Why They Teach: Professional Development School Teacher Candidates' Initiating Motivations to Become Teachers

Logan Rutten, The Pennsylvania State University
Bernard Badiali, The Pennsylvania State University

ABSTRACT: *Initiating motivations to teach* are the reasons people choose to become teachers. This study characterized the initiating motivations espoused by a cohort of teacher candidates in a professional development school. The data source consisted of essays in which the teacher candidates explained their reasons for becoming teachers. The analytic method was thematic analysis, which was employed to develop a typology of initiating motivations. Findings indicated a pattern of altruistic and intrinsic types of motivations. Common motivations included the desire to make a difference and positive perceptions of the work of teaching. Few teacher candidates espoused extrinsic motivations. The study expands existing understandings about the characteristics of teacher candidates as learners. It carries implications for professional development schools' efforts to recruit teacher candidates. It also has implications for the clinical education of teacher candidates. The study indicates a need for expanded attention to the significance of the initiating motivations of teacher candidates in professional development schools.

NAPDS Nine Essentials Addressed: #2: A school-university culture committed to the preparation of future educators that embraces their active engagement in the school community. #5: Engagement in and public sharing of the results of deliberate investigations of practice by respective participants.

In his letter prefacing the Fall 2019 issue of *School-University Partnerships*, NAPDS President Michael Cosenza observed that "we face the prospect of a national shortage of teachers" (p. 2). He wrote that this shortage would create pressure upon efforts to promote and sustain high-quality clinical practice as the core of the curriculum for teacher education. Cosenza highlighted the role of advocacy in finding "solutions to the impending teacher shortage without compromising the quality of teacher preparation programs" (p. 2). In this paper, we accept the challenge of addressing the issues Cosenza raised. We agree that school and university partners alike must advocate for their work with federal, state, and local policymakers. We would add that school-university partnerships have a critical part to play in recruiting and retaining teacher candidates as part of their day-to-day operations. We propose that an important aspect of recruiting and sustaining teacher candidates is to understand why they choose to become teachers in the first place. Further, we believe that having an awareness of their interests and goals puts teacher educators in a better position to help teacher candidates realize them.

Scholars concerned with efforts to recruit and retain teachers concur on the importance of attempting to learn what motivates some people to choose a teaching career (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2012; Hellsten & Prytula, 2011; Leech, Haug, & Bianco, 2015; Sinclair, 2008; Thomson & Palermo, 2018). This appears to be a fruitful line of scholarship, with recent papers reporting predictive relationships between different types of motivations and the intention to persist in the classroom. For instance, Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus (2014) reported medium to large correlations between various motivations to teach and measures of planned persistence in the classroom. Jungert, Alm, and Thornberg (2014) computed a statistically significant negative correlation between altruistic types of motivation to teach and dropout rates from teacher education programs. Other studies have attempted to build motivation profiles that correlate with beliefs about teaching that could lead to either career persistence or attrition (Thomson, Turner, & Nietfeld, 2012). Still other studies have illustrated myriad ways in which the motivation to teach is socioculturally emplaced, indicating a need for differentiated approaches to teacher recruitment (Heinz, 2015; Klassen, Al-Dhafri, Hannok, & Betts, 2011).

Several decades of studies on the motivation to become a teacher have spanned the globe (Siera & Siera, 2011). However, we have struggled to locate peer-reviewed research on the motivations of teacher candidates who learn to teach within the context of school-university partnerships such as professional development schools (PDSs). This line of scholarship raises questions for school- and university-based teacher educators: What might it mean for school-university partnerships to recruit new teacher candidates without knowing why those currently involved in their partnerships are choosing to become teachers? What might it mean for teacher educators within such partnerships?

Once teacher candidates have been recruited, the motivations that led them to pursue teaching may take on new significance. In particular, we contend that the turn toward clinical practice creates a need for studies of the motivation to teach. Clinical practice, which emphasizes teacher candidate learning in authentic educational settings (American Association

of Colleges for Teacher Education [AACTE], 2018), forefronts teacher candidates' understanding of their students as learners. This imperative also implicates supervisors who conceptualize their work primarily as a form of assistance in the improvement of teaching, rather than as a form of teacher evaluation (Cogan, 1973; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2014; Nolan & Hoover, 2004). That is, we view the motivations of teacher candidates as a component of the knowledge base for those supervisors whose work entails "teaching about teaching" (Loughran, 2006, p. 11) and especially "teaching about teaching in clinical contexts" (Burns & Badiali, 2018, p. 431).

In collaborative school-university partnerships with a commitment to teacher preparation, the school and the university negotiate a shared vision of clinical practice. Such a vision ought to account for the characteristics of learners across the partnership, including but not limited to students, school- and university-based teacher educators, and teacher candidates. We include the motivations of teacher candidates among the characteristics of learners that should inform a shared vision. Here, we ask: How confident can teacher educators be that they know what motivates their teacher candidates? What could be the danger in not knowing why a teacher candidate is motivated to teach? What is to be gained from such knowledge?

In response to the paucity of evidence about the motivation to teach within school-university partnerships, we undertook this exploratory study. Our study had two purposes. First, we sought to characterize the motivations of an entire cohort of teacher candidates who chose to complete a year-long clinical experience in one PDS. Second, we sought to consider the significance of teacher candidates' motivations for recruitment and teacher education in school-university partnerships. To address our research purposes, we begin by reviewing relevant scholarship on teacher motivation. Next, we describe the professional development school in which this study was undertaken. We outline our research approach, including our data source and analytic methods. We organize our findings thematically and conclude with a discussion of some potential implications of this work.

It is important to make clear that this paper is about *why they teach* and not about *why they* don't *teach*. We characterized the motivations of teacher candidates who were enrolled in one teacher education program and who had reached the point of their capstone clinical experiences. In other words, we studied the motivations of people who had already decided to become teachers and who had already completed many of the requirements for being recommended for teacher certification. The paper does not attempt to disentangle the sociocultural factors that lead people toward or away from a teaching career. For example, it does not take on the issues of systemic racism in the United States that have contributed to a teaching force that is predominantly white and female. The paper also does not attempt to track changing motivations over time or across contexts. These issues demand fuller consideration than we can provide here. In this paper, we explore the potential significance of attending to the motivations of the teacher candidates who were already present in one school-university partnership. We do

so in the belief that other school-university partnerships could benefit from exploring similar questions in their own settings as they consider how to tackle the issues NAPDS President Cosenza raised in his letter.

Informing Literature

Initiating and Sustaining Motivations

Teacher motivation is a multifaceted construct with a history of unclear definitions and contested terminology (Carson & Chase, 2009; Richardson & Watt, 2006; Spittle, Jackson, & Casey, 2009; Watt et al., 2012). Across the literature are references to teachers' motivations to teach, their reasons for choosing teaching as a career, their entry motives, and similar phrases. In their recent scoping review of empirical studies, Fray and Gore (2018) concluded that despite the variety of ways scholars have defined their terms, "motivation remains the key construct in understanding teaching choice" (p. 156). We see a worthwhile distinction between the motivations that lead a teacher candidate to pursue an experience in a school-university partnership and the motivations that sustain that same teacher candidate's persistence during a clinical experience. Thus, in this paper, we use the term *initiating motivations to teach* to refer to the reasons people choose to become teachers (Williams & Burden, 1997). In contrast, we use the term *sustaining motivations to teach* to name the reasons teachers persist in the classroom. The challenge for school-university partnerships is not only to capitalize upon initiating motivations in order to enroll more teacher candidates, but also to nurture and sometimes problematize teacher candidates' sustaining motivations during clinical experiences.

In outlining the terms *initiating* and *sustaining motivations,* we wish to be clear that we are conceptualizing these phrases in terms of the reasons that inform a person's choice to teach ("What motivates you to teach?"), not the extent to which such reasons may predict or influence a person's degree of motivation ("How motivated are you?"). Other scholars have measured the degree to which teachers are motivated by different goal orientations, such as the desire to continue learning or to avoid work (e.g., Janke, Bardach, Oczlon, & Lüftenegger, 2019). Quantitative studies of motivation tend to ask variations on the question, "To what extent are teachers motivated by a given set of factors?" In contrast, working from the belief that teacher candidates' reasons for enrolling in teacher education may matter in as-yet-unknown ways, in this study we ask, "What are the initiating motivations of teacher candidates in one school-university partnership?"

Early Teacher Motivation Typologies

Late-20th century research generated a variety of typologies of motivations to teach, often derived from interviews and surveys of inservice teachers. Lortie (1975) identified five themes that explained why people were motivated to become teachers: (1) the desire to work with young people; (2) being of service to society;

(3) continuing involvement in a school setting; (4) material benefits and security of the job; and (5) time compatibility, including the idea that a young woman could pause her teaching career to raise a family. Joseph and Green (1986) affirmed that Lortie's findings seemed to apply to teacher candidates as well as inservice teachers. They also added several additional motivations. These included (1) a desire for workplace stimulation, (2) a desire for an absorbing career where one could exercise creativity, (3) the ability to influence students and others, and (4) a desire for authority and autonomy.

Goodlad (1994) surveyed over 3,000 pre-service teachers and concluded that perceptions of the work of teaching were among the most prominent motivators. Participants in Goodlad's study reported wanting to teach specific academic subjects, to serve others, or to engage in what they believed to be a worthwhile profession. Notably, love of children was not a primary motivator for pre-service teachers preparing for either primary or secondary teaching positions. That same year, an Australian study (Alexander, Chant, & Cox, 1994) further extended the list of motivations by adding that some prospective teachers wanted to share a particular language or culture (e.g., teaching Japanese language and culture to Australian students; passing on a love of the English language). In addition, Alexander and colleagues found motivations that included a passion for particular school subjects and the notion that one's personality traits, such as patience, made teaching a suitable career choice.

Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Altruistic Motivations to Teach

Literature reviews on the motivation to teach have frequently categorized the reasons listed in earlier typologies into intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic types of motivation (Fray & Gore, 2018). Brookhart and Freeman (1992) reviewed studies on the characteristics of teacher candidates that were conducted from 1960 to 1990. They reported that altruistic and intrinsic motivations were more prominent than extrinsic motivations across a variety of contexts in the United States. Watt and colleagues (2012) later suggested that this approach is problematic because some motivations touch upon multiple types. For instance, the general motivation to "make a difference" may have both intrinsic and altruistic dimensions. However, when Fray and Gore (2018) reviewed literature from 2007 to 2016, they noted the continuing relevance of studies reporting motivations on the basis of their intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic qualities.

In our study, we worked from the definitions of the terms intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic that were proposed by Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) and examples offered by Han and Yin (2016). Intrinsic motivations are those related to the experience of the work of teaching, such as pursuing a passion for a particular subject, feeling intellectually stimulated, or feeling competent. Examples include being motivated by perceptions of teaching as an interesting activity or enjoying the challenge of the work. Altruistic motivations relate to viewing teaching as a worthwhile pursuit that can make a difference for children or society. This may include

wanting to impart useful knowledge to students, to assist struggling learners, or to shape the character of students in ways the teacher believes will be beneficial to them. Extrinsic motivations are those that relate to the choice of teaching as a career but that are unrelated to the actual work of teaching, such as the prospect of affirmation from others or the possibility of realizing material rewards. These include perceptions of teaching as a secure job, having summer vacations, or being available for family.

An Emphasis on Quantitative Studies

In the past decade, research on initiating motivations to teach has become increasingly international and comparative as a result of Watt and Richardson's (2007) development of the FIT-Choice scale. The FIT-Choice scale allows for efficient and standardized comparisons of initiating motivations across contexts. Watt and Richardson validated their scale in Australia, where they reported that the most prominent motivators to teach included teacher candidates' perceptions of their own teaching ability and the intrinsic motivation to make a difference for children or in society. Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus (2012) reported a study of Dutch teachers, for whom the belief in their own abilities as teachers was a primary motivator. Hennessy and Lynch (2016) drew a similar conclusion about Irish teacher candidates and noted a prominent theme of the importance of prior teaching experiences.

Quantitative approaches with standardized theoretical frameworks can facilitate international comparisons, but they may also obscure the local characteristics of a particular motivation (Klassen et al., 2011). In the context of clinical education in school-university partnerships, we question the practical significance of quantitative teacher motivation studies that attempt to generalize their findings across contexts. Teacher educators and school-university partnerships could benefit from understanding the motivations of their own teacher candidates, but it may not be especially helpful to know the motivations of teacher candidates in some other context. Similarly, while we concur with Watt and colleagues (2012) that the categories of intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic can be problematic, we view these categories as a useful heuristic for informing practice. We propose that it is the character, rather than the degree, of teacher candidates' initiating motivations that is likely to be of greatest use for recruiting teacher candidates. Thus, although we report a typology of the intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic initiating motivations of teacher candidates, we suggest that the chief value of this work is to illustrate what it could mean to take teacher candidates' initiating motivations seriously.

Method

Study Context: An Elementary Professional Development School Partnership

The term "professional development school" first appeared in *Tomorrow's Teachers: A Report of the Holmes Group* (1986). It refers

to a unique form of partnership between schools and universities that is rooted in a commitment to improving all affiliated partners. The Holmes Group was a consortium of deans and several chief academic officers from research institutions in each of the 50 states, organized around the twin goals of the reform of both teacher education and the teaching profession. The stated goals of The Holmes Group were to: (1) make the education of teachers intellectually more solid; (2) recognize differences in teachers' knowledge, skill, commitment, education, certification, and work; (3) create standards of entry to the profession, including examinations and educational requirements that are professionally relevant and intellectually defensible; (4) connect the group's institutions with schools; and (5) make schools better places for teachers to work and learn.

Guided by the Holmes Group's (1986) vision for teacher education and Goodlad's (1998) postulates for education in a democracy, a small group of mentor teachers, professors, and teacher candidates from a research university and local school district in the Mid-Atlantic United States began a grades K-4 PDS partnership over 20 years ago. The partners conceptualize themselves as a single community geographically distributed across eight school buildings. A shared belief is that collaboration across buildings is a powerful vehicle for innovation, inquiry, and reflection. Because the PDS partners have defined themselves in this way, the creation of a variety of structural features and working relationships to encourage collaboration among buildings has been critically important in sustaining the idea of a single community (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007).

Teacher candidates who complete internships in the PDS demonstrate a high level of commitment by abandoning the university calendar and following the school district calendar throughout the entire school year. The internship year begins before schools open with an intensive orientation program. As the year progresses, the teacher candidates take on more responsibility for planning instruction and engaging in co-teaching with their mentors. The PDS advocates various forms of co-teaching (Bacharach, Heck, & Dahlberg, 2010; Badiali & Titus, 2010) as opposed to solo teaching for most instructional time. Mentors and professors endorse the idea that co-teaching increases reflective dialogue between mentor and teacher candidate. Co-teaching also advances the goal of enhancing learning experiences for all students.

Throughout the school year, teacher candidates participate fully in all school activities including back-to-school night; student-led goal-setting conferences in the fall and spring; school-wide faculty meetings; weekly grade-level meetings; and periodic unit planning meetings with mentors, other teachers and curriculum support personnel. The teacher candidates are involved with response to intervention (RTI) activities, all professional development and in-service activities, IEP meetings, and instructional support team meetings. They also join parent-teacher organization meetings and other community activities.

From the inception of this PDS, practitioner inquiry as a form of professional development and knowledge generation has stood at the center of the work. Each teacher candidate engages in inquiry and reports the findings to the larger community at an annual conference. Mentor teachers agree, as a condition of becoming a mentor, to engage in inquiry on an annual basis. Inquiry in the PDS is not limited to mentors and teacher candidates. Principals, curriculum personnel, doctoral students, and university faculty also conduct their own inquiries each year.

Participant Characteristics

The participants in this study were 67 undergraduate teacher candidates who wrote essays as a required part of their applications to an internship in the K-4 PDS during the 2016-2017 school year. The participants were predominantly white females in their early twenties. They chose to pursue a year-long PDS internship from among several options for capstone clinical experiences in teacher education, including traditional, semester-long student teaching and student teaching abroad.

Data Source and Analytic Approach

The data source consisted of teacher candidates' written responses to the essay question, "Why have you chosen to become a teacher?" We then engaged in an inductive thematic analysis of the essays, partially informed by Braun and Clarke (2006). We compiled all essays into a spreadsheet and randomly assigned each respondent's essay a numerical code (e.g., "Teacher Candidate 1"). We familiarized ourselves with the data by completing a preliminary reading of the essays, noting and discussing responses that caught our attention. Next, we each read the essays systematically, employing a combination of descriptive and in vivo coding (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2020) to identify and label discrete units of thought. We then read the essays a third time, noting any changes in our coding and discussing these to reconcile any differences, then merging duplicate codes to form categories.

We decided to count codes within each category in order to gain a sense of the relative frequency of the motivations espoused in the essays. We decided that the same code needed to appear in at least five teacher candidates' essays before we would consider creating a theme for it. Finally, we considered whether the categories of intrinsic, altruistic, and extrinsic motivators applied to our themes, assigning one of these labels to each theme that aligned with the definitions from our review of literature.

Results

Figure 1 displays the themes we generated in our analysis. The themes are arranged from left to right in order of prominence within our dataset. For each theme, the front bar shows the number of unique essays (out of 67) in which the theme appeared. The rear bar shows the number of unique instances of a code pertaining to that theme (allowing for multiple occurrences within a single essay). Themes marked by checkerboard-patterned bars were considered altruistic types of
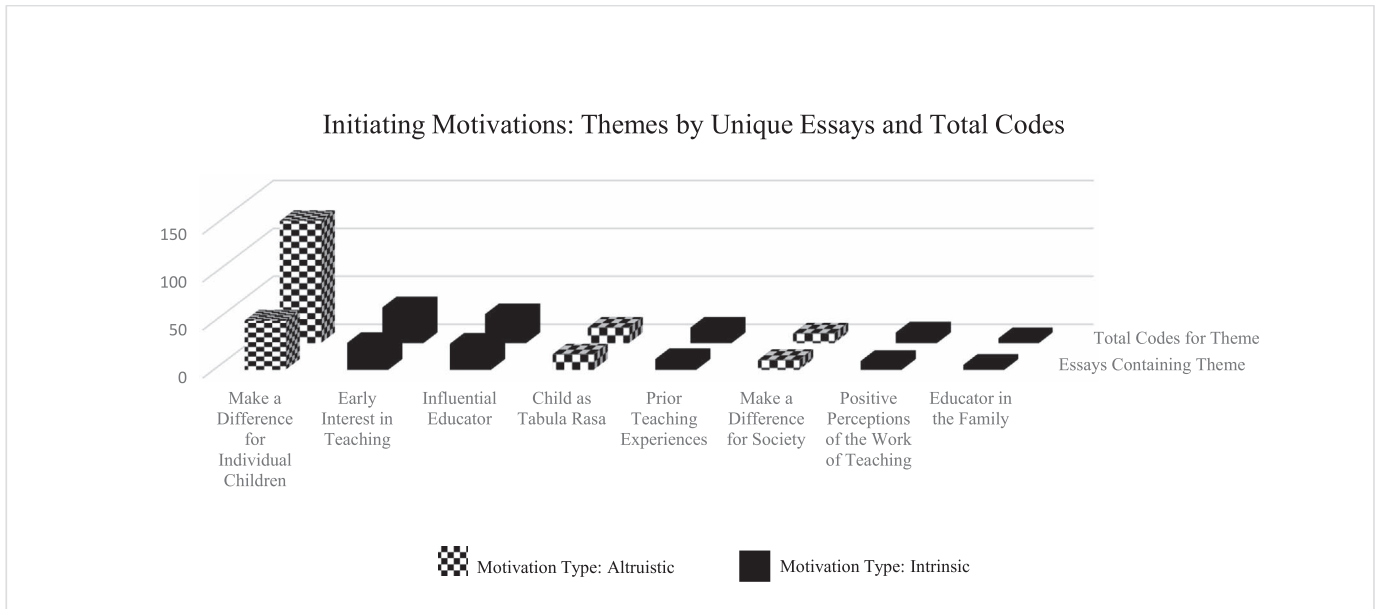
Figure 1.   Initiating Motivations: Themes by Unique Essays and Total Codes. *Note. No code for any single extrinsic motivation appeared five or more times. Thus, no extrinsic motivations appear in Figure 1

motivation according to the definitions offered in our review of literature. Themes marked by solid black bars were considered intrinsic types of motivation.

Altruistic Motivations

Altruistic motivations were among the most common reasons the teacher candidates identified for wanting to teach. Three themes account for these motivations, including the single most prominent within our analysis: the desire to *make a difference for individual children*. This theme accounts for teacher candidates who reported wanting to help students, improve students' lives, or who expressed a passion for working with children. Some teacher candidates reported wanting to help students in a general sense. Teacher Candidate 52 reported, "I want to make a difference in the lives of young students and help them to be the best individuals they can be." Others focused on students they perceived as needing assistance, as Teacher Candidate 6 indicated: "If I can reach just one of those kids struggling, it will be worth it." Despite this theme's prominence, the responses associated with the them tended to provide little detail about the nature of the difference teacher candidates wanted to make for their students.

Other teacher candidates had broader altruistic motivations for their teaching. Ten candidates were motivated to *make a difference for society*. These teacher candidates related a desire to have an impact beyond individual children. Teacher Candidate 10 exemplified this theme, writing, "My job is to prepare my students to be future citizens of the world! These children are our future, and I am honored to have an influence on them." Teacher Candidate 65 had a similar, broad desire to affect "the development of the human race." Like the motivation to *make a difference for individual children*, the responses in this theme offered little detail about what it might mean to live out this motivation.

A less common altruistic theme, *child as tabula rasa*, was created to account for teacher candidates who expressed a motivation to shape students' morals, behavior, or attitudes during what they perceived as the formative years of childhood. Once again, teacher candidates were short on details, expressing motivations such as "instill[ing] core values that they can take with them throughout life" (Teacher Candidate 21) or "I hope to deliver my students with the necessary framework that they will need for their futures" (Teacher Candidate 55). These motivations reflected a desire to serve children by imparting values the teacher candidates felt would help them succeed, although no teacher candidate offered examples or justifications for specific values.

Intrinsic Motivations

Intrinsic motivations were also prominent within our analysis. We created five themes to account for these motivations, and the most common was a long-standing or *early interest in teaching*. Nearly half of all teacher candidates shared vivid memories of "playing school" with stuffed animals or with siblings. Teacher Candidate 16 reported, "I have wanted to be a teacher since I was three years old. I have two older sisters, and when we were kids they would love to play 'school.'" Several of the essays opened with this motivation.

The theme of *influential educator* was another common explanation for intrinsic motivation to teach. Nearly half of the teacher candidates articulated a motivation related to this theme, which included stories about inspiring teachers and school

principals who had created an intrinsic desire to become a teacher. Teacher Candidate 20 reported, "I was lucky enough in elementary school to have wonderful and caring teachers, and I believe this helped to shape my future desire to become an educator," while Teacher Candidate 51 recalled being influenced by an "early education experience at — Elementary School which was shaped by our esteemed principal, Mr. —."

Closely related to the theme of *influential educator* was the less prominent theme of *educator in the family*. Just five teacher candidates reported this motivation, but, for them, it was a particularly powerful one. These teacher candidates had grown up around the work of teaching and had developed a strong intrinsic motivation to become teachers themselves. For example, Teacher Candidate 53 related this experience:

> I have a handful of educators in my family, even professors of education. However, there has always been one in particular, my cousin (who transitioned from 3rd grade, to kindergarten, to ESL in her career) who has taken me under her wing. From the time I was two years old, I would visit her classroom or help grade math quizzes with her.

Some teacher candidates reported that an intrinsic motivation to teach had developed from *prior teaching experiences*. This theme accounted for stories about topics such as tutoring younger students, coaching a sport, or being a summer camp counselor. Other teacher candidates had prior teaching experience from formal programs designed to offer such experiences. For example, Teacher Candidate 38 reported being involved with the Future Educators of America (FEA), "where high school students could go and serve as a teacher's aide. . .In that program I realized that teaching young children was my dream." Teacher candidates expressed a variety of similar realizations from prior teaching experiences.

Several teacher candidates were intrinsically motivated by *positive perceptions of the work of teaching*. These candidates often acknowledged teaching as a challenging career option but sought to rise to that challenge because they anticipated that the work would be intrinsically fulfilling. Teacher Candidate 56 reported, "Being an elementary teacher is certainly not an easy task, but I am excited to experience all of the joys and challenges that it may bring." Others articulated a perception of teaching as important work that makes the challenges worthwhile. According to Teacher Candidate 65, "Overcoming obstacles presented by the government, the school, parents, other teachers, and the students themselves will be challenging, but it is necessary work, and I am most definitely up for the challenge."

Extrinsic and Uncommon Motivations

If fewer than five teacher candidates mentioned a particular type of motivation, we did not create a unique theme to account for it. Extrinsic motivations were among those rarely expressed.

These motivations, which were reported as being more common in previous scholarship, made few or no appearances in the PDS teacher candidates' essays. For example, only one teacher candidate discussed teaching as a second career choice, writing, "Growing up, I have always wanted to become a doctor. I wanted to be able to help others. However, when I reached ninth grade, I realized biology was not my best subject. So, I started to think of other careers that could allow me to help others" (Teacher Candidate 57). A variety of other uncommon motivations were also reported. For example, Teacher Candidate 18 wrote, "Being surrounded by the purity and innocence of children will remind me of my own values."

Discussion

This exploratory study interpreted the initiating motivations of teacher candidates in a PDS. By considering motivations in a PDS context, the study makes a unique contribution to the existing literature on teacher motivations while laying groundwork for future scholarship in PDSs. In this section, we discuss our results in relation to previous studies. We consider implications this line of scholarship may hold for teacher candidate recruitment efforts and clinical educators in PDSs. We conclude by discussing the limitations of this work and proposing possibilities for future study.

Initiating Motivations in the Study's PDS Context

Our work affirms that the categories of intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic are appropriate for characterizing the initiating motivations of the teacher candidates in the PDS we studied. Like both Brookhart and Freeman (1992) and Fray and Gore (2018), we found an overwhelming pattern of intrinsic and altruistic motivations to teach. This finding suggests that teacher candidates in this PDS had a similar pattern of motivations to teachers in non-PDS contexts. Extrinsic motivations were also present within our data set; however, these did not appear frequently enough to warrant generating a separate theme for any of them. This finding contrasts with earlier research (e.g., Joseph & Green, 1986; Lortie, 1975) in which extrinsic motivations were more prominent, such as a desire for material benefits or job security, time compatibility with raising a family, or even teaching as a back-up career.

Our analysis suggested that a desire to make a difference for individual children was by far the most prominent single motivator for our participants. This contrasts with Goodlad's (1994) survey, in which a love of working with children was a minor theme. While we cannot speculate about the reason for this difference, the contrast highlights the continuing importance of examining teacher motivations both in the scholarly literature and as a part of local practice in PDSs. The most prominent motivation in one place or time may be only a minor theme in another context or among a different population of teacher candidates.

Potential Implications for Recruitment and Retention of Teacher Candidates

A PDS with a shared vision of clinical practice is in a stronger position to address the concerns about teacher recruitment that have prompted other studies of teachers' motivations. PDSs whose partners are aware of a prominence of intrinsic and altruistic teacher candidate motivations may find greater success in recruiting teacher candidates by emphasizing the opportunities their PDS provides to satisfy those kinds of motivations than they might make if they emphasized benefits that appeal to extrinsic motivations. For example, a PDS with a vision rooted in democratic values and social justice may wish to emphasize that vision more than the potential extrinsic or economic benefits of participation in a rigorous internship, such as being an attractive candidate to employers.

PDSs rely upon governance structures and shared decision-making processes both to sustain their present work and to plan for the future (NAPDS, 2008; Nolan, Badiali, Bauer, & McDonough, 2007; Teitel, 2003). For example, in the PDS involved in this study, regular meetings take place among different groups of partners. Methods course instructors, clinical educators, graduate students, and mentor teachers meet frequently. Each year, partners generate fresh recruiting ideas and make the necessary logistical arrangements to recruit the next year's teacher candidates. These planning discussions are an ideal time for partners to assess the motivations that are represented or unrepresented among the current year's teacher candidates. For example, the motivation to make a difference in society was one of the less-frequent motivations represented in the cohort of teacher candidates whose essays we analyzed. Visions of a socially just, democratic society were similarly unrepresented, raising the question of whether future recruitment efforts in the PDS we studied should seek teacher candidates with such initiating motivations, or assist the development of a sustaining motivation that includes these components.

The discussions in which plans are drawn for recruitment efforts also create a unique opportunity for partners to identify and unpack some of the assumptions they may be carrying about the reasons teacher candidates are (or ought to be) motivated to become teachers. For instance, as we wrote this paper, we were struck by the similarities and the differences between the themes we had developed and what we felt our own initiating motivations had been for becoming teachers. As teacher educators whose prior K-12 teaching experiences were primarily at the secondary level, we both identified strongly with a motivation to teach that went largely unrepresented within the essays of the teacher candidates in this PDS: a passion for continuous learning about a particular academic subject and the opportunity to share that passion with middle and high school students. Studying the motivations of elementary teacher candidates provided an opportunity for us to check our own assumptions about motivations to teach that may or may not be shared by teacher candidates, and to consider how those assumptions may shape how we think about who is recruited for a PDS internship.

Our exploratory study found a predominance of common intrinsic and altruistic motivations among those who had already chosen to become teachers. We have suggested that recruitment efforts could capitalize upon common motivations, for instance, emphasizing the opportunity to make a difference for children and society. However, as they examine their approaches to recruitment, PDSs should also consider exploring the reasons people are motivated *not* to pursue teaching, or the reasons they are motivated to become teachers but *not* to pursue a PDS internship. For example, in the partnership we studied, teacher candidates have the option of a year-long PDS internship. However, they also have the option to select traditional, semester-long student teaching or student teaching abroad arranged by a university placement office. Surveying or interviewing those who have chosen other options could reveal different motivations or perceptions of the PDS experience that either positively or negatively impact enrollment. When a PDS faces lower enrollments, it is an ideal time for partners to turn to the PDS essential of innovation and shared reflection among partners to examine and possibly reinvent the ways they attract teacher candidates.

Potential Significance for Clinical Educators in PDSs

Our exploratory study may hold particular significance for PDS-based clinical educators who engage in the direct assistance tasks of instructional supervision (Glickman et al., 2014). For such clinical educators, understanding teacher candidates as learners is an essential part of the job. Here, we concur with Cogan (1973) that "the proper study of the supervisor is the teacher" (p. 55). Cogan suggested that there may be danger in not knowing as much as possible, arguing that "the supervisor who has *not* studied the teacher may fall into serious error simply for lack of basic knowledge" (p. 56). For the clinical educator, knowing teacher candidates' motivations is an important aspect of understanding them as learners.

Clinical educators could use knowledge of teacher candidates' espoused motivations as a basis for analyzing and critiquing practice. Like the broader supervision concept of an espoused teaching platform (Nolan & Hoover, 2004; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007), an espoused motivation can be compared with the motivation as a teacher candidate enacts it. Discrepancies can be noted, thereby provoking a need for teacher candidates to adapt and reconcile their espoused and enacted motivations. For example, one of the most commonly espoused initiating motivations in our data was encapsulated in the theme of *making a difference for individual children.* Data connected to this theme often consisted of rather vague statements. A clinical educator supporting a teacher candidate who espoused such a motivation could invite specifics about what it might look like to live out this motivation to teach within the PDS. For instance, if a teacher candidate espoused the motivation to make a difference for an individual child but has

taken no steps to develop knowledge of that child's culture, the discrepancy between the espoused and enacted motivation could be the basis for asking questions such as, "So, you said you wanted to teach in order to make a difference for your students. What knowledge might you need to develop in order to do that?" Such questions position the clinical educator as someone assisting teacher candidates to realize their motivations and opening new avenues for doing so.

The idea of an espoused motivation also offers an opportunity to problematize the reasons teacher candidates in a PDS say they want to teach. For example, one of the more problematic motivations from our study was represented within the theme of *child as tabula rasa*. We created this theme to acknowledge that, for at least 11 of the applicants to the PDS we studied, children seemed to be regarded as "blank slates," and imparting a specific set of values to students was important to these teacher candidates' motivations. We classified this as an altruistic motive because the teacher candidates who named it did so in reference to a belief that they would be setting up their students' future success.

However, teacher candidates who identified this motivation provided few specifics about which values or whose values they intended to impart. Responses within this theme tended not to acknowledge children's existing knowledge, values, identities, or cultures. Perhaps the values teacher candidates were imagining were in alignment with those of the school-university partnership, or perhaps they were in conflict. Our data lack the detail to permit an informed assessment of what this motivation may have entailed for the teacher candidates who espoused it. However, the theme illustrates the importance of taking teacher candidates motivations seriously and the potential pitfalls of ignoring them.

Knowing the motivations of teacher candidates may be particularly important for boundary-spanning teacher educators (AACTE, 2018) in PDSs. These educators may be able to mediate between teacher candidates' altruistic motivations and the complex institutional cultures in which the teacher candidates attempt to enact those motivations. For example, a teacher candidate's motivation to *make a difference for individual children* may inspire a passion for a cycle of practitioner inquiry into the learning of a student struggling with a particular challenge. A boundary-spanning teacher educator may be proficient with the university's expectations for practitioner inquiry and eager to nurture this investigation but may also be proficient with the school's culture and urge the teacher candidate to exercise caution. Perhaps the school already has an existing child study team or multi-tiered support system through which the teacher candidate should seek approval before embarking upon the inquiry. The boundary-spanning teacher educator could assist the teacher candidate in realizing his or her motivation appropriately within the culture of the school.

In addition to knowledge of teacher candidates, Cogan (1973) also argued that supervisors need self-knowledge of the perspectives they hold that shape what they notice and how they interpret teaching practice. For the authors, studying the motivations of teacher candidates was a valuable exercise in developing self-knowledge. As we mentioned above, we both began our careers as secondary school teachers. However, we examined the initiating motivations of teacher candidates seeking an internship in a grades K-4 PDS. During data analysis, we naturally began comparing the motivations expressed in the essays we analyzed and our recollections of what our own initiating motivations had been. Given the differences we noticed, we began to wonder what kinds of assumptions we were carrying about elementary PDS teacher candidates' motivations based upon our own motivations to teach. We also wondered how these assumptions might shape our practices in clinical education. For example, could our passions for teaching specific content make us less likely to notice and value the efforts of teacher candidates working from different motivations?

Limitations and Possibilities for Future Inquiry

A limitation of this exploratory study is that we considered a single data source generated by teacher candidates who were seeking formal acceptance to a PDS internship. This may account for the near absence of extrinsic motivators to teach within our thematic analysis. We see it as unlikely that a teacher candidate seeking access to an internship would be forthcoming about the existence of any extrinsic motivations to teach, such as desiring school holidays. However, previous scholarship has provided strong evidence for the existence of such motivations (Daniel & Ferrell, 1991; Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2012; Han & Yin, 2016; Watt et al., 2012). Thus, it is probable that extrinsic motivations were present for our participants but were underreported given the context in which the data were generated.

Our exploratory study characterized the initiating motivations of teacher candidates upon their entry to a PDS. Thus, this study cannot help us understand how the experience of a year-long PDS internship may have shaped the teacher candidates' sustaining motivations. Were their original motivations affirmed? Complicated? Challenged? What aspects of their PDS internships would they identify as affecting their motivations to teach, and in what ways did their motivations change over the course of a year? Were they still motivated to enter the teaching profession at the conclusion of their internships? What insights do PDS interns describe as a result of reflecting on their initial motivations? In what ways do school- and university-based teacher educators mediate the motivations of teacher candidates within school-university partnerships? In our future scholarship, we plan to begin addressing these questions.

In sharing this exploratory study, we hope to spark new conversations among PDS partners about what it could mean to inquire into the initiating and sustaining motivations of teacher candidates. We look forward to comparing and contrasting findings and implications from explorations in other school-university partnerships with the results we have presented here. We conclude by pressing the argument for exploring teacher candidates' initiating motivations to teach, reasserting that we

cannot be effective teachers of people whom we do not understand as learners. As just one example, given that many current teacher candidates were born around the year 2000, we wonder how we, as members of earlier generations, can support today's "Gen Z" learners who share our passion for teaching, but who may be motivated by different reasons than those that originally drew us to this work. Clinical educators and school-university partnerships can and should make use of this information as they guide new teachers on the journey of learning to teach. SUP

References

Alexander, D., Chant, D., & Cox, B. (1994). What motivates people to become teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 19*(2), 40-49.

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education [AACTE]. (2018). *A pivot toward clinical practice, its lexicon, and the renewal of educator preparation: A report of the AACTE Clinical Practice Commission.* Washington, DC: Author.

Bacharach, N., Heck, T. W., & Dahlberg, K. (2007). Changing the face of student teaching through coteaching. *Action in Teacher Education, 32*(1), 3-14.

Badiali, B., & Titus, N. E. (2010). Co-teaching: Enhancing student learning through mentor-intern partnerships. *School-University Partnerships, 4*(2), 74-80.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77-101.

Brookhart, S., & Freeman, D. (1992). Characteristics of entering teacher candidates. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(1), 37-60.

Burns, R. W., & Badiali, B. J. (2018). Clinical pedagogy and pathways of clinical pedagogical practice: A conceptual framework for teaching about teaching in clinical experiences. *Action in Teacher Education, 40*(4), 428-446.

Carson, R. L., & Chase, M. A. (2009). An examination of physical education teacher motivation from a self-determination theoretical framework. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 14*(4), 335-353.

Cogan, M. L. (1973). *Clinical supervision.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Cosenza, M. (2019). President's perspective. *School-University Partnerships, 12*(2), 2.

Daniel, L. G., & Ferrell, C. M. (1991). *Clarifying reasons why people aspire to teach: An application of Q-methodology.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association, Lexington, KY. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED341671.pdf

Fokkens-Bruinsma, M., & Canrinus, E. T. (2012). Adaptive and maladaptive motives for becoming a teacher. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 38*(1), 3-19.

Fokkens-Bruinsma, M., & Canrinus, E. T. (2014). Motivation for becoming a teacher and engagement with the profession: Evidence from different contexts. *International Journal of Educational Research, 65,* 65-74.

Fray, L. & Gore, J. (2018). Why people choose teaching: A scoping review of empirical studies, 2007-2016. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 75,* 153-163.

Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S. P., & Ross-Gordon, J. M. (2014). *SuperVision and instructional leadership: A developmental approach* (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Goodlad, J. I. (1994). *Teachers for our nation's schools.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Goodlad, J. I. (1998). *Educational renewal: Better teachers, better schools.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Han, J., & Yin, H. (2016). Teacher motivation: Definition, research development and implications for teachers. *Cogent Education, 3*(1), 1-18.

Heinz, M. (2015). Why choose teaching? An international review of empirical studies exploring student teachers' career motivations and levels of commitment to teaching. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 21*(3), 258-297.

Hellsten, L. M., & Prytula, M. P. (2011). Why teaching? Motivations influencing beginning teachers' choice of profession and teaching practice. *Research in Higher Education Journal, 13,* 1-19.

Hennessy, J., & Lynch, R. (2017). "I chose to become a teacher because". Exploring the factors influencing teaching choice amongst pre-service teachers in Ireland. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 45*(2), 106-125.

The Holmes Group. (1986). *Tomorrow's teachers: A report of the Holmes Group.* East Lansing, MI: The Holmes Group. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED270454.pdf

Janke, S., Bardach, L., Oczlon, S., & Lüftenegger, M. (2019). Enhancing feasibility when measuring teachers' motivation: A brief scale for teachers' achievement goal orientations. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 83,* 1-11.

Joseph, P. B., & Green, N. (1986). Perspectives on reasons for becoming teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education, 37*(6), 28-33.

Jungert, T., Alm, F., & Thornberg, R. (2014). Motives for becoming a teacher and their relations to academic engagement and dropout among student teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 40*(2), 173-185.

Klassen, R. M., Al-Dhafri, S., Hannok, W., & Betts, S. M. (2011). Investigating pre-service teacher motivation across cultures using the Teachers' Ten Statements Test. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(3), 579-588.

Kyriacou, C., & Coulthard, M. (2000). Undergraduates' views of teaching as a career choice. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 26*(2), 117-126.

Leech, N. L., Haug, C. A., & Bianco, M. (2015). Understanding urban high school students of color motivation to teach: Validating the FIT-Choice scale. *Urban Education, 54*(7), 957–983.

Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Loughran, J. (2006). *Developing a pedagogy of teacher education: Understanding teaching and learning about teaching.* London, UK: Routledge.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2020). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

National Association of Professional Development Schools. (2008). *What it means to be a professional development school.* Retrieved from https://napds.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/10/Nine-Essentials.pdf

Nolan, J., Badiali, B., Bauer, D., & McDonough, M. (2007). Creating and enhancing professional development school structures, resources and roles. In R. E. Ishler (Ed.), *Professional development schools: Enhancing teacher quality.* Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools.

Nolan, J., Jr., & Hoover, L. A. (2004). *Teacher supervision and evaluation: Theory into practice.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Richardson, P. W., & Watt, H. M. G. (2006). Who chooses teaching and why? Profiling characteristics and motivations across three Australian universities. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 34*(1), 27-56.

Sergiovanni, T. J., & Starratt, R. J. (2007). *Supervision: A redefinition* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Siera, M., & Siera, S. (2011). Exploring teacher candidates' motivations to teach. *Northwest Journal of Teacher Education, 9*(1), 1-10.

Sinclair, C. (2008). Initial and changing student teacher motivation and commitment to teaching. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(2), 79-104.

Spittle, M., Jackson, K., & Casey, M. (2009). Applying self-determination theory to understand the motivation for becoming a physical education teacher. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(1), 190-197.

Teitel, L. (2003). *The professional development schools handbook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Thomson, M. M., & Palermo, C. J. (2018). Using an expectancy-value model to understand teaching motivation among nontraditional preservice teachers: A phenomenological study approach. *Action in Teacher Education, 40*(2), 151-168.

Thomson, M. M., Turner, J. E., & Nietfeld, J. L. (2012). A typological approach to investigate the teaching career decision: Motivations and beliefs about teaching of prospective teacher candidates. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(3), 324-335.

Watt, H. M. G., & Richardson, P. W. (2007). Motivational factors influencing teaching as a career choice: Development and validation of the FIT-Choice Scale. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 75*(3), 167-202.

Watt, H. M. G., Richardson, P. W., Klusmann, U., Kunter, M., Beyer, B., Trautwein, U., & Baumert, J. (2012). Motivations for choosing teaching as a career: An international comparison using the FIT-Choice scale. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(6), 791-805.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

❖ ❖ ❖

Logan Rutten is a doctoral student in curriculum and instruction at The Pennsylvania State University. His current scholarship emphasizes practitioner inquiry, teacher and teacher educator learning, and supervision.

Bernard Badiali is an associate professor of education at The Pennsylvania State University. His main teaching and research activities are in school-university relationships, professional development, school renewal, and clinical education.