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Career Motivations of Student Teachers in the Republic of Ireland: Continuity and Change during Educational Reform and ‘Boom to Bust’ Economic Times

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This chapter provides an insight into the career motivations of entrants to initial teacher education (ITE) programmes in the Republic of Ireland. Within the context of very significant economic, social and education policy changes affecting the general and teaching populations in Ireland over the past decade, and drawing on Heinz’s 2006 data (2011) and 2013 data from our Diversity in Initial Teacher Education (DITE) national study, we examine changes in the socio-demographic and motivational profiles of ITE entrants over time. We also consider if (and if so, how) ITE entrants’ socio-economic backgrounds are associated with their motivations. Our empirical study (N = 427 second-level ITE entrants) used the FIT-Choice framework and a number of additional context-specific items to explore student teachers’ career motivations. In our comparison with the 2006 data (Heinz, 2011), we found changes in the two cohorts’ socio-demographic backgrounds as well as in their overall ratings for a number of motivational factors, including their desire to engage in teaching as a socially-valuable profession, their assessment of the expertise required, and the social status enjoyed by teachers.

Keywords: student teachers, initial teacher education entrants, career motivations, FIT-Choice, socio-demographic backgrounds, Ireland

1. Introduction - Economic and education policy development in Ireland in the 2000s

In common with other developed countries, Ireland has experienced a period of profound economic, social, technological, occupational, cultural and demographic change over the past 20 years. The ‘Celtic Tiger’ years (early 1990s to mid- 2000s) brought unprecedented economic growth and prosperity to Ireland, transforming the country from a context marked by high unemployment and net emigration to a situation of almost full employment and net immigration. However, in the early 2000s, with external investment slowing, Ireland’s economy became increasingly dependent on the construction sector and ‘property bubble’, and, in line with the growing global financial crisis, plunged into one of the deepest recessions in the Eurozone. In 2010, Ireland was granted a €67.5 billion ‘bailout’ (with high interest rates) by the European Union (EU) and International Monetary Fund (IMF), driving Ireland’s debt burden to “the absolute limits of sustainability” (McCarthy, 2010). Despite Ireland’s (December 2013) exit from the EU/IMF bailout programme, Ireland’s economy remains vulnerable.

In this current context of economic crisis and budgetary austerity, Ireland is marked by substantial financial cuts to virtually all public services, rising unemployment¹ and emigration rates, particularly among young people,² and increasing stress on the social welfare system. Schools, and education more generally, are regarded as crucial mechanisms for Ireland’s economic recovery and social cohesion (Drudy, 2009). In spite of Ireland’s return to a country marked by emigration, our population remains significantly diversified following the Celtic Tiger years, resulting in significant diversification of our school populations in terms of nationality, ethnicity, and first language (Smyth et al., 2009). Furthermore, national policy in the area of Special Educational Needs (SEN) and disability has resulted in the inclusion of pupils with disabilities and SEN in mainstream schools. In this context, learning and teaching environments as well as teachers’ roles have evolved considerably.

An avalanche of reforms affecting curriculum, pedagogy and assessment, and professional regulations and norms has impacted teachers' daily work. Some of the most significant policy initiatives include the establishment of the *Irish Teaching Council* (2006), the *National Strategy to Improve Literacy and Numeracy Among Children and Young People 2011–2020* (2011), the new *Junior Cycle Framework* (2012) and the *reconceptualization of Initial Teacher Education Programmes* (2013/14).

Many of the post-2009 reform efforts have been explicitly connected to PISA test results which demonstrated the “deterioration in attainment of Irish 15 year olds between 2000 and 2009” (Hyland, 2012). The ‘bad news’ from PISA 2009 together with the economic bailout in 2010 and the strategic leadership of a reform-oriented Minister of Education have been described as a “‘perfect storm’ leading to a significant reorientation of schooling and teacher education in Ireland” (Hislop, 2011; Looney, 2012; Conway & Murphy 2013, p. 13).

While the Teaching Council has interpreted the wide-ranging policy changes as the beginning of a new era of teacher professionalism (Teaching Council Strategic Plan, 2012-14), the “shifting of the tectonic plates in Irish education” (Ó Ruairc, 2012) triggered strong debate, and some opposition, particularly in the case of Junior Cycle reform which has led to nationwide teacher strikes in 2014/15.

Our research explores continuity and change of ITE entrants' career motivations in Ireland over the last decade marked by the described boom-to-bust economic times and significant educational policy change. To that end, we examine to what extent the socio-demographic backgrounds, career motivations and levels of commitment of 2006 and 2013 entrants to postgraduate second-level initial teacher education programmes are similar or different. We will also consider if (and if, how) ITE applicants' socio-demographic background variables may be associated with their motivational profiles.

Following this introduction we provide a description of the Irish schooling structure. In section three, we discuss teachers' work conditions and entry into the teaching profession, including ITE provision, in Ireland. Section four explores findings from previous research describing the backgrounds and motivations of student teachers in the Republic of Ireland. Our research questions and methodology are described in section five which is followed, in section six, by a description of our findings. Finally, we interpret our findings in light of relevant cultural and contextual factors and discuss educational, policy and research implications.

2. Background – Education System in Ireland

In an international context, Ireland is a small country with a small school system. Overall, there are 58,454 teachers (32,828 primary and 25,626 secondary) working in 4,009 schools (3,286 primary and 723 secondary schools) serving a pupil population of 907,410 (540,232 primary and 367,178 secondary pupils) (Department of Education & Skills (DES), 2015). The total population of Ireland was 4.59 million in 2011, up from 3.62 million in 1996. Teacher numbers increased sharply at primary level from 21,100 to 32,828 and more moderately at secondary level from 22,686 to 25,626 between 1998 and 2014. The overall pupil-teacher ratio was 16.3 at primary and 14.3 at secondary school level in 2013/14.

Primary education usually commences at the age of 5/6 and is of eight years duration.

Denominational *National Schools* exist alongside Irish-medium *Gaelscoileanna*³ (368 schools) and multi-denominational *Educate Together Schools* (currently 74).

Overall, a very strong denominational tradition has existed regarding school provision in Ireland, particularly at primary school level where 96% of schools were under denominational patronage in 2010/11 (89.6% Catholic, 5.5% Church of Ireland, cf. Coolahan, Hussey & Kilfeather, 2012, p. 29). There have been calls from many stakeholders over the past decade encouraging fresh

thinking in the areas of funding and governance for Irish schools, with many suggesting full secularisation. Within this context, the then Minister for Education & Skills, Ruairí Quinn, accepted and published the Report of the Advisory Group to the Forum on Patronage and Pluralism in the Primary Sector (2012) and initiated pilot surveys exploring parental preferences on primary school patronage as first step in an envisaged process of possible transfers of some schools run by the Catholic Church to other school patron bodies¹⁴.

Second-level education is provided by *Voluntary Secondary, Vocational* and *Community/Comprehensive* schools (catering for 57%, 26% and 17% of the second-level student population respectively) all of which are state funded despite differences in governance models and financing mechanisms (see Darmody & Smyth, 2013). Secondary schools have traditionally had a more academic approach to education with Vocational and Community/Comprehensive schools providing a wider range of subjects, including technical subjects and continuing education and training services for post second-level students. There are two cycles in second-level education, the junior cycle and the senior cycle. The junior cycle culminates in the Junior Certificate examination, which is currently undergoing significant reform. The senior cycle (which includes an optional ‘Transition Year’) culminates in the Leaving Certificate examination.

Figure 1 about here

3. Teaching in Ireland

Teachers’ work conditions and pay

Teaching is a regulated profession in Ireland and teachers employed in state-funded schools must be

registered with the Irish Teaching Council⁵ to be paid by the Department of Education and Skills (Section 30 of the Teaching Council Act, 2001). The relatively recent establishment of the Teaching Council in 2006 was a landmark development for the teaching profession in Ireland, transferring “wide-ranging responsibilities on entry standards, ITE programme accreditation, training courses, in-service education, research, and professional conduct” (ibid.) to this professional body.

Full-time primary teachers teach 915 hours per year, which is considerably higher than the OECD average (of 782 hours) (OECD, 2014, 296) while second-level teachers’ teach 735 hours per year, slightly more than the OECD average (655-694 hours) (ibid.). Teachers are recruited by schools on a permanent (appointed for life with civil servant status) or fixed-term contractual basis. Recent OECD figures have illustrated that Ireland has a far higher proportion of temporary teaching positions (27% in 2007/08) at second-level compared to the OECD average of 16% (OECD, 2009, p. 42).

Statutory teacher salaries in Ireland were higher than OECD and EU21 averages in 2012, however, the ratio of teachers’ salaries compared to earnings of other workers with tertiary education qualifications is slightly below the 0.88 OECD average (0.81 for teachers of all levels in Ireland compared to 0.85, 0.88, 0.92 for primary, lower, higher secondary teachers in the OECD) (OECD, 2014, p. 469). The earlier discussed economic recession and associated financial cuts to public services have, furthermore, led to significant reductions⁶ in the net income of teachers, with new entrants to the teaching profession hit hardest by “new entrants” (10% reduced) salary scales (post-2011) and the abolishment of qualification allowances (post-2012). A moratorium on the filling of posts of responsibility in schools (Circulars 0053/2011 & 0004/2014) has further significantly compromised teachers’ opportunities for career advancement and salary increase and is, according to the teachers’ unions, seriously undermining the operation of schools.⁷

Entry into teaching – Initial Teacher Education (ITE)

ITE programmes are provided by the Schools of Education of the seven Irish Universities⁸ (or by affiliated colleges of education) as well as by three non-state funded providers, Hibernia College and two Montessori colleges. A recent review of the structure of ITE provision in Ireland has resulted in government policy mandating the consolidation of publicly funded ITE provision from 19 providers to six large, university-based centers (DES, 2012a).

To be eligible for registration as a primary or post-primary teacher, candidates have to complete either an undergraduate concurrent ITE programme of four years (240 ECTS), or a postgraduate consecutive programme of two years (120 ECTS). All ITE programmes have recently (2013/14) been extended from three to four years for undergraduate programmes, and from one to two years for postgraduate programmes. Postgraduate programmes have been reconceptualised from level 8 (Professional Diploma in Education) to level 9 (Professional Master of Education) programmes. Newly qualified teachers are granted registration subject to the successful completion of a programme of induction and probation (introduced in 2013) and a period of post-qualification employment (Teaching Council, 2014/15).⁹

Demand for places on state-funded ITE programmes has been high with only between 30-40% of applications (to postgraduate second-level programmes) resulting in offers (Heinz, 2008, 2011). Candidates are, in most cases, selected through competitive points systems whereby prior academic performance is rated and complemented (in the case of postgraduate programmes) by a much smaller number of available points for relevant professional experience and further qualifications. Proficiency in Irish and, more recently, performance in English and Mathematics, are also assessed as part of the selection system for primary ITE candidates. Only three¹⁰ of the seven state-funded ITE providers currently include interviews in the selection process (Heinz, 2011). In 2011, 3,554 ITE graduates were recorded nationally for primary and post-primary level (Hyland,

2012).

An oversupply of teachers and ITE graduates has been noted for a number of years by ITE providers, schools and teachers' unions, with concerns expressed about the "casualization of teaching [and lecturing]" in Ireland, which is leading to "severe income poverty for many teachers struggling on fixed-term (temporary) contracts in part-time positions" (MacGabhann, 2012).

Anecdotal evidence suggests that many graduates from Irish ITE programmes leave Ireland to start their teaching careers in the UK and further afield, often after unsuccessfully pursuing teaching positions in Ireland.

Figure 2 about here

4. Overview of findings from empirical studies exploring backgrounds and motivations of ITE students in the Republic of Ireland

The Irish teaching profession, including the student teacher population, has been found to be homogenous with teachers being predominantly white, female, and of the majority ethnic and social class groupings (Heinz, 2008, 2011; Keane & Heinz, 2015; Leavy, 2005; Devine, 2005). While this is generally in line with the international experience (e.g. in the US, Zumwalt & Craig, 2005; Tyler et al., 2011; in Australia, Hartsuyker, 2007; for the OECD, Schleicher, 2014), Hyland (2012) argues that "the teaching profession in Ireland, especially at primary school level, is less culturally and ethnically diverse than in other OECD countries" and points to the Catholic-based tradition of education in Ireland and especially Irish-language requirements for primary teachers as reasons. In contrast to findings from the UK and US (Beng Huat, 2004; Zumwalt & Craig, 2005, 2008), student teachers enrolled in ITE programmes in the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland are seen to be

of high academic calibre (Drudy, et al., 2005; Drudy, 2009c; Heinz, 2008, 2011; Killeavy 1993, 1998, MacPhail & Tannehill, 2009; O’Sullivan). Children from farming backgrounds and/or from rural areas have traditionally been over-represented in primary as well as (to a lower extent) second-level ITE cohorts (Clarke, 2009, Heinz, 2013a; Killeavy 1998). While primary ITE entrants have been found to come mainly from a middle class background (Burke & McCann, 1987; Drudy et al. 2005; Greaney et al., 1987; Killeavy 1993), the social class profile of second-level ITE entrants has been more diverse with 54% of respondents to Heinz’s (2013) study falling into social class categories lower than teaching. Among entrants to postgraduate second-level ITE programmes, a significant rise in the participation rates of mature students has been observed (Heinz, 2008; Keane & Heinz, 2015) together with a high percentage (66%) of entrants with previous careers and a significant percentage (14%) of parents (Heinz, 2013a). Not surprisingly in the Irish context, the great majority of ITE entrants who responded to Heinz’s survey (88%) identified as Roman Catholics (2013). Interestingly, however (again in the Irish context), 9.5% of respondents stated that they did not belong to any religion, and 17.5% of ‘religious’ ITE entrants stated that they “did not practice their religion at all.”

Four Irish studies have explored career motivations of student teachers in Ireland (Clarke, 2009; Drudy et al., 2005; Heinz, 2011, 2013b; O’Sullivan, MacPhail & Tannehill, 2009). Three studies have collected data from large-scale, cross-institutional samples of primary (Drudy et al., 2005) and second-level (Clarke, 2009; Heinz, 2011, 2013b) student teachers using questionnaires. One study (O’Sullivan et al., 2009) employed a qualitative design to explore the career motivations of 75 physical education (PE) teacher candidates. .

Research (Clarke, 2009, Drudy et al., 2005; Heinz, 2011, 2013b) has shown that individuals enter teaching as a career of choice, with high levels of commitment and confidence in their abilities, rating intrinsic and altruistic motivating factors significantly higher than extrinsic factors.

While family members have an important influence on undergraduate primary and postgraduate second-level PE student teachers' career choice (Drudy, et al., 2005, O'Sullivan et al., 2009), postgraduate second-level ITE entrants did not report high levels of influence from significant others (Heinz, 2011). Indeed, Heinz's results indicated that postgraduate second-level ITE entrants were significantly more likely to experience discouraging advice from others in their career decision.

Heinz's PhD thesis (2011) has provided the most comprehensive investigation into second-level student teachers' reasons for choosing a teaching career in the Irish context. It was the first study to use theoretically grounded and validated scales (FIT-Choice, Watt & Richardson, 2007) to measure the importance of different motivational factors in the Irish context. FIT-Choice results of Heinz's 2006 (2011) sample are presented in Table 2 and will be discussed alongside our FIT-Choice results from the 2013 cohort. Heinz also explored differences in respondents' motivational profiles based on student teachers' sex, age and teaching backgrounds. She found that her female respondents rated their 'perceived teaching abilities', 'intrinsic career value', 'social utility value' and 'prior teaching and learning experience', as well as the 'task demands' of the teaching profession, significantly higher than their male counterparts. At the same time, males assigned significantly higher ratings to the factor 'fallback career' as a motivator to enter teaching. Heinz emphasises that the relationship between entrants' sex and their wish to 'work with children/adolescents' proved to be the most significant of all, with female student teachers attaching much greater importance to this factor than males supporting the theory that female candidates hold more child-centred motivations than males (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Drudy et al., 2005; Clarke, 2009).

With regard to respondents' age, Heinz found that younger students allocated significantly higher ratings to career returns in terms of social status and salary, and rated 'personal utility

motivators' significantly higher, in particular the transferable nature of teaching. Respondents' ratings of their 'prior teaching experiences' significantly decreased with their age and respondents aged 31 years or over were least likely to view teaching as a 'fallback career'. Finally, with regard to 'prior teaching experience' and student teachers' motivations and perceptions, Heinz observed no statistically significant association in her analysis of FIT-Choice data.

5. Methodology

Research questions

This chapter focuses on three research questions. First, we explore to what extent recent (2013) postgraduate second-level ITE entrants in Ireland endorse different teaching motivations indicated by the FIT-Choice scale. Secondly, we examine to what extent our 2013 respondents' socio-demographic backgrounds, career motivations and levels of commitment differ from the 2006 cohort (Heinz, 2011). Thirdly, we consider if (and if, how) our 2013 cohort's socio-demographic background variables may be associated with their motivational profiles.

Regarding the first question, we expected that earlier findings from Irish studies (Clarke, 2009; Heinz, 2011) would be confirmed and that intrinsic career value, interest in teaching subjects, social utility value, and perceived teaching ability would prove to be the strongest motivators. As regards student teachers' ratings of the personal utility values 'job security' and 'job transferability' as motivators, we were interested to see if these ratings had changed and/or were different from studies conducted in other countries with higher demand and better job prospects for new teachers and/or different economic histories.

With regard to the second question, we were interested in exploring the impact that Ireland's economic downturn and/or the earlier described widely publicised post-PISA 2009 reform agenda may have had on ITE entrants' backgrounds and motivations. We hypothesised that we would see

an increase in the participation of men in ITE as a result of the economic recession, which has disproportionately affected males (Russell, McGinnity & Kingston, 2014). Considering the sharp increase in unemployment figures, we expected that financial support available for unemployed Irish citizens returning to full-time higher education (the 'Back to Education' allowance) might represent an important new motivator in the Irish context.

Regarding the third research question, we expected that our analysis of gender differences would confirm earlier Irish (Drudy et al., 2005; Heinz, 2011) and international (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992) findings showing that female candidates have reported more child-centred motivations to teach. We wanted to see if our analysis would confirm the associations between age and FIT-Choice items described in Heinz's study. Finally, we wanted to explore the possible associations between student teachers' social class backgrounds, ethnicity, religious affiliation and prior experiences and their FIT-Choice ratings.

Sample and procedure

The sample for this study consisted of 427 respondents to our large-scale Diversity in Initial Teacher Education (DITE) online survey, conducted in August 2013. The DITE survey was administered to all 2013 entrants to postgraduate second-level ITE programmes (last year of the 1-year Professional Diploma in Education – PDE - programme) offered by the seven¹¹ universities in the Irish republic through the Postgraduate Application Centre (PAC)¹² system, as well as through mailing lists and web-based university learning systems. Out of the 521 PDE entrants who completed the DITE survey (42% of all 2013 PDE entrants nationally), 427 (82%) completed the FIT-Choice items. 286 (67%) of these respondents were female, and 141 (33%) were male. Respondents ranged in age from 19 to 58, with a mean age of 26.04 ($SD = 6.85$) and median of 23 years.

Instruments and variables

Motivations for becoming a teacher were assessed using the FIT-Choice scale (Watt & Richardson, 2007). The number of FIT-Choice items comprising each factor and their reliability scores, as measured by Cronbach's α , are presented in Table 2. A number of additional items were added to explore potentially relevant factors in the Irish context, including "having teachers in one's family" and "considering teaching after job loss". Most of these items are based on previous findings in the Irish context (Heinz, 2011, 2013b).

The following independent variables have been assessed to describe our respondents' demographic and experiential profiles: Age, sex, social class (based on fathers' occupations categorised using CSO classifications)¹³, ethnicity (using CSO classifications), religious affiliation, type of second-level school attended, school experiences (positive/mixed/negative), previous teaching experience (yes/no), degree subjects, and number of children (if any). A summary of the distributions of the categorical independent variables (2006 and 2013) is presented in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

Statistical analyses

Independent samples *t*-tests were used to investigate potential differences in the ratings of the FIT-Choice factors between the 2006 and 2013 cohorts. Independent samples *t*-tests were also used to assess differences in ratings for groups based on dichotomous variables where the relevant assumptions were met. The magnitude of differences between means (or effect size) was indicated by Pearson *r*, with values above 0.1 considered small, above 0.3 medium and above 0.5 large (Field, 2005).

For independent variables with multiple categories, both parametric and non-parametric tests were used to assess for differences. One-way ANOVAs were used when assumptions (similar to those for the *t*-test) about the data were met. Effect size was measured using ω , which is

analogous to the r figure used in the case of t -tests. Tukey HSD and Games-Howell post-hoc tests were used to explore the differences between groups. The Games-Howell procedure was used for variables where the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met.

In order to assess the relation between the continuous independent variables of age and academic confidence, and the FIT-Choice scales, Pearson's product-moment correlation was used.

6. Results

ITE entrants' motivations in 2013

Summary results for the overall respondent cohort and their mean ratings of the different FIT-Choice factors are illustrated in Figure 3. Our analysis shows that postgraduate ITE entrants rated their interest in their teaching subject as the most influential factor on their career choice ($M = 6.15$, $SD = .98$). The second highest rated influential factor, intrinsic career value ($M = 5.86$, $SD = 1.09$), was followed by perceived ability ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 1.08$) and ITE candidates' wish to shape the future of children and adolescents ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.10$). Prior experience ($M = 5.43$, $SD = 1.47$), as well as the social utility factors making a social contribution ($M = 5.43$, $SD = 1.27$), working with children ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 1.35$), and enhancing social equity ($M = 4.89$, $SD = 1.50$), all scored well above the scale midpoint. In contrast, the personal utility factors of job security ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.60$), job transferability ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.61$) and time for family ($M = 3.07$, $SD = 1.59$) were rated much lower by respondents. Results also showed that the social influence of others on ITE candidates' career choice is relatively small ($M = 3.07$, $SD = 1.72$) and that teaching is, for most respondents who are very satisfied with their career choice ($M = 6.13$, $SD = 0.96$), not considered a fallback career ($M = 1.71$, $SD = 1.01$). Respondents' assessment of the teaching career's demands and returns indicate that they rate the former significantly higher ($M = 5.73$, $SD = 0.81$) than the latter ($M = 4.29$, $SD = 1.04$).

As regards the additional items explored in this Irish study, having someone who is (or was) a teacher in the family ($M = 2.29$, $SD = 1.87$) did not prove to have a strong influence on respondents' career decisions. The two items suggesting that the ITE programme was considered a new opportunity after job losses ($M = 1.55$, $SD = 1.30$) and/or that the existence of social welfare allowances to support students during their studies ($M = 1.39$, $SD = 1.02$) had an influence on respondents' decisions were also rated very low. However, prior rewarding experience as (unqualified) teachers proved to be influential ($M = 4.77$, $SD = 2.17$), with half of all respondents choosing the two highest points on the seven-point scale for the relevant item.

Comparison of ITE entrants' socio-demographic backgrounds and motivations in 2006 and 2013

We observed an increase in male ITE entrants (27.1%-32.3%) and a decrease in the percentage of entrants with prior teaching experience (71.6%-41.7%). In terms of social class backgrounds, we found an increase in participation rates from semi-skilled (3.0%-13.2%) and unskilled (1.8%-4.4%) groups, and a decrease in participation rates from managerial and technical (33.7-28.0%) and non-manual (23.7%-15.7%) groups. While the percentage of ITE entrants from farming backgrounds decreased from 20.0% in 2006 to 13.1% in 2013, their overrepresentation relative to the general population (4.9% in 2011, CSO, 2011) persist. We noted a decrease in entrants identifying as affiliated to the Roman Catholic religion (88.2%-81.8%) alongside an increased proportion of participants not identifying with any religion (9.5%-14.1%).

Insert Figure 3 about here

A series of independent samples *t*-tests was used to assess significant differences between the 2006 and 2013 samples for FIT-Choice factors, with several significant results identified (see Figure 3, Table 2). Fallback career was significantly higher in 2013 ($M = 1.71$, $SD = 1.01$) than in 2006 ($M =$

1.55, SD = .89); $t(764) = 2.30, p < .05$, the effect size was small, $r = .08$. Time for family was rated significantly higher in 2013 (M = 3.07, SD = 1.59) than in 2006 (M = 2.37, SD = 1.11); $t(757) = 6.90, p < .001$, with a relatively small effect size, $r = 0.24$. The higher order social utility value factor achieved significantly higher mean values in 2013 (M = 5.23, SD = 1.16) than had been the case in 2006 (M = 4.98, SD = 1.37); $t(722) = 2.66, p < .01, r = .10$. Significant increases in the ratings for shaping future of children/adolescents (from M = 5.16, SD = 1.48 in 2006 to M = 5.55, SD = 1.10 in 2013); $t(756) = 4.16, p < .001, r = .15$. were also found. Working with children significantly increased as a motivational factor between the two samples (from M = 5.08, SD = 1.57 in 2006 to M = 5.29, SD = 1.35 in 2013); $t(760) = 1.98, p < .05, r = .07$. Respondents in the 2013 sample rated the impact of social influences significantly higher (M = 3.07, SD = 1.72) than their 2006 predecessors (M = 2.62, SD = 1.62); $t(761) = 3.69, p < .001, r = .13$. Finally, significant differences were observed as regards the ratings of various task demand/return factors with increased mean values for expertise between 2006 (M = 5.02, SD = 1.25) and 2013 (M = 5.47, SD = 1.10); $t(769) = 5.31, p < .001, r = .19$ and social status (M = 4.30, SD = 1.16 to M = 4.61, SD = 1.14); $t(761) = 3.71, p < .001, r = .13$, together with a significant decrease in student teachers' evaluation of the teaching salary (from M = 3.94, SD = 1.22 in 2006 to M = 3.50, SD = 1.25 in 2013); $t(772) = 4.91, p < .001, r = .17$.

Insert Table 2 about here

Comparison of 2013 FIT-Choice responses by background characteristics

Within the 2013 sample, significant differences between males and females were found in the working with children and social dissuasion factors as well as the social utility higher-order factor.

Males (M = 5.59, SD = 1.26) were found to rate working with children significantly higher as a

motivational factor than females ($M = 5.15$, $SD = 1.38$); $t(352) = 2.87$, $p = .004$. The magnitude of the differences in the means was small ($r = .15$). The second difference related to social dissuasion, with females ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.47$) reporting significantly higher levels than males ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.47$); $t(357) = -2.45$, $p = .015$. Again, the magnitude of the effect size was small ($r = .13$). The final sex-related difference related to the higher-order social utility value factor, where males ($M = 5.4$, $SD = 1.07$) reported significantly higher levels than females ($M = 5.14$, $SD = 1.2$); $t(375) = 2.0$, $p = .046$, $r = .10$.

Social class, as classified by father's occupation, was significantly associated with the ratings of the motivational factors shaping the future of children/adolescents and making a social contribution, as well as with respondents' assessment of the social status enjoyed by teachers. Significant differences were also found in the higher-order social utility value, task demand and task return factors. The effect of social class on shaping the future of children/adolescents was significant. As the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, Welch's adjusted F-ratio was used: $F(5, 72.4) = 3.63$, $p = .006$. The effect size was relatively small, $\omega = .27$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell procedure indicated that the mean score for shaping the future of children was significantly higher for those in the Unskilled class ($M = 6.03$, $SD = .61$) than those in the Managerial and Technical class ($M = 5.28$, $SD = 1.29$).

In assessing the making a social contribution variable, a one-way ANOVA found a significant difference between groups $F(5,232) = 2.39$, $p = .039$, $\omega = .17$. Using the post-hoc Games-Howell procedure, it was found that those in the Unskilled class ($M = 6.29$, $SD = .61$) rated making a social contribution as a significantly more important motivational factor than those from every other class besides Skilled Manual: Professional workers ($M = 5.31$, $SD = 1.1$), Managerial and Technical ($M = 5.31$, $SD = 1.27$), Non-manual ($M = 5.22$, $SD = 1.19$), Semi-skilled ($M = 5.23$, $SD = 1.34$). There were no other significant differences between groups. A one-way ANOVA test

revealed significant differences in the social status variable $F(5, 224) = 2.33, p = .043$. The magnitude of the difference in means was small, $\omega = .17$. Post-hoc Games-Howell procedure tests failed to identify significant difference between the class groups, likely due to the unbalanced distribution of participants among classes.

Significant differences between social class groups were found for social utility value: Welch's adjusted F-ratio was used: $F(5, 76.5) = 4.16, p = .002$. The effect size was relatively small, $\omega = .25$. Post-hoc tests using the Games-Howell procedure found significant differences between Skilled Manual ($M = 5.53, SD = 1.34$) and Professional workers ($M = 4.8, SD = 1.28$). In the case of task demand, a one-way ANOVA identified significant differences between groups $F(5, 256) = 4.13, p = .001, \omega = .24$. Post-hoc Tukey tests revealed that those in the Professional Worker class ($M = 5.34, SD = 1.04$) rated task demand significantly lower than Skilled Manual ($M = 5.47, SD = .95$), Non-Manual ($M = 5.96, SD = .74$) and Unskilled ($M = 6.18, SD = .63$). There were no other significant differences between these groups. The final higher-order factor in which differences were found between social classes was task return. Using one-way ANOVA a significant difference was identified, $F(5, 254) = 2.43, p = .036, \omega = .16$.

In the case of religious affiliation, because of the overwhelming number of Catholic respondents and small numbers in other categories it was decided to condense the categorisation of participants to Catholic, Other religion and Non-religious. ANOVA and other post-hoc tests are sensitive to uneven and small group sizes and this re-categorisation measure helped avoid potential problems associated with group size. Using a series of one-way ANOVAs, it was found that significant differences between groups existed for the job security, $F(2, 293) = 3.49, p = .032$. The magnitude of the difference was small, $\omega = .13$. Using the post-hoc Games-Howell procedure it was found that job security was rated significantly more important as a motivational factor by non-religious participants ($M = 4.85, SD = 1.42$) than by Catholic participants ($M = 4.21, SD = 1.61$).

A one-way ANOVA also revealed significant differences between groups for the social dissuasion factor. As the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, Welch's adjusted F-ratio was used, $F(2, 39.27) = 7.51, p = .002, \omega = .20$. Post-hoc analysis using the Games-Howell procedure found that those from other religions ($M = 4.54, SD = .94$) rated social dissuasion significantly higher than those who identified themselves as Catholic ($M = 3.55, SD = 1.53$). No other significant differences between groups were found. Finally, a one-way ANOVA also revealed significant differences between religious affiliation groups for the higher-order personal utility value factor, $F(2, 318) = 3.02, p = .049, \omega = .11$. Post-hoc Tukey tests revealed that personal utility value was significantly higher for non-religious respondents ($M = 4.02, SD = 1.4$) than Catholic respondents ($M = 3.49, SD = 1.35$). Only one of the experiential variables we explored, previous teaching experience, was significantly associated with FIT-Choice factor ratings: those who had no experience reported significantly higher social dissuasion scores ($M = 3.74, SD = 1.42$) than those who had ($M = 3.4, SD = 1.53$); $t(353) = -2.13, p = .034$. The magnitude of the effect was small ($r = .12$).

7. Discussion and Implications

Our findings mirror results from earlier Irish studies indicating that the economic and education policy changes that have affected teachers and the general population in Ireland did not have a major impact on the motivations of ITE entrants. Intrinsic motivation, perceived teaching-related abilities, prior teaching and learning experiences, and a desire to engage in a socially worthwhile task continue to represent the most influential motivators in choosing a teaching career for postgraduate second-level ITE entrants in 2013. Overall, personal utility factors were rated much lower than intrinsic, ability-related and social utility factors and, indeed, significantly lower than in other international contexts (Koenig & Rothland, 2012; Watt & Richardson, 2007). Our respondents' high level of satisfaction with their career choice indicated a strong personal

commitment to teaching. Influence of others, while rated significantly higher in 2013 than in 2006, did not play an important role in our respondents' career decisions. The continuity of student teachers' motivational patterns throughout a significantly changed economic and policy context may indicate the existence of "core motivations" and/or the impact of personality on an individual's likelihood to choose teaching as a career (Watt et al., 2012).

Despite general consistency in the overall rankings of the different motivational factors, our nuanced analyses revealed some very interesting changes in terms of the ratings for some of the FIT-Choice factors as well as to the associations between ratings and socio-demographic background variables. First, with regard to respondents' perceptions of the task demand/return of the teaching profession, teachers' expertise was rated significantly higher in 2013 compared to 2006, as was teachers' social status, which correlated with expertise. With respect to expertise, we noted significantly higher ratings by Skilled Manual, Non-Manual, and Unskilled groups in comparison to Professional Workers.

The increase in student teachers' perception of task demand and expertise is potentially explained by the previously noted avalanche of curricular and pedagogical reform, which has taken place in Irish education in the last decade. The reforms sparked significant public discussion and debate, and in this age of mass media and internet communications, the general public, including ITE entrants, could be regarded as being much more informed about education policy development and change than were previous generations. In addition, it is very possible that the institution of the Teaching Council as a statutory body (2006) has played an important role in promoting public perception of teacher professionalism. In the context of our deep economic recession and associated austerity politics (public sector job losses and moratoria on hiring, including in teaching, wage and salary cuts, and direct and indirect tax increases), it is interesting to note that our student teachers' perceptions of job security in teaching did not change although their assessment of the teaching

salary significantly changed in the relevant time-frame. It is possible that teaching, which as a career and profession has enjoyed a long-standing position of value in Irish society, was considered from a medium-long term perspective by our ITE entrants, and that its current lack of (actual) stability and prospects in our recessionary context was viewed as *temporary*. In spite of a lack of current opportunities, it is possible that traditional graduate occupations (cf. Elias & Purcell, 2004), such as teaching, may be accorded higher status in recessionary times due to individuals' perceptions of their longer-term potential to obtain stability and security in the labour market. Becoming qualified to 'be something' (in this case, a teacher) may be perceived as more 'bankable' and safe in recessionary times, even if the potential returns to the individual are more future than current. It is also possible that our ITE entrants viewed a teaching qualification to be of value as a *mobile* qualification, one that could be carried with them to employment contexts outside of Ireland.

Interestingly, those from lower social class groups rated the social status of teaching more highly than did those from higher socioeconomic groups. As we have noted, participation rates from lower social class groups increased between 2006 and 2013, in line with our hypothesis linking a changed gender and social class profile to rising unemployment figures in Ireland. The above points regarding teaching potentially constituting a future-oriented and/or mobile-oriented qualification are arguably even more relevant for those from lower social class groups. However, an additional contextual factor is also likely of relevance: the 2013/2014 academic year was the final year of the one-year postgraduate teaching programme (the Professional Diploma in Education), and thus constituted the final chance for those from lower social class groups to become qualified as a teacher – indicating upward social mobility as teaching is seen to be a middle class profession (Maguire, 2001) - in a less costly (in terms of finance and time) one year programme.

The significant increase in ITE entrants' ratings of the social utility value of teaching from 2006-2013 ought to be considered in the context of Ireland's economic recession. The impact of this

deep and long-lasting recession on Irish society, and particularly the change from ‘boom’-time lifestyles (for some) to serious poverty for many in recent years has led to a society-level reflection on issues of social cohesion and political legitimacy (Nolan et al., 2014). This may, in turn, have influenced ITE entrants’ beliefs about their potential/their role in contributing to societal development, social improvement, and education as a vehicle to improve young people’s life chances.

As previously noted, we found a very interesting association between social class and the strength of the social utility value, with ITE entrants from unskilled and skilled manual social class groups rating the opportunity to engage in a socially worthwhile task higher than did those from higher social class groups. The literature on the benefits of minority (ethnic) teachers for minority pupils suggests that minority teachers more frequently position themselves as ‘change agents’ (Price & Valli, 2005), are more likely to be committed to teaching in disadvantaged schools (Stoddard, 1991; Su, 1997), can draw on their own experiences of marginalisation in their role as teachers (Santoro, 2013), and can act as ‘cultural brokers’ or advocates in their role (Villegas & Irvine, 2010). King (1993) and Su’s (1997) qualitative studies in the US focusing on the motivations of ethnic minority teacher candidates have identified their “belief that teaching contributes to the betterment of society” as one of the most important attractors to the career.

While much of the research in the area relates to ethnicity, one could argue that ‘other’ ITE entrants from under-represented groups, including those from lower socioeconomic groups, may be similarly positioned by a high level of desire to positively contribute to the education of ‘people like them’ in terms of their motivational orientations (Maguire, 2001). The higher rating of the social utility value of teaching by those from lower socioeconomic groups merits further analysis, particularly through in-depth qualitative research.

Very interestingly, we noted significant associations between respondents’ sex and their

ratings of social utility factors and social dissuasion, with males expressing a stronger desire to work with children and experiencing lower levels of social dissuasion than females. To explore this very surprising reversed association (females had rated working with children significantly higher than males in 2006) in greater depth, we identified fathers (N = 22, 14.5% of males) and mothers (N = 39, 12.9% of females) among our respondents and found that their gendered ratings of time for family followed the same pattern of association. Again, we would argue that these changes can, at least partially, be explained by the economic recession in Ireland which has begun to change traditional norms in relation to gender roles in families and in society more generally (Culleton & Dillworth, 2011). Accordingly, in recessionary Ireland it has become more common for fathers (who have lost their jobs) to care for children, at least temporarily, while mothers (who are working in the public sector or other more service-oriented fields) financially support their families. The questions of whether the “detraditionalisation” of gender (and parenting) roles “in times of crisis” (Canavan, 2012, Culleton & Dillworth, 2011) will shift perceptions of teaching as a career, and of who should become a teacher and why, deserve further investigation.

Finally, we found interesting associations between religious affiliation and personal utility value, and sex and personal utility value, with religious (mostly Catholic) and/or female respondents rating various personal utility factors significantly lower than their non-religious and/or male counterparts. Considering these differences in the context of the denominational Irish school tradition, and the very low rating for the personal utility factor overall (M = 3.56), it may be that the traditional “service theme” (Lortie, 1975) ties Irish ITE entrants (and in particular women, and those who more closely associate with Catholic beliefs) into normative frameworks that prevent them from recognising personal and/or material rewards as career motivators.

8. Conclusion

Our research has been exploratory in nature. The trends presented in this chapter require further longitudinal examination. Particularly with regard to currently underrepresented groups in ITE (those from minority-ethnic, lower social class, and non-religious backgrounds), we will need to draw on bigger samples before we can further discuss similarities and differences in motivational profiles. Our ongoing (yearly) DITE data collection will greatly enhance our analysis of trends over time and of links between socio-demographic and motivational profiles, which have been underexplored to date (cf. Heinz, 2015)¹⁴. In addition, the qualitative aspect of the DITE study (incorporating in-depth interviews with a range of ITE applicants, entrants, and non-entrants from a range of socio-demographic backgrounds) will provide the opportunity to deepen our analysis.

Overall, our findings suggest that at the teacher recruitment stage, it is essential to target a range of values and factors that, together, impact individuals' decisions to enter teaching as a career. At teacher education level, and later in teachers' professional careers, the realisation of motivating aspirations (which has been linked to teachers' long-term commitment to the profession as well as to their health) needs to be a particularly important goal for policy-makers and educators (Beng Huat, 2004; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kieschke and Schaarschmidt, 2008; Zumwalt & Craig, 2008). Findings from our research suggest that Irish education policy needs, first, to enhance teachers' opportunities to intellectually and creatively engage with their expert subjects, an achievable aim in the context of the current development of a continuous professional development (CPD) framework for teachers. Secondly, education policies affecting teachers and schools should, at all times, promote and support *all* teachers' social and holistic contributions to their pupils' development and wider society.

Teacher education programmes need to be designed carefully to help student teachers achieve satisfying levels of individual success and personal fulfillment on their journey to becoming effective teachers. At the same time, teacher educators need to support student teachers to develop a

healthy balance between their intrinsic and altruistic motivations, and the pragmatic, day-to-day, demands of the teaching profession. This might mean that instructional demands and expectations placed on student teachers during their initial teacher education programmes need to be carefully graduated, and possibly tailored to individual circumstances. It certainly requires high levels of supervisory support and close collaboration between university and school personnel.

¹ Unemployment rates in Ireland rose from 6.2% in 2001 to 30.3% in 2012, World Bank, 2014.

² Emigration has been part of the Irish culture for generations and, judging by the frequency of overseas recruitment events, including for student teachers, and regular exposure to other advertising encouraging young people to pursue careers elsewhere, appears to be part of government policy to reduce unemployment figures. The number of 15-24 year olds has decreased by 9% between 2007 and 2012, EC quoted in Cahill, 2014.

³ Contrary to Irish-language National Schools they are mostly under the patronage of a voluntary organisation, Foras Pátrúnachta na Scoileanna Lán-Ghaeilge, rather than a diocesan patronage.

⁴ For more information about this ongoing review of Diversity of Patronage in Ireland see: <https://www.education.ie/en/Schools-Colleges/Information/Diversity-of-Patronage/Diversity-of-Patronage-Survey-of-Parents.html>.

⁵ The Council is a professional standards body for teaching made up of 37 representatives from various education stakeholders including teachers, teacher educators, school management, parent and union representatives.

⁶ The *Public Service Stability (Haddington Road) Agreement and Financial Emergency Measures in the Public Interest Act 2013* introduced temporary salary increment freezes and pension levies (between 5% and 8% of gross earnings) for all teachers and salary reductions for teachers earning over €65,000. Furthermore, additional payments traditionally received by teachers for supervision were also abolished.

⁷ See: http://www.asti.ie/index.php?id=38&no_cache=1&tx_ttnews%5Btt_news%5D=332.

⁸ Dublin City University (DCU), University College Cork (UCC), University College Dublin (UCD), NUI, Maynooth, NUI, Galway, Trinity College Dublin (TCD), University of Limerick (UL)

⁹ Droichead, a new model of induction and probation consisting of induction workshops and school-based mentoring support is currently being piloted in self-selected schools throughout Ireland.

¹⁰ Dublin City University, Trinity College Dublin and the University of Limerick

¹¹ Dublin City University (DCU), National University of Ireland Galway (NUIG), National University of Ireland Maynooth (NUIM), University College Cork (UCC), University College Dublin (UCD), Trinity College Dublin (TCD), University of Limerick (UL)

¹² PAC administers application for the National University of Ireland constituent colleges (NUIG, NUIM, UCC, UCD) as well as for Dublin City University centrally

¹³ Respondents were asked to "Please state principal present occupation, giving precise job title. If not in paid employment, please record LAST occupation held by a) FATHER/GUARDIAN; and b) MOTHER/GUARDIAN." Parents' occupations were coded according to the social class and socio-economic group categories of the 2011 census classification (Central Statistics Office, 2012, Appendix 6, 7 & 8). This

classification system ranks occupations from Social Class 1 through to Social Class 7 as follows: 1 – Professional workers; 2 – Managerial and technical; 3 – Non-manual; 4 – Skilled manual; 5 – Semi-skilled; and 6 – Unskilled. Where a mothers' occupation was specified as housewife/homemaker or equivalent description, this was coded accordingly. Where homemaker and another occupation were given, the other occupation was coded. Farmers were distributed throughout the social classes according to acreage following census classification guidelines.

¹⁴ See also our article exploring sexualities in ITE and the motivational profiles of heterosexual and non-heterosexual ITE applicants (Heinz, Keane & Davison, in press).

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TABLE 1:

COMPARISON OF POSTGRADUATE SECOND-LEVEL ITE ENTRANTS 2006 AND 2013

Variable	% 2006	% 2013
Age:		
24 or younger	44.4	59.1
25-30	37.7	22.0
31+	17.9	18.9
Mean age	27.0 (SD = 6.5)	26.3 (SD = 7.1)
Sex:		
Male	27.1	32.3
Female	72.9	67.7
Social class (based on father's occ.):		
Professional workers	12.4	11.9
Managerial and technical	33.7	28.0
Non-manual	23.7	15.7
Skilled manual	25.4	26.7
Semi-skilled	3.0	13.2
Unskilled	1.8	4.4
Ethnicity:		
White Irish	n/a	96.0
Other	98.2 Irish Nationality	4.0
Type of post-primary school attended:		
State secondary	72.5	69.0
Home school/Other	0.3	1.5
State vocational/community	13.3	18.9
State comprehensive/community	13.9	5.4
Private fee-paying	n/a	5.2
School experience (post-primary):		
Positive	80.8	80.9
Mixed	15.3	13.1
Negative	6.5	6.0
Previous teaching experience:		
Yes	71.6	41.7
No	28.4	58.3
Degree subject:		
Arts	70.6	70.9
Science	15.3	11.8
Business, Marketing, Accounting	5.9	9.0
Engineering	0.6	2.0

IT	3.2	0.8
Theology	2.1	1.4
Medicine	0.3	0.2
Other	2.1	3.8
Religious Affiliation:		
Roman Catholic	88.2	81.1
Church of Ireland	1.4	3.3
Islam	0	0.2
Buddhist	0	0.5
Hinduism	0	0.2
None	9.5	14.1
Other	0.9	0.5
Children:		
Yes	13.8	13.5
No	86.2	86.5
Fathers among male entrants	15.4	14.5
Mothers among female entrants	13.3	12.9

TABLE 2:

RELIABILITIES, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FIT-CHOICE SCALE RESULTS FOR 2006 AND 2013 SAMPLES OF POSTGRADUATE SECOND-LEVEL ITE ENTRANTS

Motivational Factors			2006 (Heinz, 2011)			2013			Significance of difference between 2006 and 2013 results
Higher Order Factor	Factors	Items	α	M	SD	α	M	SD	p
N/A	Ability	3	0.83	5.58	1.28	0.77	5.57	1.08	0.91
N/A	Intrinsic Career Value	3	0.61	5.71	1.10	0.65	5.85	1.09	0.08
N/A	Fallback Career	3	0.58	1.55	0.89	0.62	1.71	1.01	0.02*
N/A	Teaching Subject	3	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.77	6.15	0.98	n/a
Personal utility value		11	0.88	3.40	1.27	0.90	3.56	0.07	0.10
	Job Security	3	0.90	4.33	1.68	0.88	4.32	1.60	0.93
	Time for Family	5	0.84	2.37	1.11	0.88	3.07	1.59	<.001**
	Job Transferability	3	0.70	3.65	1.65	0.77	3.59	1.61	0.61
Social utility value		12	0.93	4.98	1.37	0.92	5.23	1.16	<.01**
	Shape Future of Child.	3	0.84	5.16	1.48	0.82	5.55	1.10	<.01**
	Enhance Soc. Equity	3	0.90	4.75	1.63	0.87	4.89	1.50	0.22
	Make Soc. Contribution	3	0.83	5.31	1.46	0.81	5.43	1.27	0.22
	Work with Children	3	0.93	5.08	1.57	0.87	5.29	1.35	0.05*
N/A	Prior Experience	3	0.87	5.45	1.52	0.85	5.43	1.47	0.85
N/A	Social Influences	3	0.85	2.62	1.62	0.86	3.07	1.72	<.001**
Task demand		5	0.71	5.49	0.88	0.75	5.73	0.81	<.001**
	Expertise	2	0.84	5.02	1.25	0.77	5.47	1.10	<.001**
	Difficulty	3	0.77	5.95	.90	0.72	5.94	0.80	0.87

Task return		8	0.88	4.11	1.03	0.86	4.29	1.04	0.01*
	Social Status	6	0.87	4.30	1.16	0.87	4.61	1.14	<.001**
	Salary	2	0.95	3.94	1.22	0.90	3.50	1.25	<.001**
N/A	Social Dissuasion	3	0.74	3.52	1.59	0.65	3.59	1.48	0.53
N/A	Satisfaction with Choice	3	0.84	6.22	0.92	0.86	6.13	0.96	0.19

Note: 2006 data was gathered from entrants to the PDE programmes at the NUI colleges, 2013 data includes NUI colleges as well as UL and TCD

TABLE 3:

INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN FIT-CHOICE FACTORS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Age	-	0.01	0.04	0.06	-0.01	0.07	0.10	0.00	0.05	-0.05	0.04	0.06	0.03	0.10	0.00	0.01	0.00	-0.02	-0.03	0.07
2. Acad. confidence (PP)		-	0.09	0.12*	-0.13	-0.02	0.00	-0.01	0.05	-0.05	-0.04	0.09	0.15**	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.11*	0.1*
3. Ability			-	0.56**	-0.10	0.35**	0.17**	0.18**	0.39**	0.25**	0.4**	0.43**	0.27**	0.27**	0.26**	0.17**	0.21**	0.07	0.05	0.43**
4. Intrinsic career value				-	-0.31	0.16**	-0.09	0.10	0.45**	0.27**	0.37**	0.52**	0.39**	0.11*	0.27**	0.26**	0.26**	0.08	-0.05	0.59**
5. Fallback career					-	0.25**	0.43**	0.38**	-0.05	0.00	0.01	-0.10	-0.02	0.33**	-0.14**	-0.15**	0.01	0.12*	0.10	-0.46**
6. Job security						-	0.6**	0.56**	0.14**	0.04	0.19**	0.17**	0.22**	0.41**	0.03	0.04	0.24**	0.32**	0.01	0.02
7. Time for family							-	0.57**	0.02	0.02	0.13*	0.05	0.14*	0.49**	0.00	-0.07	0.08	0.17**	0.12*	-0.16**
8. Job transferability								-	0.25**	0.17**	0.26**	0.18**	0.2**	0.44**	0.05	0.03	0.14**	0.22**	0.11*	-0.10
9. Shaping future									-	0.67**	0.63**	0.63**	0.41**	0.26**	0.35**	0.34**	0.29**	0.08	0.02	0.28**
10. Enhancing soc. equity										-	0.61**	0.55**	0.3**	0.18**	0.31**	0.23**	0.12*	0.01	0.06	0.22**
11. Social contribution											-	0.49**	0.35**	0.3**	0.25**	0.21**	0.17**	-0.01	0.10	0.25**
12. Work with children												-	0.37**	0.23**	0.31**	0.29**	0.26**	0.13*	0.02	0.39**
13. Prior experiences													-	0.24**	0.21**	0.22**	0.24**	0.14*	0.04	0.3**
14. Social influences														-	0.07	0.02	0.14*	0.17**	0.15*	-0.03
15. Expertise															-	0.38**	0.28**	0.08	0.12*	0.27**
16. Difficulty																-	0.07	0.05	-0.03	0.25**
17. Social status																	-	0.38**	-0.08	0.26**
18. Salary																		-	-0.01	0.10
19. Social dissuasion																			-	-0.04
20. Satisfaction																				-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

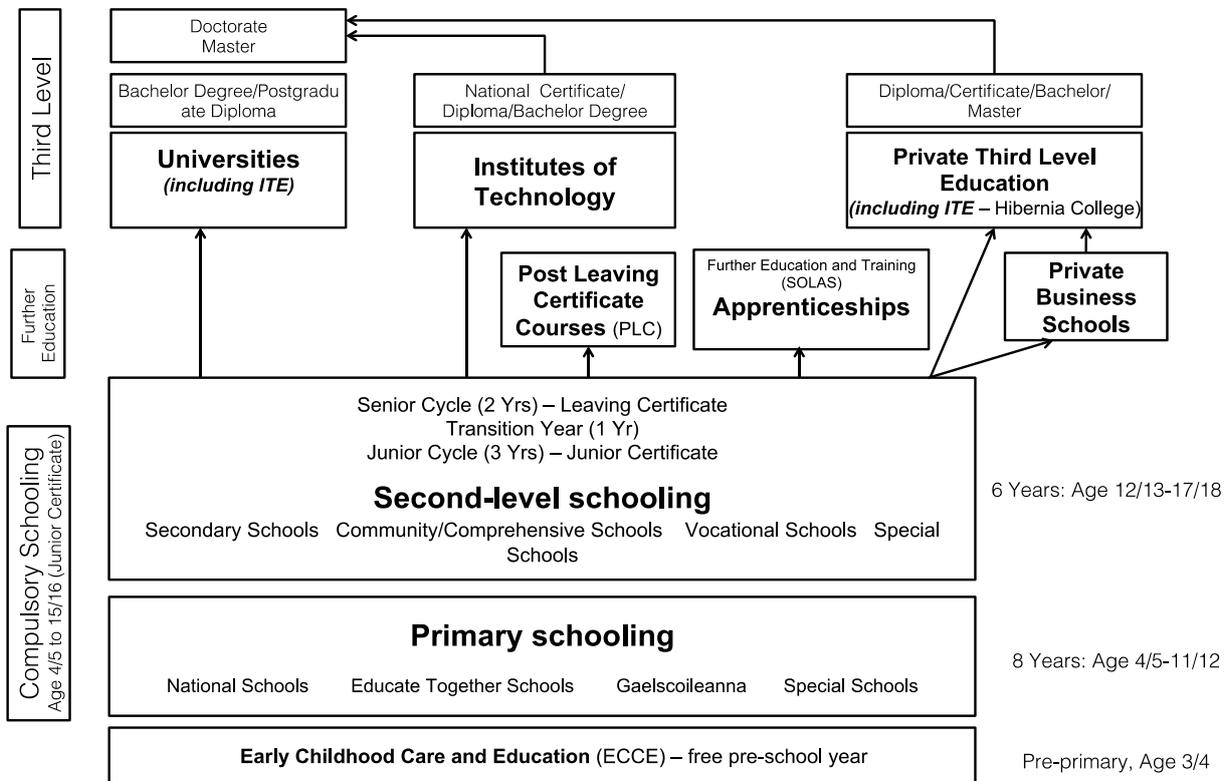


Figure 1: Overview of the Irish Education System

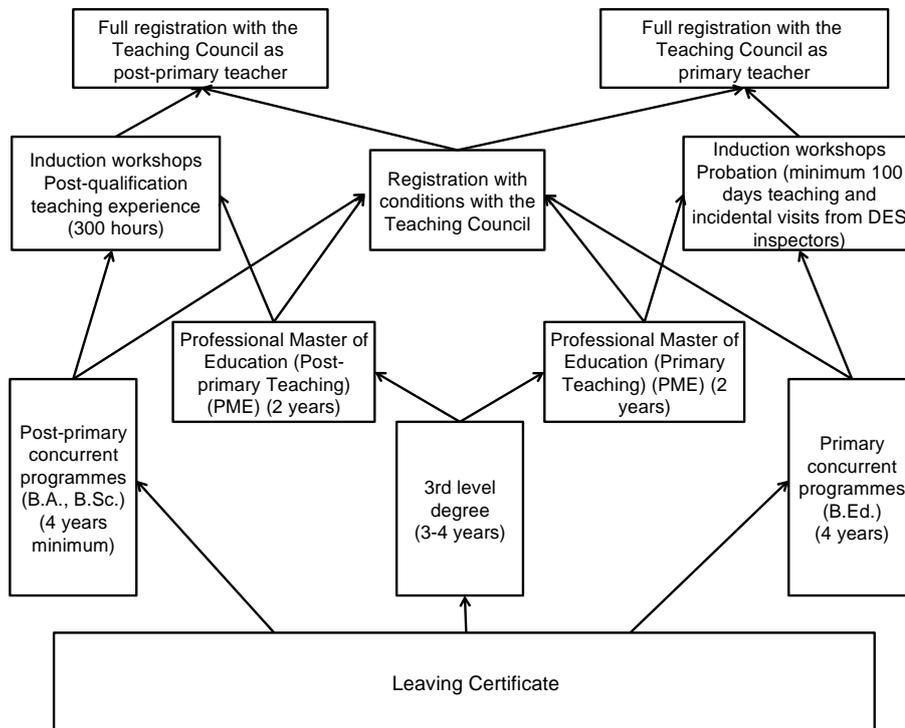


Figure 2: Overview of pathways into teaching in Ireland

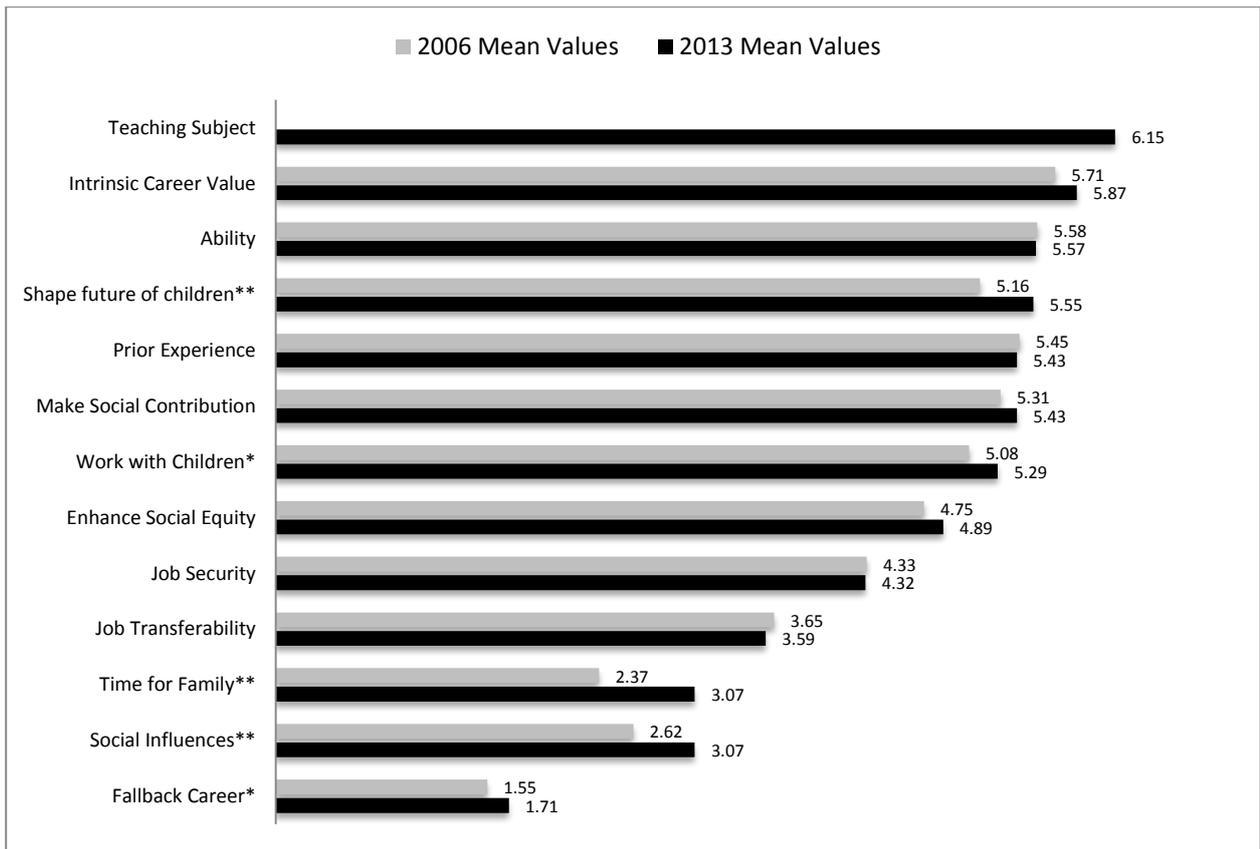


Figure 3: Mean scores for FIT-Choice Factors: Comparison of 2006 and 2013 samples