhat contradictory career expectations participants reported illustrate the complexity in interpreting the decision-making process for a change to a career in teaching. One possible interpretation is that, given they report a high level of intrinsic value and social utility motivation; and, given perhaps greater maturity and life experience, they are better able to evaluate the realities from the myths in relation to perspectives on pay and prospects. They seem to be realistic in weighing up potential positive and negative elements of pursuing teaching as a career and tend to value more on how teaching can fulfil their interests as well as help others. Although they might have already known what to look for in a teaching job, it is still possible that they are uncertain about whether teaching has a better future than previous jobs.

On the positive side, as noted in many studies (e.g. Sinclair, 2008; Lovett, 2007; Watt and Richardson, 2007), the sense of altruism and internal rewards within teaching might be more important and appealing than the external rewards regarding the salary and career prospect. Research has suggested that altruistic and intrinsic motives are important factors in long-term commitment (Richardson and Watt, 2014), nonetheless, for a career choice of teaching, as discussed previously in Section 6.3.10, external aspects such as workload, salary and prestige of teaching have the potential to give rise to job dissatisfaction that may contribute towards a decision to leave the profession. Again, although extrinsic reasons may not predominantly motivate participants to enter the teaching profession in the first place, they perhaps play an important role in sustaining pre-service teachers’ intention to maintain commitment to a career in the long term. Considering these perspectives, it seems difficult to ascertain whether teaching is a life-long profession for this type of career changers, given the ambivalent feelings toward a teaching career respondents conveyed. Thus, it might need further longitudinal research to understand teachers’ level of commitment to a career in teaching and the reasons behind decisions to remain or leave the teaching profession.

6.6 Research question 4: What are the similarities and differences in Scottish pre-service teachers’ motivations for entering the teaching profession between those who choose teaching as their first career choice and those who change their career to teaching?

The study sought to compare and contrast the reasons behind a career in teaching for those who chose teaching as a first career choice (Group 1) and for those who entered the teaching profession after previously pursuing another career (Group 2). In general, the primary
reasons for choosing teaching held more similarities than differences. Although participants from each group ranked motivational factors in slightly different order, highly rated motivational factor were similar, including shape future of children/adolescents, work with children/adolescents, make social contribution, perceived teaching abilities, intrinsic career, enhance social equity followed by prior teaching/learning experience, and job security. Fallback career and bludging motivation were uniformly lowest between both groups. These results suggest that whether participants had a career history or not, their choice of teaching was made by variety of factors and largely more driven by altruistic-type and intrinsic value and self-perception of ability than influenced by personally utilitarian value or viewing it as a default option. Furthermore, in this study, both groups held similar perception about teaching, considering teaching as high in terms of demands (i.e. work volume, emotional stress) but relatively low in returns (i.e. status, teacher morale, salary). It was encouraging to discover both groups reported a high level of job satisfaction, despite an awareness of the potential negativities in the teaching profession. In this respect, whether students chose teaching as a first career choice or second/subsequent career option, greater weight was attached to pursuing internally enjoyable, fulfilling and morally worthwhile tasks, rather than ascribing importance to salary and status as important career rewards or outcomes.

Of particular note, however, was that 75% of students in Group 1 were young students (age 17-22) while the corresponding age group accounted for only 12% of Group 2. In this regard, although two groups of pre-service teachers enter teaching for similar reasons and both recognise the negative side of teaching, it may be that they look at teaching as a career choice from different angles. For example, in light of interview data, some career changers offered a deep and serious reflection and introspection about their life and career path based their unsatisfactory previous employment (e.g. thinking about choosing a long-term occupation and pursuing something interesting and meaningful); they expressed more clear career goals and aspirations of pursuing a pleasant and socially important career and wanted to achieve these goals through a career change into teaching. According to Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant (2003), the decision to switch a career to teaching is likely to be associated with one’s prior work and life experience accompanied by changing ideas and ideals that influence career priorities and expectations. Indeed, in interviews, some changers in this study indicated that it was the realisation that they felt bored and meaningless in their previous work, which led to consider teaching as a new career because they believed teaching would be a fulfilling and rewarding profession. Research has suggested that career changers value the importance of actualising themselves in teaching and hope to bring their acquired skills and competences from previous working experience into the teaching
profession (Wilkins 2017; Williams and Forgasz, 2009). In this connection, older career changers may hold a more realistic and mature perception about selecting an occupation, relative to young students with no full-time working experience and lesser life experience. However, it was worth noting that the majority of career changers (around 70%) in this sample are from age 17 to 25, and people in their early adulthood may still look forward to exploring different life possibilities and career options (Williams, 2013).

I initially had expected that several motivational factors and beliefs might differ from one group to another, nevertheless, the significant statistical difference only existed in one item within intrinsic career – ‘I’ve always wanted to be a teacher’, with Group 1 (young school leavers or graduates) scoring higher than Group 2 (career changers). This finding suggests that Group 1 appears to be more expected and longing to be engaged in the teaching profession than Group 2. In addition, I also noticed that Group 1 awarded a slightly higher rating than Group 2 in perceived teaching abilities, social influences, and job transferability; while Group 2 were slightly higher than Group 1 in work with children/adolescents, make social contribution, enhance social equity, and time for family. Considering these significant and subtle differences, students who chose teaching as a first career, compared to career changers, are more concerned about intrinsically satisfying and seeing teaching as a natural choice to fit better with their skill set, enthusiasm and future goals. As discussed earlier in this section, given that 75% of students in Group 1 were at young age (17 to 22), it might not be surprising that they tend to give priority to a career choice that is congruent with their aptitudes, interests and abilities; and, when making decision about a career choice at the first time, they are more likely to be influenced by significant others such family members, friends, previous school teachers and mentors, relative to career changers. For career changers, they are perhaps more attracted to teaching by the idea of helping young people and giving back to society, and by the family concern. In other words, career changers in this study appear to promote notions of altruism as the most important career motivation after a re-evaluation of a previous career. Drawing upon previous work and life experience, it may well be that the mature career changers are more aware of finding a psychologically satisfying and socially worthwhile career (Anthony and Ord, 2008; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Wilkins, 2017). Such beliefs and career aspirations are likely to pull or persuade them to enter teaching.

In addition, family consideration as important in pulling them towards a career in teaching was evident in some career changers’ responses in the interview settings. This finding aligns with the results revealing the family circumstances have an impact on a career change to
teaching (Richardson and Watt, 2005; Laming and Horne, 2013). In this study, the proportion of career changers who were married couple/cohabiting (40%) were ten times than the proportion of the counterparts in first-career teachers (4%). This evidence suggests that career changers may decide to alter their prior career path to enter teaching after having partner, marriage or childbearing. Thus, it is very likely that the choice of teaching is considered based on the expectation to find a career that allow time for family commitment and responsibilities, which may account for why career changers place more value on family issues than first career teachers. In this sense, the career choice might be associated with the time or the situation in which individuals made the decision.

On the other hand, in the interview, there were also career changers indicating that they might consider leaving the teaching profession when they had family and children due to teachers’ heavy workload. This is particular the case for female career changers, reflecting or reinforcing a view or stereotype that females place high value on family commitment and responsibility in the career decision-making (Eccles, 2009). They believed that an overwhelming workload in the teaching resulted in difficulties of reaching a work-life balance and teaching as a career choice might not allow sufficient free time for the family and taking care of their own children. Those results above suggest that career changers in this study differentiate on how to view issues of family time and work-life balance in the choice of teaching. Those findings have implications for the issues regarding teacher’s recruitment and retention. Those who are involved in recruiting and retaining teachers may be required to pay attention to the individual differences, situational factors and life or family circumstances. This may become more relevant as some recent studies suggest that career changers constitute a large proportion of the workforce within teaching (Lovett, 2007; Anthony and Ord, 2008; Wilkins, 2017; Williams, 2013; Laming and Horne, 2013). This tendency means that recruitment campaigns need, while continuing to address young school leavers’ needs and motivations in relation to the profession, but also need to pay closer attention to what attracts or influences mature career changers to join the teaching profession.

This chapter has now discussed the key findings for each of the research questions, in relation to existing research. The next section will discuss quantitative and qualitative data in light of Eccles et al.’s expectancy-value model.
6.7 Applying Expectancy-Value theory to understanding the findings

As discussed in Chapter Two, Eccles et al.’s expectancy-value theory provides a theoretical support for the FIT-Choice model that guides the conceptual framework and practice for this study to address the primary issue concerning motivations for choosing teaching as a career choice. Eccles and her colleagues (Eccles, 2005, 2009; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000) argue that individuals’ occupational and educational choice(s) are influenced by their beliefs about how well they will do the task and the extent to which they value the task. This section will consider the three crucial constructs within the expectancy-value theory proposed by Eccles and Wigfield (1995) to help interpret and examine the research findings of this study, including (1) expectancy/ability beliefs; (2) subjective task value, i.e. attainment value, intrinsic value, utility values and cost; (3) perceived task difficulty, i.e. effort required and task difficulty. In addition, this section will also discuss the research findings from the perspectives of identity and identity formation within the expectancy-value framework, attempting to explain how people choose to make sense of themselves through their choice of teaching.

6.7.1 Expectancy/ability beliefs

The expectation for success and personal efficacy have long been recognised by decision and achievement theorists as important mediators of academic subjects and career choice (Eccles, 2009). In expectancy-value theory, as discussed previously in Chapter Two, expectancies for success refer to one’s beliefs about how well they will do on upcoming tasks; ability beliefs, similar to the self-efficacy construct proposed by Bandura (1997), refer to one’s perception of his or her present competence at a given activity. Ability beliefs, therefore, are conceptually distinguished from expectancies for success; as ability beliefs focus on one’s current ability whereas expectancies focus on the future (Eccles and Wigfield, 1995; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). Eccles (2009) argues that task/activity/behaviour choices are influenced by the individuals’ hierarchy of success expectations and personal efficacies. Eccles and her colleagues believe that people tend to select certain activities for which they have high (or highest) level of perceived ability and expectations for success. Indeed, in this study, both quantitative and qualitative findings suggested that most participants’ decision to pursue a teaching career was highly influenced by the perception that teaching is suited well to their intellectual and communicative ability and skills and they can do well in teaching. According to Bandura (1997), a high level of efficacy and expectations are
beneficial for individual’s accomplishment and well-being in many ways. People with a strong sense of self-efficacy handle difficult tasks as challenges to be conquered instead of as fears to be avoided. These people are more likely to be intrinsically interested, set challenging goals for themselves and maintain a strong commitment to these goals. In this connection, participants’ perceived high level of teaching competence appears to be a positive drive both in their initial choice of teaching and subsequent persistence of teaching.

Furthermore, some interview respondents in this study reported that they found they had the ability and qualities to teach (e.g. effective teaching skills and good communication with students) based on their own previous experience of teaching English as a foreign language. According to Eccles (2009), one’s ability beliefs in a certain area and the value of developing those abilities and skills are shaped over time by the experiences of engagement with that area, as well as by the individual’s subjective interpretation of those experiences. In this study, participants expressed the feelings of enjoyment and achievement when they had the chances to work with young people before teacher education courses. In one sense, such positive feelings are likely to develop and form their beliefs that they had a high level of competencies that they can/will manage to teach English successfully; and, if this is the case, they are more likely to choose to continue working with children and become a professional teacher.

In addition, other people such as colleagues or students could also play a role in recognising and confirming their ability to teach, thereby having an impact on their choice of teaching. For example, in interviews, respondents who had experience of working with children in a less formal setting (e.g. nursing or coaching in a summer camp) conveyed that what their colleagues and students told them about how well they did in working with young people and influenced them to consider a career in teaching. These encouraging responses were likely to have helped participants enhance their confidence in teaching as well as indicating some positive messages that teaching is suited to them and they can be successful teachers. In contrast, as discussed previously in Section 6.3.7, it is also possible that other people’s encouragement may not fundamentally determine a respondents’ choice of teaching. Rather, respondents are more likely to be strongly influenced by their own judgment of a teaching career; basically from the standpoint of how well they can do in teaching and how much enjoyment they can get from teaching. Bandura (1997) argues that, on the one hand, social persuasion could strengthen individual’s beliefs that they possess what was required to succeed in given activities; on the other hand, social persuasion and other’s positive appraisals may not be convincing if individuals get disappointing outcomes. Considering
those perspectives above, perhaps, social persuasion would work well only if participants themselves have already created and raised their beliefs about the capability to teach.

Taken together, pre-service teachers’ beliefs, whether from their own assessments of teaching capacity on or from other people’s positive feedbacks towards the performance of their previous teaching or teaching-alike activity, are very likely to help develop their sense that they can do well in teaching (i.e. personal efficacy) and they will do well in teaching if choosing a teaching career (expectancy for success). In such ways, prospective teachers appear to develop the beliefs about who they are and who they would like to become. This process of viewing oneself was viewed by Eccles (2009) as identity formation. Eccles and his colleagues believe that identity as a motivational construct: at the conjunction of the ability self-concept and subjective task values (Eccles 2009; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). From an expectancy-value theory perspective, ‘identity can be conceptualised in terms of two sets of self-perceptions: 1) perceptions related to skills, characteristics, and competencies, and 2) perceptions related to personal values and goals’ (Eccles, 2009, p. 78). Given the high level of perceived teaching abilities participants reported, a part of their identity might be developed by participants’ positive beliefs about their abilities, skills and quality of being a good teacher, thereby viewing ‘teaching is ME’. However, a strong sense of competence in teaching might be mediated by high level of perceived teaching difficulty and this will be discussed further later in the perceived task difficulty section. The next section will focus on discussing the findings in relation to potential subjective values one attaches to a teaching career.

### 6.7.2 Subjective task values

Subjective task values as conceptualised by Eccles (2009) are related not only to the quality of the task but also linked to an individual’s identity and the process of identity development. As discussed earlier in Section 6.7, task value is influenced by four components: 1) intrinsic value; 2) attainment value; 3) utility value; 4) perceived cost. The following sub-sections will discuss those elements in more details.

#### 6.7.2.1 Intrinsic value
According to Eccles (2005, 2009), *intrinsic value* relates directly to the task itself and the pleasure and enjoyment it brings to the individual while experiencing it. In this study, *intrinsic value* received high ratings from the questionnaire respondents. In interviews, participants reported that they chose teaching mainly out of previously experienced satisfaction and enjoyment of working with children, the desire to share knowledge and to continue working within the existing degree subject. These results might be an indication of participants’ career expectations, suggesting that they might view teaching as a way to fulfil their interest and gain enjoyment and a sense of satisfaction. In other words, they tend to place high value on the importance of interest and enjoyment in career choice decisions.

According to Wigfield and Eccles (2000), when people engage in certain activities that are intrinsically valued, there are important psychological consequences for them, most of which are quite positive. In this respect, participants’ career choice in teaching is likely based on the high level of perceived and anticipated enjoyment of becoming involved in the teaching profession (Eccles, 2009). Furthermore, in interviews, many of the participants reported that they had an opportunity to work with children whether in a formal or informal setting before the PGDE or MEduc courses and they all had school placement during the PGDE or MEduc courses. Positive feelings of teaching (e.g. enjoyment or pleasure) as well as teaching skills may increasingly grow in those experiences, thereby helping participants develop and inform their identity, ‘teaching is Me’. It is quite likely that they will then come to value this identity as a teacher and start to consider choosing to enter the teaching profession.

### 6.7.2.2 Attainment value

Attainment value is defined by Eccles *et al.* as the personal importance of doing well on a task, having the relevance to their future goals (Eccles, 2009; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). For this study, the constructs within the FIT-Choice questionnaire developed from attainment value of expectancy-value theory were to measure the extent to which prospective teachers consider the teaching profession to be important to achieving their personal goals. From questionnaire data, the most highly rated factor influencing becoming a teacher were in relation to altruistic aspects of teaching including *shape future of children/adolescents, work with children/adolescents, make social contribution, enhance social equity*. Similarly, altruistic motives such as helping young people fulfil their potential and being able to make a positive influence on their lives were commonly cited by interview respondents as important in their decision to enter the teaching profession. According to Eccles (2009), individuals’ perceptions of the features of an educational or vocational choice are concerned with their needs, values and identity. In this sense, a career choice in teaching might be
viewed by participants as an appropriate way to meet career aspirations and goals such as helping young people succeed and benefit society.

Further, from the perspective of individual’s identity, in one sense, those altruistic-type goals reflect participants’ self-image of who they are and their ideal image of what they would like to be or what they should be like. These parts of self-image appear to be of central importance to participants’ definition of themselves that seeks to have an important impact on young people. Eccles (2009) argues that the likelihood of participating in particular roles or activities is in relation to one’s personal or collective/social identities. For instance, if helping other people is a central part of participant’s identity or self-image, it is quite likely that these participants will choose an occupation with ‘helping’ characteristics. This suggests that attainment value is related to helping other people and plays an important role in fulfilling a part of an individual’s personal and collective identities and being able to perform the decision to pursue a teaching career. In contrast, if teaching is less likely to fulfil their personal central goal, the propensity to choose a teaching career may be low. Previous studies concerning reasons for never considering teaching and for leaving teaching suggest that people are directed away from the teaching profession because it no longer aligns with their personal goals (e.g. Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Heafford and Jennison, 1998).

6.7.2.3 Utility value

Utility value, also known as extrinsic utility value, captures more extrinsic reasons for choosing to teach, for instance, with respect to how a teaching career can improve the quality of one’s life (Wigfield and Eccles 2000). Watt and Richardson (2007) labelled the extrinsic quality of life issues in the FIT-Choice scale as the perceived utility value construct, consisting of time for family, job security, and job transferability (e.g. the opportunity to work overseas and travelling). From the questionnaire data, job security was rated highly whereas time for family and job transferability received relatively low ratings. This finding suggests that most participants’ decision to become a teacher is likely to be influenced by the belief that teaching has the most relevance to their expectations of having a steady career path, though, as discussed previously in Section 6.3.3, they might be unrealistic about teacher’s levels of remuneration and job security in teaching.

In general, most participants were not strongly driven by the concept of time for family in the choice of a teaching career. As discussed previously in 4.3.4.1, it may be that questionnaire responses towards time for family are conditioned by the fact that 75% of
respondents stated they were single and it is understandable that they may not consider family commitment and responsibilities as important in the career-decision making. Further, the typical perspective that teaching has a high level of workload featured throughout the quantitative data. In interviews, there was a general sense that teacher had enormous workloads and they could not take a full break after class or during holidays. Two interview respondents suggested they would quit teaching when they have children because of the heavy workload of teachers. This result is against the traditional view that teaching is viewed as a family-friendly career where teachers can have more time look after their own children (Richardson and Watt, 2005). As such, the results above also contrast with public opinion and stereotypical views that people choose a teaching career as a result of relatively short teaching hours and longer school holidays that allow more family time and family responsibilities (Richardson and Watt, 2014).

In Scotland, the teaching load is quite heavy, and a significant proportion of Scottish teachers were having work-related stress and mental wellbeing issues due to excessive and growing workload (Hepburn, 2017; OECD, 2017). For example, as discussed earlier in Section 6.7.2.4, Hepburn’s study (2017) showed that of 778 surveyed, nearly half of Scottish teachers reported poor mental health, and 15 per cent reported taking medication as a result of high-stress level. According to an NUT (the national union of teachers) survey, of 16397 responded, 96% reported that teachers’ workload had negative consequences for their family and personal life (NUT, 2014). In this connection, teaching is more likely to be perceived as a busy and stressful career rather than a family-friendly career. This may in part explain why many participants in this study disapprove of the perspective that a teaching career in Scotland can allow sufficient time for family. Another possible interpretation is that many participants tend to attach less value on time for family to a teaching career; rather, they are more likely to be strongly influenced by their sense of ability as well as the value in terms of altruistic-type attainment value (social utility value) and intrinsic value.

Personal utility value in relation to job transferability was also not a common influential factor in many participants’ decision to pursue a teaching career. However, of particular note, the extent to which individuals attach the utility value of job transferability may vary from one person to another. For example, drawing on questionnaire data, many prospective language teachers tend to place extremely high value on job transferability. In interviews, three participants who once taught teaching English to the speaker of other languages did express how their love of travelling inspired them to choose a teaching career and how teaching could help them work abroad and travelling around the world. In addition, they also
conveyed that altruistic dimensions (i.e. a concern with helping and positively impacting young people) as central to the decision to enter the teaching profession. In light of the notion of subjective value (Eccles, 2009; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000; Eccles and Wigfield, 1995), a choice of a teaching career is consistent with participants’ values that teaching plays a critical role in achieving their career expectations of helping others (i.e. attainment value) and being useful to fulfil their desire to work abroad and travelling around the world (i.e. utility value). In this case, the values participants attach to a teaching career are a combination of attainment value and utility value. These findings support Wigfield and Eccles’ (2000) theoretical assumptions grounded in the expectancy-value framework in relation to the components of subjective values, believing that whether attainment value or extrinsic utility value or both, can profoundly impact one’s choice of a career.

6.7.2.4 Perceived cost

Cost can be characterised as the negative value component, in relation to required time and effort, financial loss or loss of other opportunities, various emotional cost such as anxiety and fear of failure (Eccles, 2009; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). The cost value component within the expectancy-value framework is less studied by researchers including Wigfield and Eccles. However, in this study, there was a real sense of emotional cost in terms of huge work-related pressure reported in both questionnaire and interview data. From the questionnaire data, the vast majority (98% of respondents) reported that teaching was very emotionally demanding. In interviews, participants expressed negative sentiments about the high level of stress and depression teachers suffered, mainly triggered by the overwhelming workload in school. It may well be that such heavy workload had negatively affected their lives and made them feel unable to have a healthy work-life balance.

A recent study conducted by academics at Bath Spa University (Hepburn, 2017) found that over 40 percent of teachers from the EIS (The Educational Institute of Scotland) union are considering leaving the teaching profession within the next 15-19 months because there is increasing pressure and dropping job satisfaction caused by the tremendous workload. With respect to teachers’ wellbeing, 45 per cent reported that their mental health was ‘poor’ or ‘very poor’, and 15 percent reported taking medication due to the stresses of their work. Similarly, interview respondents in this study reported that if the emotional demand of teaching is too high for them to cope with, they might not consider taking a teaching career after training courses, although they found that teaching was internally fulfilling. Keller et al. (2014) argue that in teachers’ work lives, emotions play an important role in their job
satisfaction and reasons for either staying in a job or leaving it prematurely. As such, Malderez et al.’s study (2007) of student teacher experience of ITP (Initial teacher preparation) course revealed that emotions (e.g. excited, love; worry, panic, overwhelming) were one of key features of becoming a student teacher, and suggested these emotions may influence their subsequent career plan and early career development. Drawing on the notion of ‘subjective cost’, unmanageable emotional cost of teaching such as excessive stress, anxiety, and exhaustion appear to have a negative impact on a sense of wellbeing and a positive teacher identity. Especially when participants place more importance on extrinsic utility value for pursuing a more relaxing lifestyle in the career preference, they may not be satisfied with the choice of teaching if they find teaching is quite hard and stressful work. Therefore, for student teachers in this study, such perceived great cost may trigger the decision to withdraw from teacher training or become the potential deterrent to the decision to pursue a teaching career after the completion of teacher education courses.

6.7.3 Perceived task difficulty

The concept of perceived task difficulty can be characterised as the ‘objective’ difficulty of the task and the amount of effort required to achieve the task (Eccles and Wigfield, 1995). In the context of the choice of teaching as a career, according to Watt and Richardson (2007), the notion of perceived task difficulty is related to the construct of task perceptions developed by within the FIT-Choice questionnaire, containing task demand and task return components. Questionnaire responses to the constructs on task demand suggest that the majority of the participants (around 90%) perceived teaching as quite a highly demanding career requiring high levels of specialised knowledge as well as a heavy workload and hard work, indicating that teaching with a high level of task difficulty and effort required. Complementing the questionnaire data, interview participants reported the awareness that teachers did not only work in the class; they often worked outside the class at night, at weekend and even in the holiday period, for example, to do the reporting, marking and lessons plans. Furthermore, some conveyed teaching as a quite challenging job in terms of effective classroom management and the issues with respect to disruptive children. These responses are of importance in explaining the finding presented earlier in this study that why participants believed school teachers faced with or struggled with the excessive workload and unmanageable pressure.
In one sense, although perception of teaching as high demand may discourage people from choosing teaching, those negative viewpoints are likely to be moderated by perceptions of high task return (e.g. salary, social status) (Watt and Richardson, 2007). In this study, it was interesting to note that participants’ responses to teachers’ social status were not completely consistent between questionnaire data and interview data, and perception about teachers’ salary and status may vary from one to another. However, by and large, the general sense is that teaching is perceived as not providing with very high return in relation to salary and social status, compared with extremely high demand in terms of the workload, emotions and specialised knowledge. Viewing career choice as professionally demanding but with relatively low extrinsic reward is very likely to result in job dissatisfaction and frustration (Eccles, 2005; Johnson and Birkeland, 2003). In this study, although at the stage of teacher training, most student teachers reported a high level of satisfaction with their decision to become a teacher. Clearly, what is unknown is that how they would feel and think of a teaching career after they teaching for a number of years. On the positive side, as discussed in previous sections, most participants’ choice of a teaching career is more likely based on the belief that teaching can fulfil their ability, interest and future goals. Meanwhile, it might be good for those prospective teachers to understand in advance that teaching is not an easy job and they need to work very hard to become a successful teacher. However, the potential concerns are, for example, a) those intrinsic rewards might be realised quickly once they worked as a teacher at school, would they have the resilience and be able to deal with some possible unsatisfying situations in teaching, for example, in face of difficult students, the issues of overwork and pressure; b) would they be willing to endure low pay and low status despite they were initially intrinsically motivated; c) after teaching for years, at that time, would they still be happy about their choice of teaching. exploring these issues are of great importance in retaining qualified teachers and understanding how to support and motivate teachers and make a teaching career more attractive. There might require further research to explore these issues to understand prospective teacher’s subsequent teaching life and track their decisions over time.

6.7.4 Reflection on the use of expectancy-value theory to understand research findings

The Expectancy-value theory helped to understand participants’ responses to motivational factors influencing the decision to teach, what made them choose teaching as an initial career
or subsequent career, and what they look for in teaching, including their perceptions and aspirations of teaching. In general, the findings in this study support the assumptions of the expectancy-value theory that expectancy for success and subjective value task are strong predictors of occupational choice. In other words, what motivates participants to pursue a teaching career might be mainly related to their confidence of doing well in teaching and beliefs that the pursuit of a career in teaching is personally more valuable than the pursuit of other career options. Most participants are likely to place greater value on intrinsic and attainment value (e.g. interest, work with children, desire to help and influence children) than extrinsic utility value (e.g. salary, status, time for family). On the other hand, there was also evidence in this study suggesting that low financial rewards and career prestige might deter participants to choose teaching as a career, especially for male respondents. Eccles (2005) argues that in career decision-making process, males tend to place more value than females on receiving high salary and the opportunities to achieve high social status; by contrast, females are more likely than males to pursue a career that fits with the family role and relates to people and social interactions. In this respect, men may want to maximise their utility value with respect to salary and status in considering the occupational choice. However, given there is a small sample size of male respondents (13 males in the questionnaire and 2 males in the interview), these findings need to be interpreted cautiously.

Furthermore, in this study, 86% of the respondents were female, representing the large proportions of the sample. A prevailing stereotype has been that teaching is largely chosen by women for its suited characteristics and communicative skill set, and a family-friendly career with high job security (Lortie, 2002; Richardson and Watt, 2014). According to Eccles et al. (1984) and Eccles (2009), individuals are most likely to consider the career options that align with gender role stereotypes, and other options may not be seriously considered because they are unlikely to fit in well with their gender role schema. Nowadays, there may still be a myth that teaching and working with children is seen as a women’s job. According to a report by Donaldson (2010), in Scotland, an overall gender imbalance of the teaching profession (76% women and 24% men) is particularly marked in the primary and pre-school sectors (92% and 95% female respectively) and has been consistent over a number of years (75.7% in 2007, 75.8% in 2008 and 76% in 2009). Similarly, across the globe, more than 70% of teachers are women, though the proportion of women constitute the teaching workforce might be different across different countries and at different levels of schooling (Richardson and Watt, 2016). Eccles (2009) found that gender roles might influence educational and vocational choices, in part, through their impact on individuals’ perceptions of the feasible options, as well as through their impact on expectations and subjective task
value. In this respect, female respondents’ choice of teaching might be influenced by such stereotype or myth, believing that teaching fits well with their gender role.

The question that why men are less likely attracted to the teaching profession is complex and should not be simply attributed to a relatively low level of status and salary in teaching. As discussed previously in Chapter Two (see Section 2.3), other possible issues such as career interest, personality and the potential blocks such as losing the feeling of masculine and value if working with children, particularly in primary school may need consideration when concerning the problem of gender imbalance in the teaching profession (e.g. Johnston, McKeown and McEwen, 1999; Lortie, 2002). Taken together, while aiming to recruit or retain male teachers, great attention needs to be given to the potential issues of material incentives and living condition but also how men might perceive the value of a job and how teaching can match with that value and needs.

Interestingly, however, once participants decided to choose a teaching career, whether from female or male perspectives, highly endorsed motivational influences were similar, including altruistic-type social utility value, perceived teaching abilities, and intrinsic value. This result suggests that female and males might not differ in the values they attached to teaching, and they both tend to stress the importance of intrinsic value, attainment value, and a high sense of self-efficacy and expectations in the choice of teaching. According to Lauermann, Tsai, and Eccles (2017), there is an interactive and reciprocal association between expectancy and subjective values, and thus they need to be drawn together to predict career plans. This implies, for example, if teaching is only viewed as manageable but not valuable, or only valuable but not achievable, individuals would be unlikely to enter the teaching profession. In this sense, participants’ choice of teaching is very likely based on their perception and assessment that a career in teaching should be both manageable (or achievable) and worth doing. Furthermore, the potential reciprocal relationship between ability and value lies in, for instance, as participants’ interest in teaching may grow with increasing confidence in teaching; in return, participants may want to develop greater competence for teaching because they attach high values to teaching. As a result, these perceptions about the ability and values would develop and inform participants’ personal identity, believing that ‘teaching is ME’.

In addition, Eccles et al.’s expectancy-value theory can be applied to address the group differences, comparing the motivations for those who chose teaching as an initial career (Group 1) and those who changed their career to teaching (Group 2). In general, whether the
participants from Group 1 or Group 2, their highly influential factors are similar, including \textit{shape future of children/adolescents, work with children/adolescents, make social contribution, perceived teaching abilities, intrinsic career value}. From the perspective of expectancy-value theory, this finding suggests that respondents from both groups appear to highlight the importance of ability beliefs and expectation in the choice of teaching and attach more intrinsic and attainment value to the teaching profession. Moreover, as to ability beliefs and expectation, given Group 1 reported a slightly higher level of \textit{perceived teaching abilities} than Group 2, it might be that Group 1 places more emphasis than Group 2 on the role of competencies in teaching in the decision to teach. In relation to subjective task value, quantitative findings suggest that Group 1 rated significantly higher on \textit{intrinsic career value} than Group 2, and also slightly higher than Group 2 in \textit{job transferability}. These results suggest that Group 1 tends to place more value than Group 2 on intrinsic value and utility value in terms of the opportunity to work overseas. While Group 2 are slightly higher than Group 1 in \textit{make social contribution, enhance social equity, job security and time for family}. This result suggests that in the choice of a teaching career, Group 2 is more likely than Group 1 to be influenced by how teaching is linked to a personal achievement goal and extrinsic utility goals concerning job security and allowing family time.

Although there exist slightly different levels of motivational factors between Group 1 and Group 2, by and large, most respondents, whether from Group 1 or Group 2 showed a high level of satisfaction with choice of teaching. Concerning this response, the majority of the participants in this study might be highly positively motivated to enter the teaching profession. However, in interviews, some respondents reported that they might consider quitting teaching if experiencing too much load and pressure; even though deriving a lot of satisfaction and pleasure from teaching. This suggests that emotional costs such as the pressure and anxiety caused by teacher’s heavy workload might negatively influence participants’ decision to pursue a teaching career. Even if participants with a high level of perceived teaching abilities and attached positive value to teaching and even ‘\textit{seeing teaching is ME}’, this may not necessarily keep them staying in the teaching profession if emotional costs are too high (e.g. stress, anxiety). The occupational choice in teaching, thus, is perhaps not only influenced by a strong sense of teaching ability and positive value sets (e.g. intrinsic value and attainment value), but also in relation to the perceived cost. Eccles (2005) argues that individuals may continually make choices and consider how they will invest their time and exert their efforts. Whether student teachers will choose to remain in teaching may largely or partially depend on to what extent participants place importance on the cost component. If their perceived importance or worth of a teaching career (e.g. either
intrinsic value or attainment value or utility value) adequately outweigh the subjective cost, they are more likely to stay in the teaching profession despite the cost in time and energy.

The cost value component in the expectancy-value model has been received little attention by researchers, for example Wigfield and Eccles (2000), tend to focus more attention to the role of ability beliefs and other subjective values (i.e. intrinsic value, attainment value, utility value) in people’s behaviour choices. However, in this study, the value participants attached to a teaching career is not only focused on the positive component (i.e. intrinsic value, attainment value, utility value) but also on the negative cost component (i.e. hard work and emotional stress). As discussed earlier in this chapter, the majority of the questionnaire respondents reported a high level of satisfaction about the career choice in teaching, despite widely held perspectives that teachers are overworked, underpaid and undervalued. On the positive side, the sample in this study may largely consist of students who are highly positively motivated to become a teacher. However, it is also possible that the students who did not participate in this study may not necessarily hold a positive attitude towards a teaching career. In this regard, it would be hasty to infer that prospective teachers’ inner satisfaction and fulfilment can compromise their perceived poor condition of teaching (e.g. excessive workload and pressure, low salary and status). The cost component perhaps also plays an important part in explaining the reasons behind the choice of teaching as well as the attitude and expectations of teaching. Therefore, the negative cost value might be given equal attention as positive values and beliefs in understanding the decision to become a teacher, although it might be advantageous to pursue future research to explore to what extent the cost value influence or determine the intention to stay or leave the teaching profession.

6.7.5 Section summary

In this section, participants’ responses to why they chose to pursue a teaching career were analysed in light of Eccles and Wigfield’s (1995) expectancy-value model. In general, the data obtained from this study supports expectancy-value theory suggesting that individuals select an occupational choice that is in line with their hierarchy of expectancy for success and subjective occupational values. What is clear is that participants’ choice of teaching appears to depend on their perceived high competence in teaching (e.g. expectancy for success) and beliefs that a career in teaching is compatible with their professional and life goals and values. Furthermore, these perceptions, values, and aspirations can be seen as
central to participants’ self-concept and identity formation. Given the motivation may not be static and stable, it might be difficult to ascertain with the expectancy-value theory that the extent to which these positive beliefs and values can predict the commitment and persistence of teaching.

Of particular note, unlike much research less focused on the role of cost value in the choice, many participants in this study expressed the concern about the high emotional cost of teaching, in the context of other positive value constructs (i.e. intrinsic value, attainment value) still playing a fundamental role in the choice of teaching. In this respect, it is quite possible that respondents not only view teaching as central to fulfil their competencies, values, and goals but also weigh the issues of how much time and effort need to exert in teaching. Given the mixed feelings many participants conveyed in this study, their expressions about how exciting, satisfying and rewarding it is to become a teacher are not necessarily an indication that they are fully satisfied with the choice of teaching and willing to stay in the teaching profession in the long term. In many cases, the intention to stay or leave the teaching profession may depend upon how participants respond to the emotional cost of teaching.

6.8 A graphical representation of contributing factors influencing teaching as a career choice

In this study, the quantitative findings provided broad results about motivation patterns on the choice of teaching. The qualitative findings offered support and explanations for these quantitative results; and, suggested that those motivation patterns interacted with participants’ perceptions, expectations and attitude towards a teaching career. Both quantitative and qualitative results suggested that students exhibited multiple motivations to pursue a teaching career with a combination of different types of motivational factors evident in their decision to enter the teaching profession. These motivations were closely related to altruistic factors, intrinsic factors, previous teaching experience, perceived teaching abilities, extrinsic rewards, school experience and other people. Although I expected some significant difference in motivations across certain groups, the quantitative results suggested that there was little statistically significant difference in relation to gender, primary and secondary teaching, programme (PGDE/MEduc); and, teaching as a first or subsequent career choice. In addition, it was surprising to find that interview respondents expressed doubts if teaching was a proper career choice, especially in relation to high workload, emotional stress and insufficient salary. Given the results above, I present a graphical representation (see6) on
influential factors and how they interact with the perception/expectations/attitudes towards teaching to motivate or demotivate participants to enter the teaching profession.

Figure 8: A graphical representation of motivational factors influencing teaching as a career choice

### 6.9 Summary

As expected, the findings regarding factors influencing teaching as a career choice in Scotland setting corroborate the Expectancy-value theory proposed by Eccles (2005) and are broadly in line with previous results found in other western countries (e.g. Watt and Richardson 2007; Pop and Turner, 2009; Struyven, Jacobs and Dochy, 2013; Flores and Niklasson, 2014; Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012). Whether students chose teaching as their first career or they switched their career to teaching, altruistic and intrinsic reasons and perceived teaching abilities figure prominently as motives in decision-making of a teaching career. In addition, this study puts an important emphasis on how students’ perception, expectation and attitude towards teaching act as important fundamental and underplaying factor influencing the choice of teaching. It is surprising to find that students’ image of teaching as a career is not quite positive, deriving from a perceived mismatch of high demand (huge workload and emotional stress) and low return (low level of salary and prestige) that in some cases, is as we have seen, may not always be grounded in objective reality. Many students may have misconceptions and an unrealistic view about teacher’s level of pay and job security. Sinclair (2008) argues that unrealistic entry motivations and
perceptions may undermine student satisfaction and commitment to current study and teaching as a future career. However, students in this study remain to show a high level of satisfaction about a choice of teaching as well as a strong interest in pursuing teaching as a career, despite they articulated an awareness of the potentially negative aspects of the teaching profession. It can be speculated that students may deliberately choose to focus on valuing the more favorable side of the teaching profession, reflecting their positive attitude and expectations of teaching as a career. On the other hand, it is worth noting that a final decision to pursue a career in teaching may also relate to how these students respond to the perceived negative aspects of the profession.
Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter offers concluding thoughts and reflections on this research project. It will begin by revisiting the purposes of this research and summarising how they have been addressed by this study. This chapter will then consider the contribution to knowledge, and discuss the strengths and limitations of the study, followed by suggestions about how aspects of this research could help inform future practice and research. The chapter concludes with the final reflections on the journey of exploring motivational factors influencing choosing a career in teaching.

7.2 Research summary

This study commenced with an outline of the importance of studying the career motivation of pre-service teachers in Scotland in Chapter One. It was noted that the issues of challenges in encouraging and retaining highly motivated and qualified teachers have been widely acknowledged in various countries including Scotland. High teacher attrition rate and teacher shortage may influence greatly on the quality of teaching as well as learning outcomes for young people (OECD, 2012; Donaldson, 2010; Richardson and Watt, 2016). In this respect, understanding prospective teachers’ motivations to teach and their perceptions, expectations, and aspirations of teaching might be pertinent and beneficial for teacher recruitment and retention. As argued by Watt and Richardson (2012), initial teaching motivation is closely related to teachers’ professional commitment as well as personal fulfilment and satisfaction. Within this context, this study endeavours to investigate pre-service teachers’ motivations for choosing a teaching career.

When reviewing the existing literature on reasons for teaching, as discussed in Chapter Two, it was noted that although many studies have already offered insights into the factors influencing a choice of teaching across diverse contexts, to date, there is a paucity of relevant, up-to-date research conducted in the Scottish context examining specific motivations for entering the teaching profession. This study investigating student teachers’ motivations for choosing a teaching career in Scotland is an attempt to address this gap. Moreover, given a further conceptual gap concerning group differences in motivations for choosing teaching at the different stage, this study also aims to provide comparative insights into motivations to
teach between those who choose teaching as an initial career and those who change their career path and then decide to become teachers. In addition, the methodological approach was informed and flowed from reviewing literature by recognising multiple factors influencing teaching as a career choice and the subjective meaning behind the choice of a teaching career.

Chapter Three discussed methodological consideration and this study chose an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach for data collection, with questionnaires and semi-structured interviews as the instruments. The findings of the questionnaire and interview data presented in Chapter Four and Five. Subsequently, Chapter Six offered an in-depth discussion of both quantitative and qualitative results drawing on previous research and expectancy-value theory to address the research questions; as a result, a graphical representation was created to show respondents’ motivational factors influencing the pursuit of a teaching career (see Figure 8). Here, in the final chapter, a summary and reflection on key findings from questionnaire and interview data in relation to motivations and perceptions about teaching as a career choice are presented.

What emerged from questionnaire and interview data in this study was a highly complex picture of the career decision-making process, suggesting that pre-service teachers’ motivations for pursuing a teaching career are often multi-dimensional, contextualised and individualised. In general, the influencing factors given by respondents are related to intrinsic factors, altruistic factors, extrinsic factors, perceived teaching abilities, prior teaching and educational experience, and the influence of family, colleagues, and friends. Among these factors, the majority of Scottish pre-service teachers in this sample highlighted being strongly influenced in the decision to teach by intrinsic and altruistic aspects including a desire to help young people and make differences in their lives, wanting to work with young people, a love for teaching, giving back to society, and the belief that they had the ability and quality to become a good teacher. It was evident in questionnaire and interview data that most participants perceived teaching as more intrinsically than extrinsically rewarding profession and this is the main driver for them to enter the teaching profession, indicating that respondents’ internal enjoyment and satisfaction are critical driving forces in attracting pre-service teachers to teach in the Scottish context. Participants tended to view extrinsic rewards (e.g. job security, school holiday, income reliability, employment opportunities) as a bonus rather than the core entry motivations for teaching, though, interestingly, their knowledge and preconceptions concerning job security, salary and holiday might be idealistic and inaccurate. It was worth noting that participants’ perceptions
and attitudes towards extrinsic rewards as important career outcome could vary, especially with respect to teachers’ salary. Participants’ perceptions of the relative salary for teaching should be viewed with caution because participants may have a different personal standard of good salary level and their financial circumstances and social class background may need to be considered.

Further, it is important to note that in some cases, one form of motivation was more important than another dependent on the context in which respondents made the decision. For example, Brian’s choice of becoming a teacher initially derived from the pursuit of inner fulfilment and enjoyment in teaching; on the other hand, he articulated the intention to leave teaching when he had family and children in the future because he believed that teacher’s salary alone was insufficient to support the family expenses. For Brian, when becoming a husband and a parent, monetary reward of teaching might become increasingly important in his decision to pursue a teaching career, and at that time, he might view teaching career as a fulfilling career in a pragmatic way. Thus, life stage or personal context are likely to influence and shape one’s motivations and expectations of teaching as a career. In addition, positive previous experience of working with young people laid the foundation for considering a teaching career, being influential in shaping participants’ identity as a teacher and developing their confidence in becoming a teacher. These results suggest that participants are actively and deliberately choosing a teaching career rather than seeing it as a fallback plan, counter to the claim in the literature that people fail to be accepted by a more preferred career or see teaching as a springboard to another career (e.g. Mtika and Gates, 2011; Cross and Ndofirepi, 2015; Yong, 1995).

Although some significant differences in motivations to teach across certain groups were expected, the quantitative results suggested that there was little statistically significant difference in relation to gender, age, marital status, primary and secondary teaching, programme (PGDE/MEduc); and, teaching as a first or subsequent career choice. A significant difference was only found in intrinsic career value between PGDE students and MEduc students, having full-time working experience and having no full-time working experience, and choosing teaching as an initial career and choosing teaching as a subsequent career. Drawing on questionnaire data, respondents who chose teaching as a first career choice (i.e. school leavers and fresh graduates without any previous full-time employment), compared with career changers, tended to be driven more by a sense of ‘always wanting to be a teacher’ in the choice of teaching. By and large, however, both questionnaire and interview data showed that whether respondents had a career history or not, their motivations
for becoming teachers were similar; two groups of respondents were uniformly strongly
influenced by perceived teaching abilities, intrinsic and altruistic-type dimensions (e.g.
interest, working with children and making difference to their lives) rather than
predominantly by extrinsic factors in terms of salary, status and holidays. Although they
decided to enter the teaching profession for similar reasons, it is noteworthy that two groups
of student teachers may look at teaching as a career choice from different lens. Having
greater life and working experience, career changers’ insights into a career choice are likely
to be more mature and profound, relative to young school leavers with no formal working
experience and lesser life experience. For example, in this study, career changers’ serious
reflection on their long-term career trajectory and based on their unsatisfactory previous
working experience, established transparent goals of pursuing an enjoyable and socially
meaningful profession through a career change into teaching were evident in some of the
responses in the interview settings. Moreover, partly consistent with the literature indicating
family concerns as important in influencing a career change to teaching (e.g. Richardson and
Watt, 2005; Laming and Horne, 2013), interview data in this study showed that security of
employment with a reasonable income, and quality family time were important
considerations for some career changers, especially for female respondents who were
married and/or had children. Of particular note, however, some career changers in the
interview articulated that teachers’ additional long working time after school could have a
negative impact on their family life, which is difficult to reconcile with a prevailing
perspective in the public for encouraging choosing a teaching career stating that teaching is
a family-friendly profession (Lortie, 2002; Richardson and Watt, 2014).

Further, this study suggested that motivational factors interacted with respondents’
perceptions, expectations, and attitudes towards teaching as a career choice. Drawing on
questionnaire data, teaching as a career was generally perceived as very high in demand with
respect to the workload and professional knowledge but not offering a very high return in
terms of salary and social status. In interviews, from one perspective, teaching is generally
perceived as an interesting, rewarding and socially important career; from another, many
perhaps unexpectedly expressed negative sentiments and even doubts about undertaking a
teaching career, stemming from the concerns of teachers’ excessive workload, high work-
related stress, low salary, low recognition, and respect. The results of this study, especially
with respect to teachers’ workloads and pressure, is clearly against the traditional view or
stereotype that teaching is an easy job and can provide a relaxing lifestyle (Richardson and
Watt, 2005). As to respondents’ perceptions of teachers’ salary and social status, surprisingly,
there was an apparent inconsistency between general questionnaire responses and specific
interview accounts. The general sense from the questionnaire data was that teachers were well respected in society and earned an acceptable salary whereas in interviews, the typical responses were that teachers were underpaid, undervalued and not highly respected in society, indicating a quite negative and disappointed perspective and attitude towards teachers’ salary and social prestige.

Overall, for many pre-service teachers in this study, their decision to enter the teaching profession was made in the context of being aware of the positive and challenging part of becoming a teacher. Questionnaire data suggested that the majority of participants were positive and highly satisfied with the choice of a teaching career. Interestingly, interview responses provide an indication that participants tend to draw on intrinsic rewards of teaching (e.g. enjoyment, a sense of satisfaction and fulfilment from helping young people and seeing them making progress) to resist any negative thoughts or discouraging remarks about teaching as a career. Under such circumstances, it is important to note that participants’ seemingly high motivation may involve potential dilemma of having to balance the positive and negative side of teaching, manifesting the complex and precarious features in assessing the motivation for choosing a teaching career.

7.3 Theoretical contribution

This study offers a theoretical contribution to the research field of teacher education and career motivation by offering an understanding of motivations for choosing a teaching career from the perspective of Scottish pre-service teachers and has compared motivations to teach for those choosing teaching as an initial career choice and those who have changed career paths. As discussed in Chapter Two, the research on the motivation for choosing a teaching career conducted in the Scottish context is quite limited; much of the extant literature on motivation to teach has focused on either pre-service teachers or in-service teachers in general, there is a relatively sparse amount of studies focusing on teaching as a first career and changing career to teaching, let alone comparing two groups’ motivations and beliefs about teaching as a career choice. Hence, this study makes an original contribution to the literature in the sense that it addresses the gaps of knowledge of the motivation for becoming a teacher in the Scottish context, and of an under-researched group comparison by examining the similarities and differences in motivations to teach between those who choose teaching as their first career and those who change their career path to enter teaching.
In addition, this study sheds light on two influential frameworks regarding the motivation for entering the teaching profession, as discussed in Chapter Two, the categorisation of intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic reasons and the recent FIT-Choice model. This study confirms the previous literature indicating that students enter teaching mainly for intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic reasons (e.g. Kyriacou et al., 2003; Lovett, 2007; Manuel and Hughes, 2006; Struyven Jacobs and Dochy, 2013). More importantly, this study also evidenced that student teachers’ perceived teaching capability and positive prior experiences of working with children as being fundamental in developing their interest and preconceptions of teaching were critical in shaping their decision to undertake a teaching career. However, these influential factors are difficult to categorise neatly into the typology of intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic reasons. In this regard, the results support Watt and Richardson’s arguments (2007, 2012) that a list of intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic reasons has been presented in a broad rather than a comprehensive framework to address the issue of why teaching is chosen as a career. The FIT-Choice model developed by Watt and Richardson (2007) has been widely recognised over the last decade and offered a holistic platform to approach the inquiry of the motivation for choosing a teaching career. As discussed in Chapter Two and Chapter Three, the FIT-Choice model underpinned by expectancy-value theory (Eccles et al., 1983,1984; Eccles, 2005) was selected as the theoretical framework of this study and the FIT-Choice scale were employed as the instrument for quantitative data collection.

As discussed in Chapter Six, the results in this study support the assumptions of the expectancy-value theory proposed by Wigfield and Eccles (2000) that ability beliefs, expectancies for success, and subjective task values are powerful predictors of a career choice. Indeed, it is clear in this study that participants’ choice of a teaching career was strongly influenced by their confidence of doing well in teaching (i.e. expectancy for success) and beliefs that teaching is interesting, fulfilling and secure job (i.e. intrinsic value, attainment value, and utility value). Of particular note is that the subjective cost value component within the expectancy-value model which has received less attention in Wigfield and Eccles’s empirical work, however, was clearly evidenced in both questionnaire and interview data within this study. Questionnaire data revealed that 90% of the respondents rated teaching as ‘highly demanding’ in terms of workload and emotional stress. In interviews, participants articulated concerns that teachers’ heavy workload and work-related pressure could make teaching a difficult and stressful job. These results suggest that participants exhibit a real sense of ‘cost value’ in the decision to teach and are aware of potential negative career outcomes in terms of time, effort, and the psychological
consequences required in teaching. Taken together, the findings of this study that the decision to embark on a career in teaching while largely based on the confidence of teaching competences and positive value sets (e.g. intrinsic value and attainment value), is also related to the extent to which participants value the cost component. If participants’ perceived costs of teaching sufficiently outweigh the intrinsic value or attainment value or utility value they attached to teaching, they may start to doubt the choice of teaching and perhaps even consider leaving the teaching profession.

As to the utility of the FIT-Choice scale, given it has not been previously tested in the Scottish context, this study contributes to knowledge by demonstrating that the FIT-Choice scale achieved satisfactory reliability and construct validity in a Scottish sample. The results of the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) suggested a 4-factor structure can be successfully applied within the Scottish sample in this study, named ‘general features of teaching as a career’, ‘altruistic influences’, ‘intrinsic influences’, and ‘family and social influences’. It is noteworthy that this 4-factor solution differs from other factor solutions previously tested and validated in the original Australian context or in other contexts such as Netherlands, Ireland, Turkey (Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012; Eren and Tezel, 2010; Hennessy and Lynch, 2017; Watt and Richardson, 2007). This may be due to a number of reasons perhaps principally the removal of different items and/or sub-scales as a result of diagnostic tests to satisfy the assumptions of the uses of PCA (Laerd Statistics, 2019) (for details on the removed items in this study, see Section 4.2.1 and 4.2.2). However, given the 4-factor solution satisfied all assumptions of the factor interpretability criterion, the FIT-Choice scale is suggested as suitable for wider application in the Scottish context.

Complementing the questionnaire results, interview data provided further explanations and elaborations of the FIT-Choice results and suggested participants’ teaching motivations interacted with perceptions, expectations, and attitudes towards teaching as a career choice. In this respect, this study attempts to extend the understanding of what underpins pursuit of a teaching career by not only considering the conceptualisation of a prospective teachers’ motivations for a teaching career but also how these motives link to their perceptions, expectations, and attitudes towards a teaching career. The findings in this study highlight the combined importance of the values, beliefs, goals, expectations and attitudes participants held towards the teaching profession in shaping their identity as a teacher; which forms the fundamental basis for the decision to choose a teaching career. In line with results from a number of studies, as discussed in Chapter Two, suggest intrinsic and altruistic factors as central to the attractions of teaching (e.g. Kyriacou et al., 2003; Lovett 2007; Struyven,
Jacobs and Dochy, 2013; Flores and Niklasson, 2014); this study found that most participants were highly influenced by their positive beliefs that teaching aligned with their values and expectations of undertaking a pleasant and rewarding career, for example, related to working with children and making a difference in their lives. In this sense, many participants perceived teaching as an internally satisfying career rather than an externally fulfilled career choice, for example, in terms of salary, status, and working hours.

However, drawing on interview data, there was also evidence suggesting that participants were dissatisfied with the potential heavy workload and associated long working hours and work-related stress, low level of perceived financial reward and career prestige. For some participants, these negative perceptions gave rise to some professed doubts about teaching as a career choice or potential barriers that might deter them from remaining in the profession in the longer term. It is suggested that the findings can further inform debates on motivations to teach, especially in the context where the role of potential demotivators including doubts, uncertainty or negative comments towards teaching as a career choice in influencing the decision to teach are recognised; and, which is often less studied or overlooked in the existing literature. To achieve an integrated and complete picture of pre-service teachers’ motivation for choosing a teaching career, this study thus stresses the importance of capturing not only the motivators (e.g. perceived attractions of teaching) but also accompanying potential demotivators (e.g. doubts about teaching).

In addition to potential theoretical contributions, the findings of this study are likely to have important implications for the practical issues of teacher recruitment and retention, which will present in the next section.

7.4 Practical implications for teacher recruitment and retention

Broadly, understanding of future teachers’ motivations, values, perceptions, expectations, and attitudes towards the teaching profession might assist teacher educators to make teacher education courses more effective and to adequately prepare students in transition to teacher status. Moreover, the findings of this study provide useful information for school leaders, policymakers and the stakeholders in the struggle of recruiting and retaining teachers; and, in order to create meaningful opportunities for teacher candidates to fulfil their interest and professional goals of teaching and to sustain their commitment and enthusiasm in teaching. The following will provide some examples and discuss in greater detail.
This study revealed that pre-service teachers’ motivations for choosing a teaching career were influenced by a complex combination of motives and perceptions, viewing teaching as an enjoyable, rewarding and challenging profession. More specifically, most of them consciously chose a teaching career largely for fulfilling their interest and teaching potential, being able to help and influence young people, and having greater job security. On the other hand, they also expressed negative sentiments and even doubts about pursuing a teaching career with respect to workload, salary, and prestige. Consequently, strategies to tackle the issues of teacher recruitment and retention are important to address the full range of concerns about the teaching profession. These involve the considerations of both the attractions of teaching and the potential doubts about the decision to teach. In other words, school administrators, principals, and policymakers need to target how different forms of motivation, values, and perceptions of the teaching profession interact in informing the decision-making process that underlies embarking on a career in teaching; rather than solely paying attention to a limited number of motives and beliefs, or highly rated factors (e.g. intrinsic and altruistic reasons). Further, it is important to note that the extent to which the importance of factors influencing the decision to teach may well vary from people to people. In this respect, teacher recruitment campaigns may need to be flexible about teacher candidates’ prioritising motives and career expectations of teaching.

In addition, this study raised the issues of weighing the relative importance of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards in the choice of teaching, which may have important implications for enhancing teachers’ recruitment and retention. For example, in relation to salary, although many participants in this study entered teaching for enjoyment rather than for high salaries, they articulated a feeling of being undervalued in terms of salary because they perceived that teachers’ salaries were not comparable to other similar profession or that teachers often work overtime but without paid overtime. However, we should remind the reader that after one year’s probation, a teacher in Scotland is on £27,438 (NASUWT, 2017) which is considerably higher than the median at £23,150 (McCall, 2017). Although the participants may have been strongly influenced by altruistic and intrinsic motivations, as discussed previously in Chapter Six, it is still possible that once in the teaching post, the extrinsic factors such as perceived salary and working conditions may have increasing impacts on teachers’ long-term commitment. Especially for the cohort of mature career changers, some left their previous career due to a perceived lack of good salaries, job security, or career prospects and progression. If teaching as a new career is unable to offer what they perceive as acceptable salaries, promising career prospects and promotion opportunities, or a fixed teaching post, it is possible that they will feel unsatisfied and disappointed again. In
this sense, to attract and retain teachers, policy makers and school leaders should place equal importance on intrinsic and extrinsic values of teaching and help make teaching both internally and externally rewarding career.

Finally, this study also highlighted the need for recognising the impact of massive extra workload and resulting pressure on teachers’ health and wellbeing and even on the intention or result of leaving the profession. This study found that the vast majority of future teachers (90%) reported teaching had the heavy workload and required hard work. In interviews, respondents expressed the concern that teachers were unable to take a full break during weekends and holidays; and, such excessive workloads and long working hours would have negative impacts on their personal life and time for family. Further, some of them gave a clear indication that an excessive level of workload and emotional stress has the potential to erode the motivation for entering and remaining in the profession when they become teachers in the future. For these student teachers who are new to the teaching profession, they may feel overwhelmed and challenged by the high demands of handling the heavy workloads and resulting work-related stress when they work as a school teacher in the future. In this regard, teacher educators and school administrators are suggested to support and assist these future teachers in understanding the realities and complexities of teaching without putting off their established highly motivating career aspiration. Policymakers need to consider reducing teachers’ loads to a manageable level for redressing the issue of work-life balance and leaving the time and space for the things that really matter to teachers and the children they teach. In such an environment, teachers are more likely to genuinely enjoy the teaching-learning process itself and to actualise themselves in teaching, e.g. pursuing their passion and helping young people. The policies should fully support teachers to fulfil their professional goals and make teachers less distracted by excessive workload and work-related stress that can take them away from the work they expect and value doing with children. On this basis, teachers are more likely to retain their enthusiasm for teaching, avoid experiencing frustration, and produce greater job satisfaction, thereby increasing retention.

7.5 Limitations

The sample is contextually restricted to participants on the first-year MEduc programme or on PGDE programme starting 2015-2016 at the University of Glasgow in Scotland. Therefore, the findings of this study may not be applicable and generalisable to pre-service teachers undertaking MEduc or PGDE programme at other time or from other institutions in Scotland or other regions in the UK or elsewhere in the world. Moreover, given this was a
small-scale study with 92 questionnaire responses and 11 interviews, the conclusions drawn from the data are tentative and need to be viewed with caution. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that the aim of this study was not to make generalisations about cohorts of student teachers undertaking PGDE and MEduc programmes but to gain a meaningful and comprehensive understanding of career motivations and perceptions about the teaching as a career choice from the student teachers’ perspectives in the Scottish context, and this may somewhat mitigate the limitations above.

In addition, another limitation is related to the methodological approach, the mixed methods approach adopted. The initial quantitative strands asked the participants to briefly state their main reasons for choosing to become a teacher, and then choose from multiple response options. However, such an approach may be at risk of being affected by post hoc rationalisation, thereby constructing responses potentially from what participants think would be desirable or acceptable to the researcher. As See (2004) notes, when asking individuals to explain their career decisions and attempting to elicit their motivations for becoming teachers, they may well rationalise their choice post hoc. Therefore, in attempting to explore ‘authentic’ reasons and expectations of pursuing a teaching career, the subsequent qualitative strand used semi-structured interviews as the instrument to give participants opportunity to freely express their reasons or perspectives about teaching as a career and to reflect on their personal story of making the decision to pursue teacher education and career choice of teaching. Although participants offered accounts that could be generally categorised into, for example, intrinsic, altruistic or extrinsic motivations, in some cases, their decision to teach may also be made intuitively, accidently, or perhaps even for ‘no reasons’ which may not be shown in the questionnaire or expressed in the interview settings.

7.6 Areas for future research

Given the limitations of this study as discussed in Section 7.5, future research might be helpful to locate participants in other Scottish samples, for example, different PGDE or MEduc students at different institutions in Scotland. Especially with respect to the validation of the FIT-Choice scale, although the FIT-Choice scale displays satisfactory construct validity and reliability across the sample in this study and the factor analysis also shows that the 4-factor solution functioned well in this study, there may still require further research to test or confirm the factor structures in more and different Scottish settings. Moreover, it would also be of interest to investigate into career motivation of specific groups of teacher candidates and to make comparisons of the motivations based on different teaching levels.
(primary and secondary), different teaching or teacher training stage (e.g. beginning and the end of training), secondary subject specialisms and teaching in different schools or different regions.

In addition, the results from this study also provide some directions for future research. For example, many pre-service teachers in this study displayed a clear sense of fulfilment and satisfaction about the decision to undertake a teaching career, despite they were aware of the potential downsides of becoming a teacher with respect to inadequate financial rewards, heavy workload and emotional stress. However, as discussed previously in Chapter Six, it is worth pointing out that such seemingly positive perceptions and attitude towards teaching as a career choice may not necessarily an indication of high job satisfaction and long commitment in the subsequent teaching journey. Kyriacou and Benmansour (1999) argue that ‘choosing teaching as a career may not imply a career commitment to teaching’ (p. 70). In this respect, there might need to be further long-term longitudinal research to track prospective teachers’ working lives, levels of professional engagement and commitment in order to understand teacher retention in greater depth. For example, it would be interesting to examine: 1) whether students’ initial motivations and perceptions would change after completing the teacher training courses; 2) the extent to which prospective teachers’ initial teaching motivation and perceptions influence their subsequent experience of being a teacher; 3) how prospective teachers would balance coexisting positive and negative perspectives of the teaching profession; 4) the extent to which the motivations and attitudes towards teaching influence on sustaining the decision to remain in the teaching profession.

7.7 Final thoughts and reflections

This study reveals that pre-service teachers exhibited a combination of different forms of motivational factors; and, these motivations interact with pre-service teachers’ perceptions, expectations, and attitude towards teaching as a career. Against my initial assumptions prior to undertaking this study that simply attributing the choice of teaching to one or two forces or a few reasons (e.g. like teaching and working with children, job security), I have now learned that the decision to become a teacher likely involves a complicated multi-layered process, reflecting one’s perceptions, values, professional goals, attitude, and career aspirations. These preconceptions, expectations, and values student teachers attached to the teaching profession play a critical part in developing their identity as a teacher, motivations for becoming a teacher, and their future teaching roles. In this regard, I concur with Palmer’s (2007, p. 14) perspective,
teaching is, at its core, about identity, integrity and seeking connectedness; the call to teach emerges from the “inwardness” of the self, or the “heart”, where intellect, emotion, and spirit converge.

Further, in analysing and interpreting the data, it was interesting to find that how student teachers in this sample conveyed mixed ambivalent feelings and attitudes towards teaching as a career in their decision to teach. Clearly, most student teachers seek intrinsic rewards more than extrinsic rewards in teaching, viewing teaching as a platform to fulfil their career aspirations and enjoy themselves rather than to pursue holidays, salaries and social status. Unexpectedly, nevertheless, respondents articulated the potential drawbacks of teaching; in their accounts of the decision to teach, a sense of unfairness seemed to infuse much of student teachers’ perspectives and attitude towards teaching, deriving from the perceptions related to how teachers were undervalued, underpaid, and underappreciated for their efforts and dedication to children’s learning and growing. Taken together, from one perspective, these student teachers seem to be quite positive and professionally sound, for example, in terms of helping the next generation learn, make progress and reach their potential; these are the main reasons that they decide to pursue teacher education and join the profession in the first place, and likely, also the important ones that keep them there in the long term. From another perspective, they portrayed teaching as a career choice in some negative respects; in the teaching profession, the issues concerning a mismatch of high demand (e.g. high level of workload and emotional demanding) and low return (e.g. relatively poor salary, prestige and social status) were overlooked or hidden. It may be that we have high expectations for teaching and teachers and tend to take teachers’ work and their sense of altruism for granted, viewing that teachers are supposed to be responsible, caring and self-devoted, though they need to; thus, how hard teachers work and how challenging might be in teachers’ work may well be underplayed.

In conclusion, in student teachers’ early stage of teacher training, many of them in this sample perceived teaching, on one hand, is an exciting, important, meaningful, and intellectually stimulating profession; on the other, teaching may not be that ‘glamorous’, and it can be an exhausting job physically, mentally, and emotionally. Hence, teaching as a career choice is potentially related to how these pre-service teachers evaluate and weigh the pros and cons of teaching as a profession, and how they respond to their perceived negative aspects of teaching is probably crucial in the final decision to enter or sustain in the profession.
References


Lights, 11(2), pp.236-263.


Manuel, J. & Hughes, J. (2006). It has always been my dream: Exploring pre-service teachers motivations for choosing to teach. Teacher development, 10(10), pp.5-24.


Smart Survey. [Computer software]. (2018). (Version 4.6.0; SmartSurvey Ltd) Available at: <https://www.smartsurvey.co.uk/> [Accessed 30 August 2018].


Appendices

Appendix 1: The original FIT-Choice scale

Please briefly state your main reason(s) for choosing to become a teacher:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PART B - INFLUENTIAL FACTORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For each statement below, please rate how important it was in YOUR decision to become a teacher, from 1 (not at all important in your decision) to 7 (extremely important in your decision).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please CIRCLE the number that best describes the importance of each.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
“I chose to become a teacher because...”
```

<p>| | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>I am interested in teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Part-time teaching could allow more family time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>My friends think I should become a teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>As a teacher I will have lengthy holidays</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>I have the qualities of a good teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>Teaching allows me to provide a service to society</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>I've always wanted to be a teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>Teaching may give me the chance to work abroad</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>Teaching will allow me to shape child/adolescent values</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>I was unsure of what career I wanted</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>I like teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>I want a job that involves working with children/adolescents</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td>Teaching will offer a steady career path</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td>Teaching hours will fit with the responsibilities of having a family</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td>I have had inspirational teachers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td>As a teacher I will have a short working day</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td>I have good teaching skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>Teachers make a worthwhile social contribution</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td>A teaching qualification is recognised everywhere</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B23</td>
<td>Teaching will allow me to influence the next generation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td>My family think I should become a teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B26</td>
<td>I want to work in a child/adolescent-centred environment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B27</td>
<td>Teaching will provide a reliable income</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B29</td>
<td>School holidays will fit in with family commitments</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B30</td>
<td>I have had good teachers as role-models</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
"I chose to become a teacher because..."

831. Teaching enables me to ‘give back’ to society  
835. I was not accepted into my first-choice career  
836. Teaching will allow me to raise the ambitions of underprivileged youth  
837. I like working with children/adolescents  
838. Teaching will be a secure job  
839. I have had positive learning experiences  
840. People I’ve worked with think I should become a teacher  
843. Teaching is a career suited to my abilities  
845. A teaching job will allow me to choose where I wish to live  
848. I chose teaching as a last-resort career  
849. Teaching will allow me to benefit the socially disadvantaged  
853. Teaching will allow me to have an impact on children/adolescents  
854. Teaching will allow me to work against social disadvantage

**PART C - BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING**

For each question below, please rate the extent to which YOU agree it is true about teaching, from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely). Please CIRCLE the number that best describes your agreement for each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>not at all</th>
<th>extremely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Do you think teaching is well paid?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Do you think teachers have a heavy workload?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Do you think teachers earn a good salary?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Do you believe teachers are perceived as professionals?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Do you think teachers have high morale?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Do you think teaching is emotionally demanding?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Do you believe teaching is perceived as a high-status occupation?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Do you think teachers feel valued by society?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Do you think teaching requires high levels of expert knowledge?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Do you think teaching is hard work?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Do you believe teaching is a well-respected career?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Do you think teachers feel their occupation has high social status?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Do you think teachers need high levels of technical knowledge?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Do you think teachers need highly specialised knowledge?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PART D - YOUR DECISION TO BECOME A TEACHER**

For each question below, please rate the extent to which it is true for YOU, from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely). Please CIRCLE the number that best describes your agreement for each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>not at all</th>
<th>extremely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>How carefully have you thought about becoming a teacher?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Were you encouraged to pursue careers other than teaching?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>How satisfied are you with your choice of becoming a teacher?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Did others tell you teaching was not a good career choice?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>How happy are you with your decision to become a teacher?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Did others influence you to consider careers other than teaching?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 2: Interview schedule

Part I: Explore background information

For MEduc,
1. When did you decide to apply to study on the MEduc programme?
2. What made you decide on the MEduc programme?
3. *What made you decide to study on the MEduc and not on the PGDE?
4. Did you consider any other programmes of study?
   What were they? What was the reason for considering these programmes?
5. What made you decide you wanted to teach in primary and not secondary school?
6. Why did you decide to study at Glasgow?
What is first degree? What subject did you study? *What made you not pursue this subject?

For PGDE primary,
1. When did you decide to apply to study on the PGDE primary programme?
2. What made you decide to study on the PGDE primary programme?
3. Did you ever consider applying for the MEduc? Why?
4. Did you consider any other programmes of study?
   What were they? What was the reason for considering these programmes?
5. What made you decide you wanted to teach in primary and and not secondary school?
6. Why did you decide to study at Glasgow?
What is first degree? What subject did you study? *What made you not pursue this subject?

For PGDE secondary,
1. When did you decide to apply to study on the PGDE secondary programme?
2. What made you decide to study on the PGDE secondary programme?
3. Did you ever consider applying for the MEduc? Why?
4. Did you consider any other programmes of study?
   What were they? What was the reason for considering these programmes?
5. What made you decide you wanted to teach in secondary and not primary school?
6. What subject would you like to teach?
7. Could you tell me what made you decide you wanted to teach…?
   Will you still pursue teaching if you are asked to teach another subject?
8. Why did you decide to study at Glasgow?
What is first degree? What subject did you study? *What made you not pursue this subject?
Part II: Core Questions

1. Questions for those who choose teaching as their first career choice:
When did you start thinking about pursuing a teaching career?
What made you choose teaching as your first career choice? /How did you come to this choice?

Questions for career changers to teaching:
You indicated in the survey that you were/did... (previous job title), what made you give up this job; could you tell me what happened?
And then what made you change your career choice to teaching? /What were the reasons behind this career change?
How did you find out about it?

2. Did you consider other career options?
   If yes, what were they? And then what were your sources for this information?

3. In general, how do you feel about teaching as your new career?
   What do you look forward to in becoming a teacher?

4. (*What attracted you most to the teaching profession?)
   You said in the survey, the main reason(s) for becoming a teacher is/are that…, could you tell me more about it? / What do you mean by that?

5. Thinking back to before you entered the teacher education programme, how would you describe your primary/secondary school experience?
   (for example, your experience as a student, the schooling style, and school atmosphere)
   Did you enjoy it? If yes, why; and, if no, why.

6. Having decided to pursue a career in teaching, what do you believe to be the purpose of teaching (e.g. pupil development, contribution to society, being a role-model, etc.)?
   In this connection, what does teaching entail in terms of responsibility?

7. What do you aim to achieve by pursuing a teaching career?

8. Once you graduate as a teacher, what do you consider to be the next step in your teaching career?

9. Do you think you may need to move to get a teaching job?
   If yes, how do you feel about that?
Part III: Questions emerged from questionnaire that test Intrinsic Value, Task Return and satisfaction with teaching choice.

**Intrinsic value:**
1. What are the things that you like most about teaching in general?
2. How did you find out about these aspects that you like most about teaching?

**Task return:**
1. What do you think of the salary that teachers earn?
2. What is your view of teachers’ social status?
3. Do you think teaching and teachers are valued in society? Why?
4. There’s a statement in the survey “Teachers are perceived as professionals”. I’d like to know what you think of this statement.
5. What do you think of the statement in the survey that: “teachers have high morale”?

**Satisfaction with choice:**
1. In the survey, you rated…for satisfaction with the choice of becoming a teacher, do you have any doubts about pursuing a teaching career at all?
   If yes, what makes you doubt that teaching is the right choice?
2. Is there anything that might cause you to give up teaching?
3. After six months of being in the course, how did this influence your views about teaching? Has it been what you have expected after attending lectures and visiting schools/classrooms? Please tell me more about this.
4. On a scale of 1 to 10, how confident are you of your ability to teach effectively?
5. Is there anything else about your motivation to pursue a teaching career that you would like to share?
Appendix 3: Plain Language Statement

University of Glasgow
College of Social Sciences

Plain Language Statement

Factors Influencing Teaching as a Career Choice

Wenting Wang - w.wang.2@research.gla.ac.uk (PhD student researcher)
Dr Dely Elliot - Dely.Elliot@glasgow.ac.uk (Principal supervisor)
Dr Muir Houston - Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk (Second supervisor)

You are being invited to take part in this PhD research project. Before deciding to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Purpose of the study

This study investigates why students on MEduc and PGDE programmes choose teaching as their career. This research intends to gain comparative insight into future teachers’ motivations, expectations and aspirations of teaching. It aims to offer a theoretical contribution to the research field, e.g. teacher education and career guidance, by understanding the factors influencing teaching as a career and by exploring the differences between those who pursue teaching as their first career choice and those who change their mind and later want to become teachers.

Research criteria

The questionnaire aspect of the research study will involve all PGDE students and all first-year MEduc students during academic year 2015-2016. Then, around 12 to 16 participants will be invited to participate in an interview. We are inviting you to take part in this research because you are a student on either MEduc (first-year only) or PGDE programmes in the School of Education, University of Glasgow.

Voluntary participation

Please note that participation is completely voluntary. Even after deciding to participate, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. This includes withdrawing any data previously supplied. In addition, please note that every participant who completes the questionnaire will be entered into a draw and there will be a chance of winning one of the three book vouchers (each having a value of £20.00).

Research involvement

Please indicate in the questionnaire if you would like to take part in an interview. If so, please provide your contact details. Interviews take a maximum of one hour and will be audio-recorded, subject to your permission to do so. The interview transcript will be returned to you for verification.

Confidentiality

All information obtained from you as research participants during the course of the research will be carefully safeguarded and stored to prevent identification of participants arising from any aspects of the research. We will use pseudonyms when referring to you in any publication arising from this research. All research data are anonymised and deposited in secure repository for ten years in accordance to the University Code of Good Practice.
The results of the research

The full research project is hoped to be submitted by September 2017. The results from this research will be available by academic year 2017. Participants are able to request a copy of any of the reports arising from this research, should they so wish. Research findings may also be presented at postgraduate seminars and conferences and published in academic journals.

Ethics review and further contact details

This research study has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee. If you have any queries, please contact Wenting Wang - w.wang.2@research.gla.ac.uk. Additionally, should you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research, you may email the College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee - socsci-ethics@glasgow.ac.uk.
Appendix 4: Consent Form

Consent Form

Title of Project: Factors Influencing Teaching as a Career Choice

Name of Researcher: Wenting Wang

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

3. In addition, I give consent regarding: (Please tick all that apply.)
   - [ ] interviews being audio-taped
   - [ ] interview transcripts to be returned to me for verification
   - [ ] being referred to by pseudonym or in any publications arising from the research
   - [ ] all research data are anonymised and deposited in secure repository for 10 years in accordance to the University Code of Good Practice in Research - [http://www.gla.ac.uk/services/postgraduateresearch/pgrcodeofpractice/](http://www.gla.ac.uk/services/postgraduateresearch/pgrcodeofpractice/)
   - [ ] research findings may also be presented at postgraduate seminars, and conferences and published in academic journals.

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

Name of Participant  Date  Signature

Researcher  Date  Signature
## Appendix 5: The procedures in measuring Cronbach's alpha for testing the internal consistency of the FIT-Choice scale

Step 1: Run all motivation items within the FIT-Choice scale, see below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Teaching Abilities</td>
<td>58.9270</td>
<td>55.954</td>
<td>.391</td>
<td>.400</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Value</td>
<td>58.9157</td>
<td>54.797</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallback Career</td>
<td>63.4026</td>
<td>59.075</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>.299</td>
<td>.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Security</td>
<td>59.6105</td>
<td>50.364</td>
<td>.504</td>
<td>.384</td>
<td>.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for Family</td>
<td>61.2079</td>
<td>47.426</td>
<td>.506</td>
<td>.407</td>
<td>.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Transferability</td>
<td>59.6723</td>
<td>49.286</td>
<td>.415</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bludging</td>
<td>62.3240</td>
<td>56.381</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.321</td>
<td>.761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape Future of Children/Adolescents</td>
<td>58.6030</td>
<td>55.344</td>
<td>.387</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td>.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance Social Equity</td>
<td>59.1948</td>
<td>53.984</td>
<td>.333</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>.743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make Social Contribution</td>
<td>58.7434</td>
<td>55.559</td>
<td>.417</td>
<td>.473</td>
<td>.738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with Children/Adolescents</td>
<td>58.6498</td>
<td>54.465</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior teaching and learning experience</td>
<td>59.4139</td>
<td>50.914</td>
<td>.390</td>
<td>.332</td>
<td>.737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Influences</td>
<td>60.6386</td>
<td>43.724</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>.721</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Item Total Statistics II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Teaching Abilities</td>
<td>54.7944</td>
<td>49.537</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td>.364</td>
<td>.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Value</td>
<td>54.7611</td>
<td>48.001</td>
<td>.546</td>
<td>.523</td>
<td>.745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Security</td>
<td>55.4741</td>
<td>45.075</td>
<td>.482</td>
<td>.375</td>
<td>.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for Family</td>
<td>57.0796</td>
<td>43.593</td>
<td>.415</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td>.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Transferability</td>
<td>55.5093</td>
<td>44.538</td>
<td>.367</td>
<td>.179</td>
<td>.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape Future of Children/Adolescents</td>
<td>54.4593</td>
<td>49.124</td>
<td>.417</td>
<td>.474</td>
<td>.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance Social Equity</td>
<td>55.0370</td>
<td>47.255</td>
<td>.390</td>
<td>.340</td>
<td>.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make Social Contribution</td>
<td>54.5981</td>
<td>49.310</td>
<td>.452</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with Children/Adolescents</td>
<td>54.4981</td>
<td>47.991</td>
<td>.523</td>
<td>.433</td>
<td>.746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prior teaching and learning experience</td>
<td>55.2611</td>
<td>44.426</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td>.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Influences</td>
<td>56.5093</td>
<td>39.086</td>
<td>.496</td>
<td>.330</td>
<td>.748</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 2: Having removed the *items in relation to fallback career, bludging* for Pearson Correlation coefficients lower than 0.3, rerun the motivation items, see below.
Step 3: Run all perception items within the FIT-Choice scale, see below

Item-Total Statistics III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert Career</td>
<td>30.5580</td>
<td>12.126</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Demand</td>
<td>29.5109</td>
<td>12.884</td>
<td>.236</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Status</td>
<td>30.9239</td>
<td>9.728</td>
<td>.444</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td>.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Morale</td>
<td>31.2065</td>
<td>9.798</td>
<td>.494</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>.383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Salary</td>
<td>31.5399</td>
<td>9.746</td>
<td>.450</td>
<td>.303</td>
<td>.398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Dissuasion</td>
<td>32.3080</td>
<td>13.030</td>
<td>-.071</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>29.4094</td>
<td>12.439</td>
<td>.350</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>.479</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 4: Having removed the items in relation to expert career, high demand, social dissuasion for correlation coefficients lower than 0.3, rerun the motivation items, see below

Item-Total Statistics IV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Status</td>
<td>21.9710</td>
<td>5.737</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Morale</td>
<td>22.2536</td>
<td>6.144</td>
<td>.657</td>
<td>.549</td>
<td>.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Salary</td>
<td>22.5870</td>
<td>6.453</td>
<td>.523</td>
<td>.291</td>
<td>.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>20.4565</td>
<td>8.863</td>
<td>.442</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.679</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Step 5: Combine the motivation and perception items within the FIT-Choice scale for a final check with correlation coefficients greater than 0.3, see below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Teaching Abilities</td>
<td>75.3907</td>
<td>84.183</td>
<td>.452</td>
<td>.408</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Value</td>
<td>75.3574</td>
<td>81.194</td>
<td>.634</td>
<td>.674</td>
<td>.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Security</td>
<td>76.0704</td>
<td>77.854</td>
<td>.526</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td>.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time For Family</td>
<td>77.6759</td>
<td>77.545</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Transferability</td>
<td>76.1056</td>
<td>79.362</td>
<td>.326</td>
<td>.278</td>
<td>.831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape Future of Children/Adolescents</td>
<td>75.0556</td>
<td>83.880</td>
<td>.418</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance Social Equity</td>
<td>75.6333</td>
<td>81.496</td>
<td>.395</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make Social Contribution</td>
<td>75.1944</td>
<td>84.338</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>.487</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with Children/Adolescents</td>
<td>75.0944</td>
<td>81.521</td>
<td>585</td>
<td>.473</td>
<td>.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Teaching and Learning Experience</td>
<td>75.8574</td>
<td>77.022</td>
<td>.479</td>
<td>.360</td>
<td>.817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Influences</td>
<td>77.1056</td>
<td>71.701</td>
<td>.478</td>
<td>.376</td>
<td>.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Status</td>
<td>76.3907</td>
<td>78.448</td>
<td>.551</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td>.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Morale</td>
<td>76.6944</td>
<td>78.616</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.618</td>
<td>.811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Salary</td>
<td>77.0056</td>
<td>78.854</td>
<td>.534</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>74.8907</td>
<td>85.734</td>
<td>.403</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>.824</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 6: The main steps for producing the four-factor structure

1. examine the reliability in terms of the internal consistency of the FIT-Choice scale (see Appendix 5)

2. run PCA on the FIT-Choice subscales scale drawn from reliability analysis (see the table – Item-Total Statistics V in Appendix 5)

3. when inspecting the Correlation Matrix, removed the subscales of prior teaching and learning experience for its correlation coefficient ≤ 0.3; when inspecting the Anti-image Correlation Matrices, removed the sub-scales of job security, job transferability for their KMO < 0.5

4. rerun PCA and inspect the revised Correlation Matrix and Anti-image Correlation Matrices with the correlation and KMO being met the criteria

5. reach the decision on four main components to retain, based on the eigenvalue-one criterion (and the total variance explained criterion) and scree plot
### Appendix 7: Emerging themes across the interview data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Final emergent themes</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Quotations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. social status</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. salary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. morale</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. workload</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. enjoying teaching</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. enjoying working with children</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. challenging job</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. helping people learn</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. developing people</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. influencing people</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. satisfaction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. interest</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. pressure</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. not supported by others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. self-fulfilment</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. an informal experience of working with children</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. enjoying school time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. job security</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. a love of the subject</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. inspired by previous teacher(s)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. holiday</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. teaching English abroad</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. travelling</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. making education better</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. giving equal opportunities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. good interaction with students</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. teaching skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. challenging class</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. influenced by previous teacher</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. influenced by family member</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. improving schooling experience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. classroom teaching experience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. difficulty in planning lessons</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. influenced by colleague</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. the difficulty in subject knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. school environment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 8: Hierarchy for emergent themes across the interview

motivational factors influencing choosing teaching as a career

- perceptions about teaching
  - intrinsic factors
    - social status
      - enjoying teaching
    - morale
      - job security
    - workload
      - influencing people
    - challenging job
      - self-fullfillment
    - salary
      - satisfaction
      - a love of the subject

- previous teaching experience
  - extrinsic factors
    - teaching English abroad
    - classroom teaching
  - altruistic factors
    - helping people learn
    - developing people
    - making education better
  - intrinsic factors
    - enjoying working with children
    - interest
    - salary

- previous educational experience
  - other people
    - influenced by family member
    - inspired by previous teacher
    - influenced by colleague
  - teaching ability
    - teaching skills
    - subject knowledge
  - doubts
    - challenging class
    - pressure
    - not supported by others
    - excessive workload
    - difficulty in planning lessons
    - low salary

- previous teaching experience
  - job security
    - holidays
    - improving schooling experience
  - influencing people
    - helping people learn
    - making education better
  - teaching ability
    - teaching skills
    - subject knowledge
  - doubts
    - challenging class
    - pressure
    - not supported by others
    - excessive workload
    - difficulty in planning lessons
    - low salary

- extrinsic factors
  - job security
    - holidays
    - improving schooling experience
  - influencing people
    - helping people learn
    - making education better
  - teaching ability
    - teaching skills
    - subject knowledge
  - doubts
    - challenging class
    - pressure
    - not supported by others
    - excessive workload
    - difficulty in planning lessons
    - low salary
## Appendix 9: Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ability</th>
<th>Intrinsic value</th>
<th>Time for family</th>
<th>Shape future of children</th>
<th>Enhance social equity</th>
<th>Make social contribution</th>
<th>Work with children</th>
<th>Social influences</th>
<th>Social status</th>
<th>Teacher morale</th>
<th>Good salary</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Correlation</strong></td>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>Intrinsic value</td>
<td>Time for family</td>
<td>Shape future of children</td>
<td>Enhance social equity</td>
<td>Make social contribution</td>
<td>Work with children</td>
<td>Social influences</td>
<td>Social status</td>
<td>Teacher morale</td>
<td>Good salary</td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.535**</td>
<td>.252*</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>.220*</td>
<td>.219*</td>
<td>.374**</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.302**</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.402**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic value</td>
<td>.535**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.304**</td>
<td>.189*</td>
<td>.280*</td>
<td>.368**</td>
<td>.162*</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>.328**</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.503**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for family</td>
<td>.252*</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.330**</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.286</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape future of children</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.304**</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.484**</td>
<td>.564**</td>
<td>.403**</td>
<td>.203*</td>
<td>.171*</td>
<td>.307**</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance social equity</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>.189*</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.484**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.409**</td>
<td>.389**</td>
<td>.201*</td>
<td>.192*</td>
<td>.235</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td>.298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make social contribution</td>
<td>.220*</td>
<td>.280*</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.564**</td>
<td>.409**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.240*</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with children</td>
<td>.219*</td>
<td>.368**</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.403**</td>
<td>.389**</td>
<td>.240*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.352**</td>
<td>.442**</td>
<td>.448**</td>
<td>.364**</td>
<td>.328**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social influences</td>
<td>.374**</td>
<td>.162*</td>
<td>.330**</td>
<td>.203*</td>
<td>.201*</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.352**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.320**</td>
<td>.318**</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social status</td>
<td>.225**</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>.171*</td>
<td>.192*</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.442**</td>
<td>.320**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.701**</td>
<td>.515**</td>
<td>.346**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher morale</td>
<td>.302**</td>
<td>.328**</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.307**</td>
<td>.235</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>.448**</td>
<td>.318**</td>
<td>.701**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.454**</td>
<td>.446**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good salary</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.286</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.364**</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>.515**</td>
<td>.454**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>.402**</td>
<td>.503**</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.287</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>.328**</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.346**</td>
<td>.446**</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Appendix 10: Figures of mean scores of influential factors across three age groups